

Personality Type and Motivation in a South African Private Bank

by

**Valencia Shunmugam**  
**42486912**

submitted in accordance with the requirements for  
the degree of

**Master of Arts**

In the subject

**Industrial and Organisational Psychology**

at the

University of South Africa

Supervisor: Prof. Nico Martins

June 2012

Student number: **42486912**

I declare that Personality Type and Motivation in a South African Private Bank is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

---

SIGNATURE  
(Ms Valencia Shunmugam)

---

DATE

## **Chapter 1**

### **1. SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH**

The focus of this study is to investigate the relationship between personality and motivational drivers in a private bank within a South African context. This research is approached from an Industrial and Organisational perspective.

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION**

Personality is defined by James and Mazerolle (2002) as dynamic mental structures and a coordinated mental process that determines a person's emotional and behavioural adjustments to their environment. Personality is of much interest to Industrial/Organisational Psychologists as it plays two important roles in the organisation. Firstly, in order to manage and teach others effectively we need to know how individuals relate to themselves and others, how they conceptualise their goals and ambitions, their behaviour and code of conduct and how they adjust to problems and challenges in life. Secondly, in order to manage and teach effectively we need to know how these things influence performance in learning, administration and on other tasks. Research on personality in the organisation can assist in relating to others, understanding their strengths and difficulties, anxieties and their enthusiasms (Fontana, 2000).

Personality psychology has the role of identifying basic structural dimensions of personality (Elliot & Thrash, 2002). Many scales have been developed to enable the measurement of personality in relation to organisational behaviour issues (Mowen, Park & Zablah, 2007). One of these issues may refer to motivation. Motivation can be explained as a set of reasons for engaging in a particular behaviour. Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions, it refers to processes that influence the arousal, strength or direction of behaviour (Arkes & Garske, 1982).

Personality theory explains what allows the personality to function or what motivates behaviour. It also explains the energy behind motivation or what provides the drive in behaviour (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1992).

Kanfer (1990) believes that there is a lack of unified theoretical perspectives between understanding how personality constructs influence motivation. This creates room for further exploration in theories on personality and motivation. A possible reason for this is the lack of theoretical progress and clarity on the ability to conceptualise motivation. Gellatly (1996) stated that results from linking personality and motivation empirically were inconsistent. A possible reason for this may be that there are so many personality measures making it difficult to regulate the research (Hogan & Roberts, 2001).

Personality research has had a jagged history regarding motivation and motivational drives. For the purpose of this research project motivation and motivational drives will be used interchangeably. A chronological exploration regarding this jagged history is found in retrospect of previous research done regarding motivation. In the 1960s and 1970s there was great interest in motivation which saw the development of various theories namely, need theories (Herzberg, 1966; Maslow, 1954); expectancy theories (Vroom, 1964); goal-setting theories (Locke, 1968); cognitive theories (Cyert & March, 1964) and reinforcement theories (Wrightman, 1977). The 1980s and 1990s saw a number of extensions and refinements to these theories. There was also ongoing development of theory in the form of the social learning theory (Baron & Bryne, 1994). From the 1990s a decrease in the research was seen as well as in the development of theories surrounding motivation. This is evident from the literature and research done during this period. It may appear that the lack of interest or motivation was not seen as an important element within the work context; however that notion is not plausible.

The South African work environment has changed dramatically in recent years resulting in down-sizing to save costs, expanding due to business progress and international interest in terms of imports and exports and becoming more diverse due to political changes. There are also changes in technology and structuring of work— all these influence individuals and how they are motivated. In order for an organisation to be efficient and successful, it needs to take cognisance of motivational challenges to encourage

employees to participate and to stimulate their decision to reach their full potential at work (March & Simon, 1958; Schneider, 1990; Denison, 1996).

Researchers agree that there are individual differences in motivation and these can be attributed to a person's characteristics (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Various theories on personality can be compared in their structures; they can also be compared in their motivational concepts used as an explanation for behaviour. These motivational concepts are a reflection of the process aspects of human behaviour (Pervin & John, 2001).

For the purpose of this research Jung's personality theory (Campbell, 1988) will be used. However a number of other personality theories which may play a role will also be explored in Chapter 2. The major theories of motivation will be explored further in Chapter 3.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Many business managers today are not aware of the effects that motivation can (and does) have on their business, and it is therefore important they learn and understand the factors that determine positive motivation in the workplace. Motivation may have an effect on the output of a business and concerns both quantity and quality.

The South African private bank study has realised that their employees are their most valuable resource at this time of an international financial crisis. In this economic turmoil with much uncertainty, employees are stressed and anxious which has impacted on their performance. In the hope of retaining employees and addressing these issues, it was recommended that research on how employees are motivated be conducted. Identifying the motivational drivers of employees may assist the bank in motivating their employees and improving performance within the bank. This financial crisis has affected not only the organisation but also the personal lives of the employees. In order to prevent employees leaving due to higher packages and better opportunities offered by other organisations, the bank wishes to investigate what motivates their employees besides the monetary aspect. This is done by using McClelland's (Winter, 1998) theory of assessing motivational drivers such as affiliation, power and achievement which are intrinsic motivators rather than

extrinsic, such as money. It is important to relate it to personality types that are recruited at this crucial stage of the business. The recruitment process is demanding in terms of time and cost and therefore the bank should utilise this wisely when appointing skilled people who will be stimulated and motivated in such an environment. The link between personality and motivation (should there be one) will assist in the future to predict the likelihood of the motivational drive for a certain personality type.

The private bank being studied currently has gone through the process of assessing the personality types as well as motivational drives of their employees during the recruitment process. However nothing has been done with correlating this information into a meaningful and useful strategy. The importance of this study is therefore to identify whether a relationship exists and what the relationship is. This will empower managers in motivating current employees as well as assist the Human Resources department in attracting the ideal employee for their environment.

The choice was the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) and David McClelland's Motivational Drivers' Survey (Winter, 1998).

To address the above issues, this research will be designed to answer the following literature and empirical questions:

- How is personality defined in the workplace?
- What are the personality types of the employees?
- What are the motivational drivers of the employees?
- Is there a relationship between personality type and motivation?
- If there is a relationship between temperament and motivation?

### **1.3 AIMS**

The following general and specific aims were formulated.

The general aim of this research is to determine the relationship between personality and motivational drivers.

The specific aims relating to the literature review are

- to conceptualise personality by investigating theories on personality
- to investigate theories on motivation and motivational drivers
- to theoretically integrate personality and motivation.

The specific aims relating to the empirical study are

- to establish the personality types of the employees in the organisation
- to establish the motivational drivers of these employees
- to integrate the results of the personality assessment and motivational drivers to establish if a relationship exists between personality and motivation
- to formulate recommendations in terms of the relationship between personality and motivational drivers in the organisation.

### **1.3.1. Research Hypothesis**

In order to investigate the relationship between personality and motivational drivers, the following hypotheses:

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drivers.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

#### **1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE**

The study is conducted within the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology with the focus on the sub-discipline of Organisational Development and Psychometrics. The Industrial and Organisational field aims to understand, explain, predict and influence behaviour and experience within the work context (Theron, 2003).

A paradigm is a set of assumptions about a given topic of scientific research. It determines the approach and methodology of research to be used (Baggett, 2000). A paradigm described by Neuman (2000) is a general organising framework for social theory and empirical research which includes basic assumptions and major questions to be answered.

For the purpose of this research project, the psychodynamic and humanistic approaches will be used. Both these paradigms delve into motivation and personality although from different angles. According to Bernstein (1995) a comprehensive psychology requires different theories and areas of research. The interaction of representative and motivational processes must be illustrated. Deponte (2004) believes that in recent years a movement from the structural aspects to the functional aspects of the self has taken place. A focus should be on the self concepts or personality function in relation to elements of the self-system, such as motivation and affect. The psychodynamic approach is used in investigating personality and therefore the paradigm used in the literature review on personality. Motivation will be approached from a humanistic point of view in the literature review.

### **1.4.1 Psychodynamic Approach**

The psychodynamic approach is the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind, personality or psyche relating to mental, emotional, or motivational forces especially at the unconscious level (Freud, 1923) (Hall, 1954). In psychology, psychodynamics is the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind, personality, or psyche as they relate to mental, emotional, or motivational forces – especially at the subconscious level. In this regard Freud (1923) and Jung's (Campbell, 1988) personality theories will be investigated. For the purpose of this research project a psychodynamic approach is preferred to measure personality type. Motivation can play a role on how people set personal and professional goals, execute tasks and manage their resources to achieve these goals. It affects conscious and subconscious thoughts, decision making, perceptions, feelings and behaviour (Pervin & John, 2001).

### **1.4.2 Humanistic Approach**

The humanistic approach focuses on the belief that individuals are controlled by their own values and choices and not entirely by the environment, as behaviourists think, or by unconscious drives, as psychoanalysts believe. The goal of humanistic psychology is to help people function effectively and fulfil their own unique potential. The supporters of this approach include the American psychologists Abraham H. Maslow and Carl R. Rogers (Bohart & Greening, 2001). Humanistic theory is perhaps the most well known theory of motivation. According to this theory, humans are driven to achieve their maximum potential and will always do so unless obstacles are placed in their way. These obstacles include hunger, thirst, financial problems, safety issues, or anything else that distracts our focus from maximum psychological growth. This is illustrated in Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs which will be explained in Chapter 3. Motivational theories by Abraham Maslow, David McClelland and Herzberg will be investigated.

The market of intellectual resources that will be used include theories and previous research on personality, motivation and motivational drivers in the form of articles, books and previous research material.

## **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **1.5.1 Type of Research**

This research project is descriptive in nature. Descriptive research examines the relationship between variables rather than being casual (Mouton, 2008). This research includes an explorative literature review and a quantitative empirical study. The hypothesis will be tested by measuring the variables and statistically analysing the results.

The objective of quantitative research is to test hypotheses and not to develop them. It is drawing on related research and on existing theories in developing or establishing a hypothesis. The hypothesis is the prediction. The steps in quantitative research include: (1) Establishing a hypothesis or hypotheses; (2) Identifying appropriate data; (3) Determining a sampling method and unit; (4) Drawing a sample; (5) Establishing a data collection unit and unit of analysis; (6) Establishing a coding scheme; (7) Code data; (8) Checking for reliability of coding; (9) Analysing data; and (10) Reporting on results (White & Marsh, 2006).

### **1.5.2 Measuring Instruments**

The research is designed to obtain information on how each respondent's personality type may have a relationship to their motivational drives. In order to assess these variables, the MBTI will be used as a Personality measure and the Motivational Drivers Survey will be used for motivation.

### **1.5.3 Validity and Reliability**

In terms of validity and reliability of the research project, specific efforts will be made to ensure that all measures used are reliable and valid for the population used to perform the research. Reliability is the consistency with which the tool measures whatever it is supposed to measure. Validity refers to what the tool measures and how well it does so (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). The validity and reliability of these assessments will be discussed further in Chapter 4.

#### **1.5.4 Unit of Analysis**

The unit of analysis is the individual in an organisational context. When the unit of analysis is an individual, Babbie (1979, as cited in Mouton & Marais, 1994) suggests that the researcher should focus on the characteristics and orientations of individual behaviour.

#### **1.5.5 Ethical Considerations**

In relation to the ethics of science, research is based on the scientific search for truth. Researchers have a commitment to the search for truth as part of the global scientific research community. On the other hand accountability is an important principle in the relationship between society and science (Mouton, 2008).

In terms of this research project, the researcher needs to be sensitive and ethical in the manner of obtaining permission to release the results from both the organisation as well as the individuals. This is due to the fact that the measuring assessments have already been administered and for a different reason than that of research.

### **1.6 RESEARCH METHOD**

The research will be presented in two phases, i.e. the literature review and the empirical study.

The literature review contains the following steps:

- 1 The conceptualisation of personality type
- 2 The conceptualisation of motivational drives
- 3 The theoretical integration of personality and motivational drives.

The empirical study contains the following steps:

- 1 The sample will consist of 150 participants from a private bank. A sample of the most recent assessments will be used.

- 2 There will be two measuring instruments utilised in order to measure personality and motivational drives. To assess personality type the MBTI will be used. In order to assess motivational drives, the Motivational Drivers Survey will be utilised.
- 3 Information on the purpose of the research will be given to participants as well as consent forms to use the information provided by participants.
- 4 The MBTI and Motivational Drivers Survey have already been administered and therefore consent forms were sent out allowing the use of their results.
- 5 Statistical analysis will be done on the relationship between these assessment measures. Pearson product-moment correlation will be used to determine the relationship between the variables.
- 6 A statistical hypothesis will be deduced
- 7 The results will be interpreted graphically as well as through a discussion.
- 8 The results of the empirical study will be integrated with the literature review.
- 9 A conclusion will be formulated through integrating the results and hypothesis.
- 10 Limitations will be explored as to what the research covers and the limits to which the research can be generalised.
- 11 Recommendations will be made based on the findings of the research and in which context it may be utilised.

## **1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

Chapter 2 is a literature review on personality with regards to personality theories and the conceptualising of personality in the workplace. These theories will be viewed from a psychodynamic and psychoanalytical perspective focusing on the work by Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung.

Chapter 3 is a literature review on motivation and motivational drives. In this chapter various motivational theories will be explored. Firstly, the expectancy theories that will focus on literature and research from Victor Vroom. Secondly, the need theories which will focus on theories by Abraham Maslow, David McClelland, Clayton Alderfer and Frederick Herzberg. Lastly, an exploration of goal theories by focusing on the work of Edwin Locke and Gary Latham.

In order to achieve the empirical aims of the study, Chapter 4 will describe the research methodology used for the purpose of this study. It will explore the sampling procedure, the measuring instruments as well as review the gathering and analysis of the data.

The results will be reported and interpreted in Chapter 5.

In Chapter 6 the limitations of the study and recommendations will be made.

## **1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the scientific orientation to the research was discussed. This contained the background and motivation, the research problem, aims, the paradigm perspective, the research design and method.

## Chapter 2

### 2. PERSONALITY

This chapter contains the definition and dimensions of personality as well as the role that personality plays in the context of the organisation. This chapter explores personality from a psychodynamic perspective by looking at personality theories by Carl Jung and Sigmund Freud.

#### 2.1. DEFINING PERSONALITY AND PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY

There is no universally accepted definition for personality; however, there are general commonalities. One being that personality is described as a person's preferred way of behaving, thinking and feeling (Saville, Cramp & Henley, 1994) (Maddi, 1996). Ewen (1998) states that personality originates within the individual and refers to relatively stable and consistent behaviour.

Rothbart (2004) refers to personality as the substance of cognitions and attitudes toward themselves, others and the world around them. Robbins, Judge & Odendaal (2009) believes that personality refers to the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others as well as the measurable traits a person exhibits.

Gordon Allport's definition of personality is widely used, he describes personality as follows:

*"Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment." (as cited in Robbins, 1998, p.50).*

This definition reiterates that personality is a whole and dynamic concept that can develop, grow and change. As an outcome of this, personality can motivate and direct behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 2003).

In light of these definitions Gulliford (1991) suggests that personality factors influence performance in terms of direction and limitations. This creates an importance in understanding and researching personality within the work context. Bergh and Theron (2003) describe personality at work as the attributes that best suit the working environment. Personality at work can be researched at length with other aspects of the working environment. Barrick and Ryan (2003) list such aspects as counterproductive behaviour, performance, retention, learning, knowledge creation and sharing of knowledge. For the purpose of this research personality is coupled with motivation.

A common thread that runs through these definitions of personality is that it is a holistic concept and encompasses thoughts and actions. It can also be deduced that everyone is unique and differs in these areas.

Weiten (1992) suggests that the field of psychology lacks an integrated approach to the study of personality, as there is no other area of psychology that has such diverse theory and disintegration. Revelle (1995) believes that while evolutionary, biological, sociological, developmental, cognitive and clinical approaches provide distinctive points of view, an integrated view is still required. Personality psychology described by Mayer and Sutton (1996) is the study of internal processes and evident behaviour of an individual in an attempt to find an integrated view of personality.

Personality psychology is then a broad field which represents a variety of views on personality and the study of personality, as Moller (1995) suggests. Personality theory focuses on the concepts and assumptions of personality. Funder (2001) believes the aim of personality psychology is theoretical, empirical and institutional which explains individuals' typical pattern of thinking, emotion and behaviour. These frameworks can be used in research for the purpose of explaining and predicting behaviour (Bergh & Theron, 2003).

Personality theories have been developed to describe, explain and predict behaviour. Numerous research has been done on these theories (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) (Furnham, 1997) (Carver & Scheier, 2000) (Barrick & Ryan, 2003) (Bergh & Theron, 2003), which include:

- ❖ Psychodynamics - emphasises the role of unconscious desires on the development and maintenance of personality differences.
- ❖ Psychoanalytical - childhood experiences and unconscious desires influence behaviour.
- ❖ Behaviouristic - focus on individual differences that have been learned from an individual's environment.
- ❖ Humanistic - stresses the basic goodness of human beings and the need to achieve one's full potential.
- ❖ Phenomenological – there is a number of strands to the phenomenological perspective. There is no single person or even a single theory that unites these perspectives, but they can all be considered phenomenological because they value and focus on the nature of an individual's subjective experience.
- ❖ Existential - understands the human to be challenged by the reality of temporary existence, and the view that life has no inherent meaning and that meaning has to be constructed.
- ❖ Cognitive - believe that without these thought processes, we could have no emotions and no behaviour and would therefore not function. In other words, thoughts always come before any feeling and before any action.

Psychologists agree that not one of these theories are dominant, however when being explored there are certain schools of thought that have guided research and have been developed further (Engler, 2009).

While the above paradigms have important aspects which contribute to the body of personality psychology, the psychoanalytical approach will be used for the purpose of this research, as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) will be utilised. The discussion on the psychoanalytical theories is relevant to this study as the MBTI was developed on the premise of the psychoanalytical

principles. This school of thought defines personality as thoughts and motivations outside of our awareness which influence our behaviour.

## **2.2. PSYCHODYNAMIC AND PSYCHOANALYTICAL THEORIES**

In psychology, psychodynamics is the study of the interrelationship of various parts of the mind, personality, or psyche as they relate to mental, emotional, or motivational forces especially at the subconscious level. Psychoanalytical theory conceptualises personality as a result of ongoing conciliation among a number of independent operating mental subsystems (Funder, 2001).

Sherman (1979) believes that psychoanalysis is comprehensive when dealing with personality as it focuses on aspects of functioning and development of an individual.

### **2.2.1. Sigmund Freud**

Psychodynamics was founded during the late 1800s and early 1900s by the Austrian doctor Sigmund Freud. Psychoanalysis was based on the theory that behaviour is determined by powerful inner forces, most of which are buried in the unconscious mind. According to Freud and other psychoanalysts, from early childhood people get rid of any desires or needs that they are experiencing and that are unacceptable to themselves or to society, by consciously suppressing them. The repressed feelings can then cause personality disturbances, self-destructive behaviour, or even physical symptoms (Pervin & John, 2001).

Sigmund Freud was born on 6 May 1856 in a small town called Freiberg in Moravia. When he was a young boy his family relocated to Vienna in Austria where he spent most of his life (Boeree, 2006). Freud's interest lay in politics while growing up and his initial ambition was to be a minister of state or General; he however had concerns with the policies and views that discriminated against Jews. This led him into the medical field, where after qualifying with a degree, he researched and practiced in neurology (Pervin &

John, 2001, p.65). After spending some time in the field of neurology in Berlin, Germany, he moved back to Vienna, where he got married to his longtime fiancée. He then also opened up a practice in neuropsychiatry with the help of his friend, Joseph Breuer (Boeree, 2006).

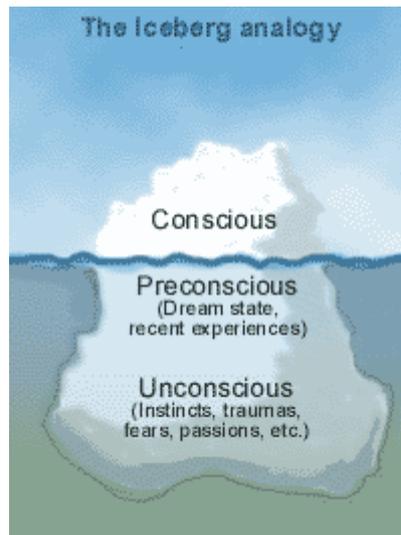
Freud relied heavily on his own experience and his patients in order to formulate much of his theory. He believed that case studies carried the most weight in terms of validity for his ideas and beliefs and was strict on analysis being done only by qualified analysts when they used his theory. He did not rely on formal experiments but rather on clinical data from his patients as proof of his theories (Hjelle, 1992, p.25). Sulloway (as cited in Pervin & John, 2001) states that in analysing his theories Freud did not train scientists but rather trained practitioners in a fixed system of his ideas.

#### *2.2.1.1 Sigmund Freud's Concepts*

Sigmund Freud has contributed to the field of psychology tremendously and is known as the father of psychodynamics with his theories, even though there is much controversy from the validity of his study to the assumptions of other paradigms (Hjelle, 1992). The concepts that are of importance to Freud's theory, for the purpose of this research project, are as follows:

- The unconscious – things that a person is unaware of which include drives, instincts; events that a person may not want to deal with due to it being traumatic or unpleasant (Boeree, 2006). Pervin and John (2001, p.71) explain it as “*aspects of functioning which we are not fully aware of*”. Freud believed that we are not conscious of most of our thoughts and feelings, yet they still impact our actions and behaviour. These feelings and emotions manifest in the actions of people and serve as motivators or drivers. Freud also believed that if there was information that was too painful for the consciousness to bear, then a defence mechanism would push it down into the unconscious part of the mind. Freud believed that simple behaviour has complex and

hidden causes. This was illustrated by an iceberg, where the tip of the iceberg represents the conscious and the larger bottom represents the unconscious. The water level reflects the preconscious, which are things that a person can become aware of if they tried or if they wanted to (Boeree, 2006)(Pervin & John, 2001). This is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.



**Figure 2.1 The Iceberg Analogy (Adapted from Pervin & John, 2001)**

- The Psyche – Freud believed that the psyche which could be explained as “personality” or as the “soul” is in constant conflict due to the drives of the id, ego and superego that determines a person's behaviour (Boeree, 2006)(Pervin & John, 2001).
- The Id – The id operates according to the pleasure principle and aims to satisfy the natural need of the person. It is motivated by instincts or irrational drives that require to satisfy the need. The id is the only source of psychic energy that remains within an individual throughout life – which means an individual can never be free of its power (Fontana, 2000). The purpose of the id is to satisfy the need for pleasure and avoid pain (Pervin & John, 2001).

- The Ego – The ego is the reason aspect of the psyche, it follows the reality principle. The reality principle is when the instinct can be satisfied with the most amount of pleasure and least amount of pain (Pervin & John, 2001). The ego tries to balance the needs of the id with that of the superego in a way that satisfies both and is realistic (Boeree, 2006). The ego serves as a mediator between the id's instinctual needs and the restrictions of reality. The ego contains rational thinking in terms of sense of self and other conscious thoughts (Fontana, 2000).
- The Superego – The superego is the moral constraint of the psyche. The superego aims to harmonise the behaviour of an individual to the requirements and expectations of society. It is aware of the good and bad consequences that follow certain actions. The superego can be understanding and flexible (Pervin & John, 2001). It makes an individual feel good and be proud when they live up to the ideal self, and it reprimands when an individual is not in line with the conscience (Fontana, 2000).
- Childhood Influences – Freud believed that childhood experiences and influences have an impact on how the individual behaves as an adult. These experiences may include close relationships, relationships with parents, and society etc. (Boeree, 2006)(Pervin & John, 2001).
- Stages of Development – Freud believed that the most important instinct of an individual from birth to adulthood is sexual. He believed that problems in adulthood stemmed from issues during a particular stage of development. The “psyche” develops during these stages (Pervin & John, 2001; Boeree, 2006).

#### 2.2.1.2 *Criticism of Freud*

Freud's major contributions to psychology are of value even though it is met

with much criticism. Freud believed that there are two major forces that impact people, namely biology and society, even though his explanations of biology in the psychosexual stages are often met with disagreement. The contribution that Freud made from this perspective is that biology cannot be ignored in personality psychology. The influence of society comes from the experiences and influences which impact the development stages. Freud's "talking cure" is also still used in many therapy techniques in a controlled, relaxed environment (Boeree, 2006).

In the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Freud's work is still studied, commented on, argued and criticised. Much of this can be attributed to lack of evidence and conflicting research of Freud's work (Hjelle, 1992). Freud's theories were often controversial, especially in his era. The release of his findings of the psychosexual stage theory in the 1800s in Austria was met with much argument, rejection and astonishment (Boeree, 2006).

Theorists did not disagree with all aspects of Freud's thinking. There are important concepts that others have built on or used as a foundation, such as Carl Jung. The concept of the unconscious was not completely dismissed by Behaviourists, Humanists and Existentialists. These paradigms shifted the impact of the unconscious from being the largest contributor simply to things that we have no need for or do not want to be aware of (Boeree, 2006).

### **2.2.2. Carl Jung**

Carl Jung was born in 1875, in Kesswil, Switzerland. He was the only son of a parson and his wife. He came from a family who had long been involved in the Protestant ministry (Singer, 1984). At first Carl Jung studied archaeology, but he had a curious mind and was interested in the human mind, this took him into the field of medicine and psychiatry. He worked at a mental hospital in Zurich, where he studied schizophrenic patients. This is where he developed the word association technique (Boeree, 2006). He developed a list of 100 words and presented it to normal individuals and to psychiatric patients in his research for the word association technique. This is one of

Jung's earlier investigations (Peterson, 1992).

Carl Jung (as cited in Boeree, 2006) was a keen follower of Sigmund Freud. They first met in Vienna in 1907 and it is said that they spoke without interruption for about 13 hours . Freud and Jung were both interested in discovering, developing and extending the knowledge of the human mind and how it works (Stevens, 2001). Carl Jung was the more complex and mystical thinker of the two and often seen as the romantic in his work (Fontana, 2000). They were the founding fathers of psychology and much of their work has been used in the development of further or conflicting theories. They were great friends and Jung was Freud's successor to the Psychoanalytical Society. They unfortunately had a disagreement; Freud was not tolerant or patient with anyone who disagreed with him which led to the end of their friendship. Jung then formed his own school of thought, Analytical Psychology (Stevens, 2001).

Jung differed from Freud in the following ways, according to Moller (1995):

- Jung rejected Freud's focus on sexual instincts. He did not believe that it was the focus of an individual's being.
- Jung rejected Freud's focus on stress and pathology as he was more interested in the health of a person.
- Jung was more interested in development and actualisation of an individual rather than the biological history of an individual.

According to Boeree (2006) Jung also differed in the following ways:

- Jung believed that there was much more to the conscious that Freud had originally explored, such as fears, behaviours and thoughts.

- Jung believed humans are not just meant to adapt but rather to move towards self-actualisation and progress.

Jung's work extended far beyond just understanding personality, he theorised about life and how an individual deals with life, their environment and society.

Although Jung moved away from Freud's thinking, much of his approach has grounds in the Freudian psychoanalytical theory and therefore remains a psychodynamic or psychoanalytical theory. According to Stevens (2001), Psychoanalytical theory is used to distinguish Jung from Freud's psychodynamics and experimental psychology. Psychoanalytical theory views personality as a result of balancing a number of independent mental subsystems (Funder, 2001).

Stevens (2001) suggests that Jungian psychoanalysis is not only a system of theory and practice but also a state of mind. Jung took into account the universe, spirituality and psychic structures in understanding and describing individual personality. Maddi (1996) describes Jung's theory as intrapsychic conflict, where opposing influences direct an individual's behaviour and is the foundation of the individual's personality.

In summary, Stevens (2001) believed that Jung made two important contributions that form the basis of analytical psychology:

- Part of the unconscious "psyche" can manifest in trances, dreams and hallucinations, and
- Personality really develops at the unconscious level of an individual.

#### *2.2.2.1 Structure of Personality*

Jung refers to personality as the "psyche", which is made up of complex systems that interact with each other (Maddi, 1996). Jung divided the

structure of personality into three interdependent systems which are the ego, personal unconscious and the collective unconscious.

- The Ego – The ego is described as the conscious part of the personality which can distinguish between reality and inner images (Boeree, 2006). It controls which thoughts, feelings and memories enter the conscious. It refers to an individual's identity or the "persona", which is how the world sees the individual (Ewen, 1998). Boeree (2006) suggests that the "persona" as Jung called it, represents the public image. The persona is the mask worn in order to fit in with society.
- Personal Unconscious – The personal unconscious is explained by Boeree (2006) as things which are not conscious but could be, such as memories. This includes memories which are easily brought to mind as well as suppressed memories. This differs from Freud's views as it is not inclusive of instincts. The personal unconscious is made up of an individual's own thoughts, feelings and memories. It includes experiences that remain with the individual – who may set them aside but which may still influence the individual.
- Collective Unconscious – Jung differed from Freud in terms of the unconscious. However, he did not totally disagree but rather added to it. He believed that the unconscious was only one part of the mind rather than the whole. He believed the collective unconscious was a contributor to personality as it was mankind's past experiences (Campbell, 1988). The collective unconscious is identified by Jung as the central point of the psyche that does not originate from experience. It is rather the vessel of inherited archetypes from the ancestral past which directs behaviour at the unconscious level (Stevens, 2001). Jung (1967) believed that it is the total of all human experience which is shared by all individuals, e.g. social roles, emotions, language and symbols irrespective of time and culture.

It is a wonder how Jung (1967) reached these assumptions. Literature and reports by Jung suggest that an early childhood experience contributed towards Jung's revelations. When he was 12 years old, Jung was knocked down by a fellow student leaving him unconscious for a time. He stayed at home for about six months and during this time he developed a ritual. Jung carved a wooden object which he placed in his attic and took sacrifices to it on a regular basis. He reported that it made him feel peaceful and happy. Later on Jung learned that there were similar rituals performed in primitive Africa and America. He wondered about the fact that he did the same thing without having heard about it before or being exposed to such behaviour. This led him to believe that all individuals are linked by ancestral practices and culture which are hidden in the collective unconscious (Campbell, 1988) (Jung, 1967).

While Freud emphasised instincts, Jung focused on spirituality due to his experiences and environment. Jung's mother was said to have seen spirits and even talked with them. This led Jung to believe that spirits were real, which plays a large part in his theory and views (Campbell, 1988).

Jung (1967) called these ancestral inheritance "archetypes". Archetypes are explained as universal thoughts and emotions from experiences of past generations that govern how an individual perceives the world in a particular way. Ewen (1998) suggests that an individual never becomes aware of the archetypes but experiences it through images and symbols which are conveyed to the conscious. To illustrate his point Jung used examples of the immediate relationship of a mother and new born, which cannot be learnt. He used symbols such as the sun, moon and angels to demonstrate common themes throughout history (Boeree, 2006) (Campbell, 1988).

A few of the other archetypes that Jung identified besides the persona are explained below.

- Anima/Animus – Jung believed that no individual is wholly a male or female. He believed that both men and women exhibit essential

psychological differences. The anima is the feminine archetype of the male psyche, e.g. deep emotionality. The animus is the masculine archetype of the female psyche which is linked to rationality, analytical thinking and logic. These are forces in an individual's collective unconscious which the individual can get in touch with (Boeree, 2006). This archetype also plays a role in guiding an individual towards a suitable partner (Campbell, 1988; Boeree, 1988).

- Shadow – Jung describes the shadow as the evil we are capable of. Boeree (2006) defines the shadow as the dark side of the ego. It represents the unsociable, taboo and unacceptable thoughts. It is the negative or dark side of an individual's personality which paints a complete picture of an individual's personality.
- Self – The self archetype strives for unity of all the parts of the personality. It directs the fair distribution of psychic energy so that all parts of the personality are expressed fairly (Boeree, 2006). The self archetype assists in balancing all archetypes and helps the individual to feel complete.

Psychic energy influences all mental activity such as the libido, even with instincts that are implicated. The extent of the desirability of the event is determined by the investment of the libido into the event. The more invested the greater the desire (Ewen, 1998). Jung determines motivation of personality as an energy system where there is movement between the energy from these systems of the psyche (Moller, 1995). Jung identified three principles in terms of the dynamic of the psyche. These principles are:

- The principle of opposites – Jung believed that for every good thought there would be an opposing bad thought. He believed that this is what caused psychic energy or libido (Moller, 1995). He believed that this was to create the differentiation between good and bad. This opposition causes the energy (Boeree, 2006). He believed that when

one tendency was conscious and stronger, the unconscious tendency would compensate and find harmony (Ewen, 1998).

- Principle of Entropy – Entropy is a word that Jung adopted from physics, it means to “run down” or balance out. This refers to the opposing tendencies to unite in harmony (Boeree, 2006). The stronger tendency works with the weaker tendency to find equilibrium (Moller, 1998). The older an individual gets, the less threatened the weaker tendency, causing the energy to be less aggressive. The individual starts accepting both and becomes comfortable as to where they are; this is called transcendence (Boeree, 2006).
- Principle of Equivalence – Jung believed that energy in the system will never be lost. The same amount of energy will be distributed to the opposite tendency (Moller, 1998). An individual may react in the manner of the stronger tendency and the weaker tendency will be brought to light, resulting in personal growth. It is important to take cognisance of both and not deny the negative or weaker tendency, as this may lead to the development of a complex within the individual (Boeree, 2006).

#### *2.2.2.2 Jung's Typology*

Jung recognised various psychological types, two that related to attitudes and four that related to functions. He identified the attitudes as extraversion and introversion. These are the general orientations an individual has to the world. The four functions refer to the psychological processes of an individual; these are feeling, thinking, sensing and intuition (Peterson, 1992, p.128).

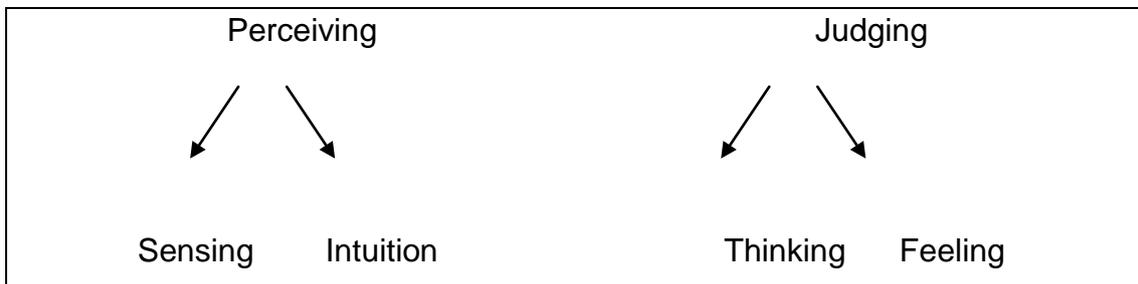
Attitude is the tendency to act or react in a particular manner. Individuals have both extravert and introvert characteristics although one may be conscious and dominant and the other unconscious. Both may have negative and positive influences on the development of an individual. No one person is

purely extrovert or introvert; each person reveals both attitudes (Hyde, 1992). Introverts and extraverts perceive things differently and this may lead to misunderstanding or conflict. Individuals will see things in terms of their own mindset. According to Jungian theory a strong extravert will have an unconscious introvert side and vice versa. This is a compensatory effect which Jung believed enhanced balance within the individual (Singer, 1984). Introversion and extraversion are not on a dichotomous scale but rather the tendency of an individual to act in both ways, depending on the conscious tendency.

- Extraversion – Extraversion is not a representation of the typical meaning of extrovert which is loud and talkative, as defined in our times. Peterson (1992) describes Jung's extraversion as the attention an individual gives to the outer world. The extravert is inclined to stimuli from the outer world and from people (Fontana, 2000). Extraverted people are more perceptive of people and the environment (Hogan, 1976; Singer, 1984).
- Introversion – Introverts focus on internal events rather than the world around them (Hogan, 1976). According to Jungian theory the introvert pays attention to the inner, subjective world (Fontana, 2000) (Peterson, 1992). The introvert concentrates on their own personal experiences, the focus being on their own thoughts, ideas and mindsets (Singer, 1984).

Jung identified four functions, namely thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuition. Jung believed that there were two ways in which an individual perceives, i.e. through sensing or intuition. He also believed that there are two ways that an individual judges, which are through thinking and feeling. See figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2. The Basic Mental Processes (Briggs Myers, 1998:6)**



Each of these functions are expressed in a particular manner when coupled with introversion or extraversion (Briggs Myers, 1998) (Singer, 1984). This led to Jung's eight psychological types which are explored briefly further on.

Sensing and intuition is the reflection of an individual's perception. The sensing type takes their five senses into consideration with observable facts in perceiving their surroundings. The intuitive individual perceives the world through meanings, relationships and possibilities (Myers-Briggs, McCalley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998). Sensing and intuition are also known as the irrational function, which assists in gathering of information and making decisions (Jung, 1976).

a) Extraverted sensing

Extraverted individuals with a sensing function perceive the world objectively. They are not influenced by biased attitudes and it allows an individual to process life through their own experiences. It is the ability to be eager about what is seen, smelled, touched, heard and tasted. The individual is energized by experience and is able to live in the moment (Jung, 1976).

b) Introverted sensing

Introverted individuals with a sensing function are influenced subjectively by their five senses which are sight, touch, sound, taste and smell. They interpret the world through the stimuli that they receive from their senses (Jung, 1976).

c) Extraverted intuition

Extraverted individuals with an intuitive function are pulled towards facts of the environment and of the world. An extraverted intuitive individual suppresses sensations and looks at possible ways of representing reality. They focus on hidden meanings and find a number of possibilities in different scenarios (Jung, 1976).

d) Introverted intuition

Introverted individuals with intuition are driven by an interest in perception itself, the process of recognizing and interpreting what we take in from the environment. It differs from sensing as it is more creative than factual; and is the ability to grasp a pattern or plan (Jung, 1976).

The thinking and feeling functions reflect an individual's preference in their judgement. An individual that has a thinking preference may make decisions based on logical consequences. An individual that has a feeling preference is likely to rely on personal and social values in making decisions (Briggs Myers et al., 1998). The feeling function should not be confused with mood or affect as it is a psychological orientation which is distinctive from sensation. The difference between thinking and feeling can be summarised as the manner in which an individual decides what is important to them, such as facts, analysis or emotion and values (van Rooyen, 2008).

e) Extraverted thinking

Extraverted individuals with a thinking function strongly depend on solid hard facts and their own thoughts. Extraverted sensing individuals are empirical thinkers who like to get their point across with facts and reality. They may also have abstract ideas which have been transferred to them from those around them (Jung, 1976).

f) Introverted thinking

An introverted individual with a dominant thinking function is not as influenced by the external environment as they are with their own internal process. They

interpret the world through their own internal meaning rather than objective facts. The introverted thinker usually is subjective and creative in interpreting old data into something new (Jung, 1976).

g) Extroverted feeling

An extraverted individual with a dominant feeling function will be objective in making valuations or decisions. The manner in which they evaluate situations include taking into consideration external values and widely accepted standards of judgement. They may come across as cold, unreliable or even artificial. Extraverted, dominant feeling individuals are comfortable in social situations and can fit in easily. They aim to follow social standards and common practices (Jung, 1976).

h) Introverted feeling

Introverted individuals with a dominant feeling preference make their valuations based on subjective perceptions. They evaluate on the basis of introverted feeling, which makes them critical to a degree. They have an individualised conscience with a reflective and profound psyche (Jung, 1976).

Figure 2.3 illustrates Jung's theory based on the attitudes and functions that he had identified. The attitudes being extraversion (E) and introversion (I), and the functions being thinking (T) or feeling (F) and sensing (S) or intuition (N).

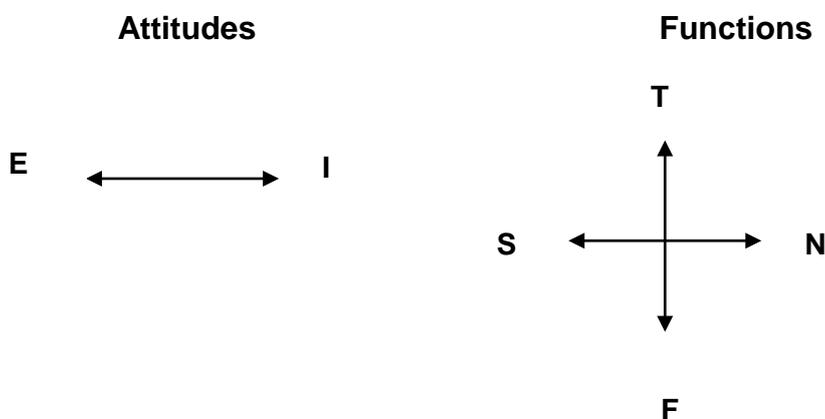


Figure 2.3 Jung's Compass (van Rooyen, 2008, p.21).

### *2.2.2.3 Myers-Briggs Personality Type Theory*

In 1929 Katherine C. Briggs was introduced to Jung's theory on psychological types. She was intrigued by his ideas and studied his work for over 20 years while making her own observations of people around her. Katherine Briggs shared the ideology with her daughter, Isabel Myers-Briggs and the two investigated further. The two women felt that this ideology should be transmitted into an instrument where people could benefit from the knowledge of their own type (Briggs Myers, 1998)(van Rooyen, 2008).

Katherine Briggs and Isabel Myers-Briggs were both not psychologists nor even students of psychology but were completely convinced that Carl Jung's psychological types held merit and value and could be practical. During World War II, Briggs thought that it could be useful in preventing a waste of human potential and assist in placing people in employment where they could use their talents and enjoy greater work satisfaction (van Rooyen, 2008).

Briggs and Myers-Briggs (as in van Rooyen, 2008) believed that making Carl Jung's psychological typology available to ordinary people, could add value to the individuals life. They believed that it could assist with the understanding of personality and preferred behaviour of individuals. Katherine passed away at the age of 82 leaving Isabel to develop the instrument. The instrument was an indicator rather than a test. They both made the addition of including the scale of Judging (J) and Perceiving (P) as an attitude (Hyde, 1992). Perception refers to the way in which an individual becomes aware of their situation, things and people around them. It is the gathering of information on inspiration and selecting an appropriate stimulus. Judgement refers to conclusions an individual reaches through their perception (Myers et al., 1998).

Briggs and Briggs Myers believed that the Judging – Perceiving scale completed Jung's psychological typology (Myers et al., 1998). They also contributed further by identifying the dominant and auxiliary function for each type. The dominant function being the most obvious and prominent, and the

auxiliary function the less-preferred function that would need to be developed in order to maintain balance (van Rooyen, 2008).

The instrument was called the MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) which is commonly used to assess and understand personality types and the value that each type can add to their current environment (Hyde, 1992).

The MBTI (Myers et al., 1998) is widely used in the realm of counselling and psychotherapy; education; careers and occupation; management and organisational development; religious and spiritual issues; and cross-cultural research as well as in development of type theory. Hyde (1992) explains that the tool is aimed at understanding and assessing personality and making it useful in people's lives.

Van Rooyen (2008, p.10) identified the following benefits of the MBTI:

- it offers a logical and consistent model of human behaviour;
- it provides a straightforward and affirmative path to self-understanding;
- it can stimulate self-development;
- it can be useful in self-management and interpersonal skills areas;
- it can help restore vitality and reduce stress or despondency;
- it can improve motivation and commitment;
- it provides a dynamic theory on which one can build personal strategies;
- it can build an objective framework for examining emotional issues;
- it can provide a way to improve communication patterns;
- it can help identify sources of conflict;
- it emphasises the value of diversity;
- it can aid people in identifying their unique contribution to the organisation;
- it can clarify the job – person fit;
- it is easy to administer and score;
- it is valid and reliable;
- it is relatively inexpensive;

- it is guided by clear ethical principles.

As seen from the above the MBTI can be used in various situations and for different purposes making it a useful and flexible tool. It is important to understand that the type classification does not mean 16 separate boxes but rather 16 energy systems and the interaction of these preferences (Briggs Myers, 1998).

The type as measured by the MBTI is made up of a 4-letter code. Each letter represents the dominant attitude or function in each scale. It is important to note that the scale is not made up of opposites but rather interrelated energies that work together to find a balance in the individuals.

Table 2.1 illustrates a brief explanation of MBTI 16 personality types that can be assessed with a brief description of each type.

**Table 2.1. MBTI Personality Types (Lawrence, 1993:55)**

<p><b>ENTJ</b> Intuitive, innovative organiser, analytical, systematic, confident, pushes to get action on new ideas and challenges.</p>	<p><b>ISFP</b> Observant, loyal helper, reflective, realistic, empathic, patient with details, gentle and retiring, shuns disagreements, enjoys the moment.</p>
<p><b>ESTJ</b> Fact-minded, practical organiser, assertive, analytical, systematic, pushes to get things done and working smoothly and efficiently.</p>	<p><b>INFP</b> Imaginative, independent helper, reflective, inquisitive, empathic, loyal to ideals, more interested in possibilities than practicalities.</p>
<p><b>INTP</b> Inquisitive analyser, reflective, independent, curious, more interested in organising ideas than situations or people.</p>	<p><b>ESFJ</b> Practical harmoniser and works well with people, sociable, orderly, opinionated, conscientious, realistic and well tuned to the here and now.</p>

<p><b>ISTP</b></p> <p>Practical analyser, values exactness, more interested in organising data than situations or people; reflective, a cool and curious observer of life.</p>	<p><b>ENFJ</b></p> <p>Imaginative harmoniser and works well with people, sociable, expressive, orderly, opinionated, conscientious, and curious about new ideas and possibilities.</p>
<p><b>ESTP</b></p> <p>Realistic adapter in the world of material things, good-natured, tolerant, easy-going, orientated to practical, first-hand experience: highly observant of details of things.</p>	<p><b>INFJ</b></p> <p>People – orientated innovator of ideas, quietly forceful and persevering, concerned with the common good, with helping others to develop.</p>
<p><b>ESFP</b></p> <p>Realistic adjuster in human relationships, friendly and easy with people, highly observant of their feelings and needs: orientated to practical, first-hand experience.</p>	<p><b>INTJ</b></p> <p>Logical, critical, decisive innovator of serious intent, highly independent, concerned with organisation, determined and often stubborn.</p>
<p><b>ISTJ</b></p> <p>Analytical manager of facts and details, dependable, decisive, painstaking and systematic, concerned with systems and organisation, stable and conservative.</p>	<p><b>ENFP</b></p> <p>Warmly enthusiastic planner of change, imaginative, individualistic, pursues inspiration with impulsive energy, seeks to understand and inspire others.</p>
<p><b>ISFJ</b></p> <p>Sympathetic manager of facts and details, concerned with peoples' welfare, dependable, painstaking and systematic, stable and conservative.</p>	<p><b>ENTP</b></p> <p>Inventive, analytical planner of change, enthusiastic and independent, pursues inspiration with impulsive energy, seeks to understand and inspire others.</p>

The MBTI tool uses a four scale structure to categorise an individual's preferred behaviour. Figure 2.3 illustrates the four scale structure as

explained by van Rooyen (2008). A further discussion into these scales will follow.

<u>E</u> xtraversion	-----	<u>I</u> ntroversion (Focus for energy)
<u>S</u> ensing	-----	Intuition (What a person pays attention to)
<u>T</u> hinking	-----	<u>F</u> eeling (How a person decides)
<u>J</u> udgement	-----	<u>P</u> erception (The lifestyle a person adopts)

**Figure 2.4 Type formula (van Rooyen, 2008, p.44).**

The attitude scales are made up of Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I); and Judgement (J) and Perceiving (P). They are always at the beginning and end of the profile. They encircle the two preferred functions which are Sensing (S) and Intuition; and Thinking (T) and Feeling (F) (van Rooyen, 2008). An in-depth look will be taken on what these domains represent and the dynamic of each domain. There is no better function or attitude, but rather each one has its own strengths which can contribute to a situation as well as contain areas for growth and development. These are preferences and not a way an individual may act in all situations; it represents the likelihood of the manner in which an individual may react.

### **a) Extraversion and Introversion**

Extraversion in this sense does not mean sociable and introversion does not represent a shy individual. Extraversion and introversion being attitudes are seen as essential in conditioning of the psychic process, which not only affects behaviour but also how an individual experiences the world (Van Rooyen, 2008).

An individual who is extraverted draws energy from the outside world. They are stimulated and guided by the awareness of their environment, the extrovert tends to be action-orientated which may sometimes be perceived as impulsive. They tend to act first and reflect later (van Rooyen, 2008). An individual that has a preference for introversion prefers

the internal world of reflection and ideas. The introvert tends to think things through before acting. Their main focus is concepts and ideas and they enjoy solitude and privacy (van Rooyen, 2008).

Table 2.2 Illustrates the common characteristics that individuals with preferences of extroversion and introversion reflect according to Briggs Myers (1998).

**Table 2.2 Common Characteristics of Extroversion and Introversion (Briggs Myers, 1998: 9).**

❖ <b>Extraversion</b>	❖ <b>Introversion</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Attuned to external environment</li> <li>- Prefer to communicate by talking</li> <li>- Work out ideas by talking them through</li> <li>- Learn best through doing or discussing</li> <li>- Have broad interest</li> <li>- Sociable and expressive</li> <li>- Readily take initiative in work and relationships</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Drawn to their inner world</li> <li>- Prefer to communicate in writing</li> <li>- Work out ideas by reflecting on them</li> <li>- Learn best by reflection, mental practice</li> <li>- Focus in depth on their interests</li> <li>- Private and contained</li> <li>- Take initiative when the situation or issue is very important to them</li> </ul>

**b) Sensing and Intuition**

Sensing and intuition focus on how individuals perceive what is happening in terms of how it is organised and evaluated. Besides their perceiving functions they are also seen as irrational as they only gather information and do not reason, decide or judge (van Rooyen, 2008).

The individual that prefers sensing tends to observe and gather information through the use of their senses. They tend to be realistic, practical and sensible (van Rooyen, 2008). They are attentive to the detail

of what is going on around them. They focus on what is tangible and real (Briggs Myers, 1998). The intuitive individual goes beyond the senses to the meanings, possibilities and relationships of things in gathering information. They tend to be more imaginative and future – orientated (van Rooyen, 2008). The intuitive individual focuses on the big picture when taking in information. They focus on the relationship and connections in this information (Briggs Myers, 1998).

Table 2.3 Illustrates the common characteristics that individuals with preferences of sensing and intuition reflect, according to Briggs Myers (1998).

**Table 2.3 Common Characteristics of Sensing and Intuition (Briggs Myers, 1998: 9).**

❖ Sensing	❖ Intuition
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Orientated to present realities</li> <li>- Factual and concrete</li> <li>- Focus on what is real and actual</li> <li>- Observe and remember specifics</li> <li>- Build carefully and thoroughly toward conclusions</li> <li>- Understand ideas and theories through practical applications</li> <li>- Trust experience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Orientated to future possibilities</li> <li>- Imaginative and verbally creative</li> <li>- Focus on the patterns and meanings in data</li> <li>- Remember specifics when they relate to a pattern</li> <li>- Move quickly to conclusions, follow hunches</li> <li>- Want to clarify ideas and theories before putting them into practice</li> <li>- Trust inspiration</li> </ul>

### **c) Thinking and Feeling**

The thinking and feeling function are known as the rational functions as they enable an individual to decide and make judgements. These functions differ in how they affect an individual in the manner in which they make decisions, based on how they evaluate experience (van Rooyen, 2008).

The thinking function makes logical connections by linking ideas, insights or facts. The thinking individual makes decisions based on the principle of cause and effect, which is the logical sequence of choice or action. Decisions are made analytically, objectively and against standards (van Rooyen, 2008). They are able to remove themselves from a situation and make objective decisions (Briggs Myers, 1998). The individual that has a feeling preference tends to make decisions by weighing out values and worth of an issue. The feeling function focuses on human concern and values thereof. The decision making process is subjective and personal, taking into consideration what is important to both themselves and others (van Rooyen, 2008). They tend to appreciate and support others and aim to create harmony among each other when making decisions (Briggs Myers, 1998).

Table 2.4 Illustrates the common characteristics that individuals with preferences of thinking and feeling reflect, according to Briggs Myers (1998).

**Table 2.4 Common Characteristics of Thinking and Feeling (Briggs Myers, 1998:10).**

❖ <b>Thinking</b>	❖ <b>Feeling</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Analytical</li> <li>- Use cause-and-effect reasoning</li> <li>- Solve problems with logic</li> <li>- Strive for an objective standard of truth</li> <li>- Reasonable</li> <li>- Can be tough-minded</li> <li>- Fair, wants everyone to be treated equally</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Empathetic</li> <li>- Guided by personal values</li> <li>- Assess impacts of decisions on people</li> <li>- Strive for harmony and positive interactions</li> <li>- Compassionate</li> <li>- May appear tender-hearted</li> <li>- Fair, wants everyone to be treated as an individual</li> </ul>

#### **d) Judging and Perceiving**

Judging and perceiving are the other two attitudes measured by the MBTI. These attitudes focus on how an individual reacts to the world and is also known as the lifestyle of the individual. The mother – daughter team of Katherine Myers and Isabel Briggs added this attitude to Carl Jung's original type theory. This attitude relates to how an individual approaches decision-making as well as how they perceive the outer world (van Rooyen, 2008).

An individual that prefers judging tends to be more organised, purposeful and decisive compared to the perceiving individual. They focus on finding systems, closure and resolving issues (van Rooyen, 2008). They live in a more planned and orderly way. They require a more structured and organised lifestyle (Briggs Myers, 1998). The perceiving individual on the other hand tends to be more spontaneous and adaptable. They are open to new things and change. They are considerably more flexible than the judging type, and therefore more adaptable to changes and new circumstances (van Rooyen, 2008). The perceiving individual may become stifled by detailed plans and structure. They aim to understand and experience life rather than control it (Briggs Myers, 1998).

Table 2.5 Illustrates the common characteristics that individuals with preferences of judging and perceiving reflect according to Briggs Myers (1998).

**Table 2.5 Common Characteristics of Judging and Perceiving (Briggs Myers, 1998:10).**

❖ <b>Judging</b>	❖ <b>Perceiving</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Scheduled</li> <li>- Organise their lives</li> <li>- Systematic</li> <li>- Methodical</li> <li>- Make short- and long-term plans</li> <li>- Like to have things decided</li> <li>- Try to avoid last-minute stresses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Spontaneous</li> <li>- Flexible</li> <li>- Casual</li> <li>- Open-minded</li> <li>- Adaptable if change occurs</li> <li>- Like things loose and open to change</li> <li>- Feel energised by last-minute pressures</li> </ul>

Table 2.6 explains the focus of each of the four attitudes and four functions. These domains are vital to be understood in using the MBTI, as interpretation of results depends on the manner in which the various attitudes and functions are grouped.

**Table 2.6 The four attitudes and the four mental functions (Quenk, 1996: 2, 3).**

<b>The four Attitudes</b>	
<p><b>Extraverted</b></p> <p>Energy is produced through interaction with the outer world of people and objects.</p> <p>Focus is on breadth and variety of experiences in the world.</p>	<p><b>Introverted</b></p> <p>Energy is produced through interaction with inner experiences and ideas.</p> <p>Focus is on depth and intensity of private reflections.</p>
<p><b>Judging</b></p> <p>Approach to the outer world is to come to conclusions and make judgments.</p>	<p><b>Perceiving</b></p> <p>Approach to the outer world is to gather information and perceive.</p> <p>Focus in on adaptability, flexibility,</p>

Focus is on closure, predictability, planning, organisation and control.	spontaneity and openness to new information.
<b>The four Mental Functions</b>	
<b>Perceiving Functions</b>	
<b>Sensing</b> Information is gathered through the five senses. Focus is on concrete facts, details and experiences that occur in the present.	<b>Intuition</b> Information is acquired as patterns or global wholes. Focus is on interrelationships, meanings and possibilities in the future.
<b>Judging Functions</b>	
<b>Thinking</b> Conclusions are based on logical analysis of Sensing or Intuitive information. Focus is on impartiality and objectivity.	<b>Feeling</b> Conclusions are based on personal values about Sensing or Intuitive information. Focus is on empathy and harmony.

### e) Dominant and Auxiliary functions

A dominant function is a function that develops to a greater degree between the four mental functions within an individual's favourite environment (extroverted or introverted). It is the favourite function which guides the individual. An individual who prefers extroversion will live out their dominant function in the outer world, whereas an introverted individual will use their dominant function in their inner world. Each individual has their own dominant function – the core of their conscious personality and on which they rely and trust the most (Martin, 1997; Van Rooyen, 2008).

An auxiliary function is developed by an individual in order to bring balance to the dominant function. The auxiliary function is the second-choice function. It is important in preventing the individual from depending solely on one

function. This function provides balance firstly in judgment (T or F) for dominant perceiving types (S or N dominant), and required perception for dominant judging types. Secondly it provides needed introversion for extraverts, and needed extraversion for introverts (Martin, 1997) (Van Rooyen, 2008).

The tertiary and inferior functions are the third and fourth preferred functions used by an individual and are not as important as the dominant and auxiliary function in understanding type (Martin, 1997).

#### **f) MBTI Tool**

The MBTI instrument differs from many other personality instruments in these ways (Myers et al., 1998):

- It is designed to implement a theory; therefore the theory must be understood to understand the MBTI instrument.
- The theory postulates dichotomies; therefore some of the psychometric properties are unusual.
- Based on the theory, there are specific dynamic relationships between the scales, which lead to the descriptions and characteristics of sixteen "types".

The MBTI assessment focuses on determining personality types according to Carl Jung's personality typology. It does not measure any other variables such as ego-strength, anxiety or psychopathology (van Rooyen, 2008).

The MBTI is a psychological assessment and therefore requires professional responsibility to understand the ethical and legal implications. The assessment needs to be administered in a standardised environment. It should be administered by a psychometrist, where proper instructions are given in order to limit any errors or interferences (Myers et al., 1998). It is an easy to use assessment and is simple for the individual to understand. It is easy to administer and score.

### **g) Criticism of the MBTI**

The MBTI is often criticised as it is based on Carl Jung's theory that was not controlled or scientifically tested. Much of Jung's work was based on observation and introspection and therefore not accepted by modern psychology. The MBTI model by Carl Jung and later improved by Isabel Myers and Katherine Briggs, is criticised for not having experimental proof to support the existence, sequence, orientation and manifestation of the functions and attitudes (Carroll, 2004).

### **2.3. PERSONALITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

Personality is stable over time, it is organised, it is based on interaction between biological and environmental factors and it is distinctive in terms of being unique in every individual (Fontana, 2000). Personality plays an important part in how an individual experiences the world and their every day life. A large part of an individual's life is spent at work, and how s/he experiences this is important. Individuals are often defined by their work. Advertising and society, group individuals into stereotypes of what a particular person in a specific role ought to be like and the social class they should fit into (Hodson, 2001).

There is merit in employers understanding their employees and knowing something of an individual's personality. An employer can understand strengths and weaknesses of employees, understand anxieties and motivators and find preferred ways of interacting with them. It benefits the organisation to get the best out of employees (Fontana, 2000).

Personality impacts many processes within the organisation, such as recruitment and selection. There has been much study in terms of personality being significant in certain jobs. In modern recruitment there are many personality assessments done for certain roles, as it has been established that certain personality types may be better suited for the requirements of a specific job. This balance is also known as trait-factor theory (Hodson, 2001).

Personality is influential in training and development. Each personality type has a preference for the way in which they collate information, organise new information and learn new things. There is a psychology behind how we educate or upskill an individual. Their personality plays a role in the manner in which they process information and develop as an individual (Hodson, 2001).

Personality is often studied in conjunction with leadership, as an individual's personality influences the kind of leader they will be. Leadership can be defined as the ability an individual has on influencing the behaviour of a person or group in order to achieve organisational goals (Furnham, 1997: p.515). There is often much debate as to whether leadership is learnt through experience and circumstances or is inherited (Hodson, 2001).

Another factor which could be influenced by personality is motivation in the workplace. Motivation influences how an individual performs the work they need to do (Hodson, 2001). Motivation of employees is an important element to be considered within an organisation, as this influences the effort and time put into employees' responsibilities. Motivation within the workplace is discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

## **2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter personality was defined according to previous literature and studies. The psychodynamic approach was studied by looking at personality theories of Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung. The extension of Carl Jung's personality typology by Katherine Myers and Isabel Briggs was discussed in terms of the MBTI. This chapter was concluded by a brief look at personality and the influences it has on the workplace.

## Chapter 3

### 3. MOTIVATION

Chapter 3 contains the definition and dimensions of motivation as well as its role in the context of the organisation. This chapter explores motivation through the Content and Process theories. Under the Content Theories, Vroom's (1964) theory will be discussed, whereas under the Process theories, Maslow (1954), Alderfer (1969), Herzberg (1959) McClelland's (1961) and Locke & Latham's (1968, 1990, 1991) Goal theory will be discussed.

The diagram below illustrates these theories and the basic assumptions of these theories.

**Table 3.1 Difference between Process and Content Theories**

<b>PROCESS THEORIES</b>	<b>CONTENT THEORIES</b>
<b>Assumptions:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• How behaviour develops</li><li>• Which components are involved</li><li>• How these interact</li></ul>	<b>Assumptions:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• What motivates people</li><li>• The type of needs that cause action</li><li>• The class of goals towards which people strive</li></ul>
<b>Theories:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Re-enforcement Theory</li><li>• Expectancy Theory<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Vroom (1964)</li></ul></li><li>• Equity Theory</li></ul>	<b>Theories:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Need Theory<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Maslow (1954)</li><li>- Alderfer (1969)</li><li>- Herzberg (1959)</li><li>- McClelland (1961, 1965)</li></ul></li></ul>

### 3.1 DEFINING MOTIVATION

Hogan (1976) divides motivation into biogenic and psychogenic motives. Psychogenic motives refer to the cognitive functioning and mental processes such as an individual's intentions, purposes, plans and goals and so forth. Theories by George Kelly (1955), Gordon Allport (1937) and Erving Goffman (1959) use psychogenic motives in their theories. Biogenic motives refer to the biological aspects of an individual, such as instincts, drives and needs. Sigmund Freud (1923), Carl Jung (1976), and Abraham Maslow (1954) are a few theorists that have theories based on biogenic motives.

Buchanan & Huczynski (1985) divide motivation into two opposing groups based on their philosophical perspective of human behaviour, namely content or process theories. Content theories focus on the particular needs, motives or rewards that a motivation theory should contain. It aims to identify the variables that influence and affect human behaviour, with the premise that individuals are aware of their goals and that they are purposive and rational (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Process theories focus on the psychological process of motivation by providing generalised explanations of the process involved that lead to an individual's choice of action. These theories can be utilised to explain how major variables interact to influence dependent variables (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

The Process theories' motivation is explained by Cherrington (1994), who writes that some of the most prominent historical views of human nature assume that people are rational beings with conscious desires and abilities to acquire their own desires.

Motivation can be defined in many ways due to the various paradigms and schools of thought. One description by Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) is that motivation is the force within an individual that determines the level, direction, effort and persistence that s/he places on work. In this definition, motivation can be described as that which drives an individual to perform in the workplace. According to Hodson (2001) motivation is the set of

processes which influence individual choice in determining behaviour.

Robbins et al. (2009) states that both Drive and Expectancy theories have their roots embedded in hedonism. Hedonism is based on the assumption that an individual is orientated to move away from pain and toward pleasure by avoiding situations that will create discomfort and pursuing things that will be gratifying and satisfy them.

Muchinsky (1993) however believes that this is far too simplistic an explanation of human behaviour and was criticised for not specifying what experiences are likely to constitute pleasurable or satisfying and painful or dissatisfying. A further criticism is that these theories do not explain why an individual engages in unpleasant activities and how an individual's preference is determined.

Theorists and psychologists have tried to explain why some objects or outcomes are more appealing to certain individuals than to others. The theories around this have brought to light the concepts of drives, instincts and motives. These concepts have been used to explain certain behaviours and desires. Theories range from instinctive behaviour to more complex frameworks when explaining why individuals do what they do (Lawler III, 1994). In this research study a specific focus is on what motivational drives influence an individual and the role that personality plays, should it have a positive correlation. There are a few important elements to be considered in finding a definition for the purpose of this study, which reflect on motivation and its relationship to personality characteristics.

Throughout the various descriptions of motivation, a commonality is that motivation is a state of mind or condition which influences behaviour towards achieving a particular outcome (Huitt, 2001). All behaviours are not a direct result of motivation. Lawler III (1994) describes motivation as typically goal-directed behaviour that is centrally or voluntarily controlled.

Motivation can also be explained through intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

Intrinsic motivation is what is internal to an individual such as satisfaction, achievement et cetera. Intrinsic motivators can be further divided into the physical, mental or spiritual. Extrinsic motivators are outside an individual, such as money and other tangible goods (Hodson, 2001) (Huitt, 2001).

Martin (2008) explains that motivation is energy and drive to achieve one's own potential. It can account for the reasons that an individual behaves in a particular manner. The reasons may include basic needs, avoidance of pain and increasing of pleasure or obtaining a goal set by an individual. A particular deficiency or need that an individual has activates a drive which is aimed at satisfying the need or deficiency.

There is significance in researching motivation in South African organisations due to the diversity of the workforce; the diversity of individuals impacts their difference in needs. This in turn makes it difficult for managers and organisations to put interventions in place to motivate individuals. According to Baron and Greenberg (2008: 248), "*Although motivation is a broad and complex concept, organizational scientists have agreed on its basic characteristics. Drawing from various social sciences, we define motivation as the set of processes that arouse, direct, and maintain human behavior toward attaining some goal*".

For the purpose of this research study motivation will be defined in terms of the drives that lie behind an individual's needs or desires, keeping in mind that these reasons cannot be generalised as motivational drives differ from person to person.

The operational definition will be taken from Robbins & Judge (2009, p.29): "*The processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal*".

The rationale behind this definition is that the empirical study will investigate what drives the individual in the workplace as well as the impact of their personality in determining their own goals.

## **3.2 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

In any research project it is vital that a number of different theories are consulted and analysed. Literature on motivation within the Process and Content theories will be explored and analysed. However more emphasis will be placed on the Content theories, as that is the theoretical basis of this particular study.

The Process theories focus on how and why people behave in a specific manner to meet personal goals. The Expectancy theory and Vroom's (1964) theory will be discussed for the purpose of this research study under the Process theories.

### **3.2.1 Expectancy Theory**

The Expectancy theory is explored as the only process theory in order to illustrate the difference in the schools of thought. This theory is used as there has been much research done on Victor Vroom's (1964) theory and is widely used in the work environment.

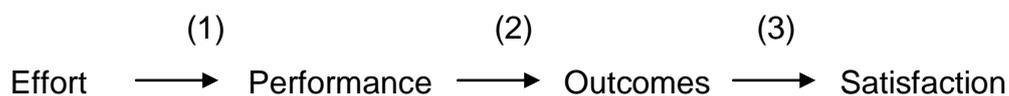
#### *3.2.1.1 Vroom's Theory*

Professor Victor Vroom is well known for his work on motivation in the workplace due to his Expectancy theory. Victor Vroom was born in 1932 in Canada and is a business school professor at the Yale School of Management. The Expectancy theory is about choice and explains the cognitive process and individual experiences in decisionmaking. This theory implies that people will behave in a particular manner if they believe that it will bring them the rewards they value.

Vroom (1964:9) explains the problem with motivation as the choice made by "organisms" among different voluntary responses together with valence, expectancy and force to determine how individuals will decide to act, given the possibility of achieving what is valuable to them.

Vroom (in Robertson, Smith & Cooper, 1992) believed that as much as Goal theory played a role in motivation, it eliminated the aspect of expectancy which is a motivator for specific behaviour in people .

Victor Vroom (1964) believed that there are three elements that need to be in place in order to identify or measure an individual's motivation. He believed that all these needed to be in place in order for an individual to be motivated and to what extent the individual will be motivated. The first element to Vroom's (in Green, 1992) theory is the relationship between effort and performance. The effort that is required in order to achieve performance is reviewed. This is when the individual deliberates what needs to be done and how much it will take in order to accomplish a task. The second element is the relationship between performance and outcome. This focuses on the probability that the action will lead to the required outcome. The individual weighs up their chances of achieving success in a specific task; it looks at what needs to be done and what the individual will gain from it. The third belief is the relationship between outcome and satisfaction. The individual weighs up how gratifying and fulfilling the result of the expected outcome of the activity would be, , and was it worth it? This is reiterated by Robertson et al.(1992) on his study of Vroom's theory. These three elements are illustrated in figure 3.1 where the element (1) is the relationship between effort and performance, element (2) is the relationship between performance and outcome and element (3) is the relationship between outcome and satisfaction of achievement.



**Figure 3.1 View of Expectancy Theory (Green, 1992: 2)**

From Vroom's theory it can be deducted that an individual will be motivated to perform if initially they feel that the effort they put in will help them achieve. It will be motivating if they know that their performance will lead to a desired

outcome and that the desired outcome should be beneficial and satisfying to them. Robertson (1992) describes Vroom's Expectancy theory as motivation (M) being the function of expecting (E) to attain a specific valued outcome (V) that is desirable to an individual. This is illustrated by Vroom's (1964) equation stated below:

$$M = E \times V$$

Valence (V) refers to the preference for a certain outcome over another. It is directly related to the value for the individual concerned in obtaining it. Expectancy (E) refers to the likelihood that a particular action will lead to a specific required outcome (Vroom, 1964). The Motivation (M) is the sum of valence and expectancy, where the valence is the value of the outcome and expectancy is the probability of a first level outcome (Vroom, 1964; Martin, 1998).

This theory suggests that all three elements should be high in order for motivation to be present. This implies that if an individual does not believe that they will be successful in the task or does not see the connection between task and success or does not value the success of the result, it is unlikely that they will participate in the activity (Huitt, 2001). This theory emphasises that the organisation needs to attach rewards to performance and ensure that these rewards are valued by employees (Montana & Charnov, 2008).

### **3.2.2 Need Theories**

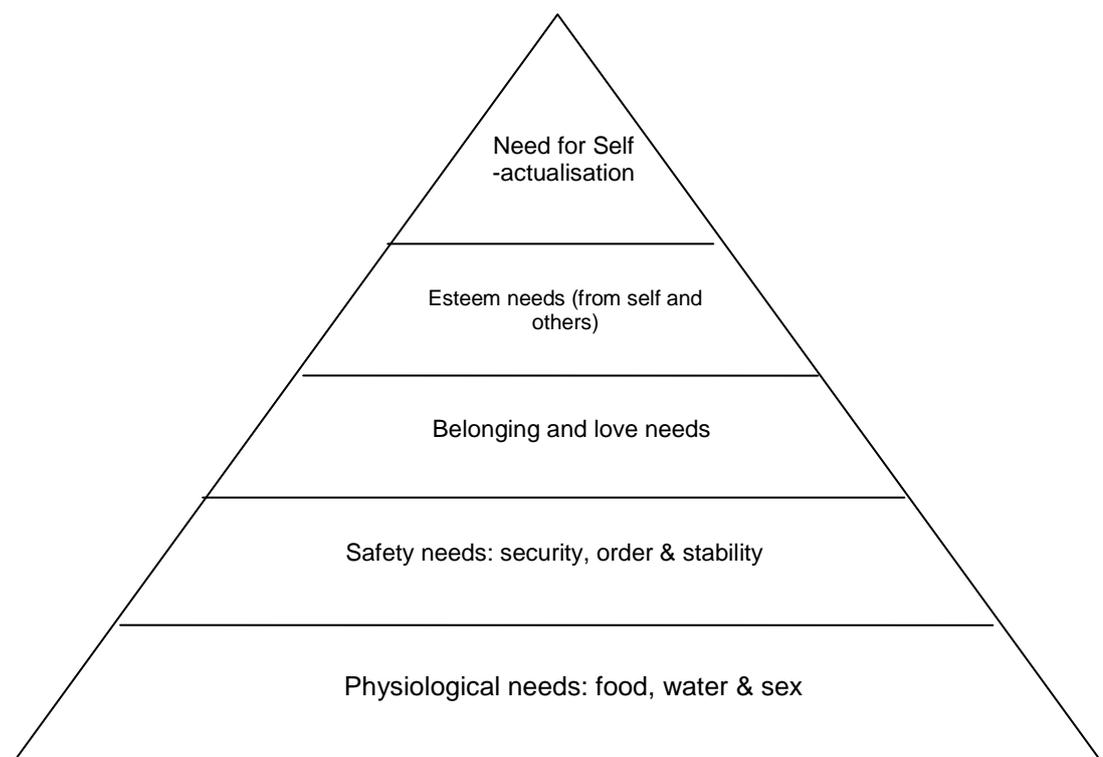
The content theories will now be discussed, with a focus on the Need theories. The basic needs theory, referred to as content theory of motivation, highlights specific factors that may motivate an individual. Although these factors are found within an individual, things outside the individual can affect him or her as well. The needs theory suggests that all people have needs that they want satisfied. Several theorists, including Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, David McClelland, and Clayton Alderfer, have provided

theories to help explain needs as a source of motivation.

### 3.2.1.1 Abraham Maslow

Maslow was of the opinion that the role of psychologists was to propose a generic framework for needs and motivation of individuals within which each personality resides. This framework should take into account personal needs as well as ideas, urges and curiosity of the individual (Fontana, 2000:71). Maslow's framework of needs is represented in a triangle, with the most basic need at the foot of the triangle (Maslow, 1954).

Figure 3.1 illustrates Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the most basic need at the bottom is physiological needs which is vital for survival. An individual is not driven by all needs simultaneously. Maslow's hierarchy works from the bottom up so only once the bottom need is satisfied could an individual progress to the next need and pursue to satisfy that need (Fontana, 2000).



**Figure 3.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Schultz & Schultz, 1998: 287)**

- Physiological needs - The Physiological needs represent the biological needs for survival of an individual such as food, water, sleep, sex, warmth, fair salaries and wages and comfortable working conditions.
- Safety needs - Safety needs refers to emotional security rather than physical, such as the desire for security, stability, dependency and job security.
- Belonging needs - The need for belonging and being loved is the need to be socially accepted by other individuals. These include love, friendship, social interaction by employees and stable groups.
- Self-esteem needs - Self-esteem is how we measure ourselves based on what other individuals think. This need is the need to be respected and appreciated; it builds confidence within an individual. These include recognition of achievements, meaningful work tasks and certain responsibilities.
- Self-actualisation needs - The highest need is self-actualisation which is the realisation of an individuals full potential in terms of talents and abilities, such as challenges in work and opportunities for progress. (Southwell & Merbaum, 1971; Schultz & Schultz, 1998; Peterson, 1992; Robertson et. al., 1992; Fontana, 2000).

The lower the need is on the hierarchy the more the urgency and drive will be put into satisfying this need; therefore the lower the need, the stronger the motivation to obtain it. Higher needs are delayed due to them not being vital to the individual. However, that does not imply that these needs have no far-reaching effects on the individual. The top needs are for growth and contribute to the well-being of the individual if these needs are satisfied. Maslow believed that if the higher needs (self-esteem and self-actualisation) were satisfied, it would influence an individual's ability to be content, happier, improve health and show greater biological efficiencies (Schultz & Schultz,

1998). The higher needs appeared to develop at a later stage in the individuals' life. Maslow was frustrated by behaviourist and psychodynamic approaches as they concentrated solely on the basic physiological needs. He believed that these theories had deficiencies and that they were too broad for the individual (Peterson, 1992). Maslow believed that the richness of individual emotion and cognition should be taken into consideration as individuals were far more complex than machines (Hodson, 2001).

Self-actualisation was one of the most important contributions that Maslow made in terms of motivation theory. It is the process of developing ones own potential and consistently striving to achieve ones own unique capabilities (Robbins, 1998).

Maslow's Hierarchy has been applied in the workplace and is often used as a foundation in organisational development programmes. This theory supports the notion that motivation of employees should be done by using a variety of factors, as employees may be at different levels on the hierarchy (Cherrington, 1994). There are however two major concerns when applying Maslow's theory in the workplace that are identified by Barling (1986). Firstly, there is an assumption that employees can and want to satisfy their needs through the workplace and secondly, there is the issue of whether the employees want their needs satisfied through their work environment. In today's society the organisation may not fulfil a central role in the person's work-life space.

There are a number of flaws in Maslow's theory that were identified by Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1998), such as the way in which the needs were grouped in Maslow's theory. Wahba & Bridwell (1976) supported this statement as they believed that needs could not be classified into five categories or in any specific level of importance as in the hierarchy. The opposite to this coin was met by Barling (1977) who argued that needs overlapped each other and are adjacent to each other in the hierarchy. Arnold et al. (1998) further criticised the unpredictability of when the particular needs would become important. The needs were not described by sufficient

precision and were sometimes too broad and vague.

Maslow's theory is widely accepted and is currently studied as an intriguing framework for what may motivate individuals to behave in a particular manner. One major criticism of Maslow's work is that the reliability and validity of his data on which he based his theory was not concrete. The sample and methods that he used was questionable and not scientific enough, however there are many other theories that are deprived of the same confirmation (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Wahba and Bridwell (1976) stated that little research evidence supports this theory and that the theory is supported by limited evidence of biographies by self-actualising people and based on Maslow's own experiences. Muchinsky (1993) believe that Maslow's theory can not be tested and that it is based rather on logical and clinical perceptiveness into human behaviour rather than on empirical research findings.

Maslow argued that his theory was practical and successful in practice, clinically and personally. A possible explanation for why Maslow's theory was so widely accepted despite the flaws, was that he included an element of individuality that was missing from behaviourist and psychodynamic approaches (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Wahba and Bridwell (1976) argue that despite Maslow's theory lacking in empirical support it is a very popular theory of motivation. This could be due to the description of self-actualisation, which is useful in providing employees or individuals with a model for personal development. It is argued further that Maslow's model was intended for describing the potential of the human being rather than as a predictive model of human behaviour (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

In later years Maslow's theory was defended by Smit and Cronje (1992) who believed that even though the theory could not predict or explain behaviour, it was widely accepted and used due to the following reasons:

- The hierarchy is simple to understand and makes common sense.

- The hierarchy has included important categories of needs.
- The individual potential and personal growth of each employee in the work context was pointed out to managers with the need for self-actualisation.

Hodson (2001:32) is sceptical about Maslow's hierarchy as she states that there are certain cultures that put the higher needs on the hierarchy before the lower needs. In Eastern cultures there is fasting in order to achieve a level of understanding and increase self knowledge. In circumstances such as concentration camps, people were still able to write great poetry. This contradicts Maslow's framework of a hierarchy. Hodson (2001) goes on to criticise Maslow for basing his theory only on westernisation.

### *3.2.2.2 Alderfer's ERG Theory*

Alderfer (1969) combines Maslow's hierarchy of needs into only three needs, commonly known as the ERG theory. The ERG theory needs are:

- Existence needs – These include material and physiological aspects which are necessary in order for an individual to survive. In Maslow's hierarchy this would be the physiological and safety needs.
- Relatedness needs – These refer to the social needs of an individual. In Maslow's hierarchy this refers to the social needs and parts of safety and esteem needs.
- Growth needs – These refer to the development of an individual's full potential. In Maslow's hierarchy this is the self-actualising need as well as partly the self-esteem needs.

Even though Alderfer (1969) was a follower of Maslow (1954), he differed in thinking i.e. that all needs could be satisfied simultaneously; unlike Maslow

whose thinking was that lower level needs needed to be met before high level needs could be satisfied. According to Alderfer (1969) the more the lower level needs are satisfied, the greater the desire to obtain higher level needs and the less high needs are satisfied, the more the need will be to satisfy lower level needs.

Maslow (1954) and Alderfer (1969) differed in many other ways as well. In ERG theory more than one need may be functioning simultaneously (Robbins, 1998). According to Muchinsky (1993) the two theories differed in the following ways:

- The first obvious distinction is that Maslow (1954) identified five needs compared to Alderfer's (1969) three needs.
- Maslow (1954) arranged his needs theory on a hierarchy whereas Alderfer (1969) arranged his need theory on a continuum.

According to Wanous & Zwany (1977) Alderfer's theory is removed from reality and may add little value to day-to-day people management, as behaviour of an individual may not be related simply to need fulfilment.

### *3.2.2.3 Herzberg*

Frederick Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory aimed to identify job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. There are important elements in his theory that can be used to explain his take on motivation.

After many years of extensive research Herzberg (1966) suggested that in the organisation there are two sets of needs, hygiene and motivator needs. His findings included the tendency of employees to use different factors to describe good and bad feelings within the work context. The things that caused employees to feel bad about their work were factors that described the context of their jobs, such as the organisation's policy, supervision, salary,

interpersonal relations and their working conditions. These factors are also described as dissatisfiers because they make an individual unhappy in the work environment, and can not satisfy the individual. Hodson (2001) explains the hygiene needs as the physical and psychological conditions within the organisation. These conditions also refer to the workspace, pay, safety and management structure. He labelled these factors hygiene factors due their preventative nature (Herzberg, 1959).

Herzberg's (1959) research found that when an employee described the good feelings within the work environment they identified factors that were associated with the content of the job, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility and progression within an organisation. These tasks were named satisfiers as they were effective in motivating an individual. In the same way that dissatisfiers or hygiene factors may not necessarily satisfy an individual, so motivator factors cause satisfaction when present but if not present will not necessarily cause dissatisfaction.

The motivator need is explained by Hodson (2001) as the actual task that an individual needs to perform in their job. This includes the amount of responsibility that an individual is given in their job, the opportunity that the job presents for personal growth or the recognition that an individual may get from this job. Herzberg (1966) believed that if all these criteria were met then the individual would experience job satisfaction. His theory can realign to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation; hygiene needs correlating with extrinsic needs and motivator needs correlating with intrinsic needs.

According to Smith and Cronje (1992), Herzberg made the following contributions to motivational theory:

- It has roots in Maslow's hierarchy of needs which is more pertinent to the working life of an individual

- It highlighted the importance of job-centred factors which affect the motivation of employees
- It played an important role in job enrichment and how work is structured as well as restructuring of work
- It provides an explanation for employee motivation, i.e. why there is limited influence of pay or benefits and preferably better working conditions.

Herzberg's (1959, 1966) theory is widely utilised by many managers but has come under criticism for various reasons. Rollinson, Broadfield & Edwards (1998) believed that Herzberg's theory was only supported by one method and only this method could be used to obtain similar outcomes. Cherrington (1994) supported this belief that it was due to attribution theory, where an individual feels that when they are happy in their work it is attributed to their own skill and efforts, but when they feel bad or unhappy at work they attribute it to things beyond their control. This implies that individuals use intrinsic factors when they experience good feelings and extrinsic factors when they experience negative feelings towards work or their job. House and Wigdor (1967) stated that individuals are inclined to find reason to believe that their work satisfaction is due to their own doing and that their work dissatisfaction is caused by management.

Herzberg's theory is too simplistic as fundamental attribution error is used in assigning internal factors to motivator needs and external factors to hygiene needs (Hodson, 2001). Herzberg oversimplifies the complexity of satisfaction and dissatisfaction and their relationship between motivation (House & Wigdor, 1967; Barling, 1986).

#### *3.2.2.4 David McClelland*

David McClelland was a professor at the Wesleyan University after

completing his doctorate at Yale in 1941 after only two years (Winter, 1998). He then lectured at Harvard where he spent the next 20 years studying motivation and achievement needs. David McClelland is widely known for his work on motivation but his research and interests lay also in personality and consciousness (Cohen, 1977). McClelland (1961) described motivational needs which he identified as needs for achievement, power and affiliation.

McClelland's (1961, 1975) theory can be linked to the learning theory which is based on the premise that individuals learn or acquire their needs from the kind of people, events or culture they are exposed to. These needs are in turn manifested in certain behaviours that influence how an individual perceives a situation and how they are motivated to pursue particular goals.

David McClelland focused on motivation within the world of work, he suggested that individuals work in order to satisfy specific needs. McClelland identified three types of needs, the need for achievement, affiliation and power. He believed that every person has all three needs but that some needs are stronger in certain individuals.

The need for achievement has been explored extensively compared to that of affiliation and power (Hodson, 2001). This need varies in individuals and among both managers and employees. McClelland (1961) believed that each individual has a combination of all three needs; however one need is stronger than the others and manifests in behaviour more often than not.

Winter (1998) believed that McClelland's innovative contributions to the assessment of motivation and personality was due to his willingness to think out of the box and his ability to take risks and cross boundaries. His greatest contributions to psychological assessments was the TAT (Thematic Apperception Test) as well as his research on personality and motivation, McClelland was honoured by the Society for Personality Assessment with the Bruno Klopfer award in 1998 for his contribution to the field of psychology and assessments. McClelland and his colleagues (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953) developed this assessment to measure human needs.

McClelland believed that these needs were developed over time and with life experiences. He believed that it was important for managers to identify these needs within their teams in order to bring out the best in each team member by knowing how to motivate the individual (Buchanan, 2000) (Williams, 1998).

### **a) Achievement Motivation (n-ach)**

Achievement motivation can be traced back to the 1930s when Henry A. Murray was fascinated by the way individuals' needs influence their imagination. The outcome of his work was the Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) that included the need for achievement. It was only in the late 1940s that McClelland and his colleagues developed a method on making the TAT scientific, reliable and valid (Southwell & Merbaum, 1971). The TAT consisted of a number of pictures where individuals needed to write a story about each picture. Their scores were calculated by how many times they referred to achievement orientated ideas in their stories. By analysing the individuals' fantasies/stories one could measure the strength of each individual's need to achieve.

David McClelland defined achievement motivation as a particular standard of performance of excellence or to be the best in a competitive circumstance. McClelland believed that everyone has achievement motivation but the strength of this drive differs from person to person. He believed that this was a semi learnt drive that depended on the individual's childhood and whether they were brought up in a competitive environment (Lawler III, 1994) (McClelland, 1961).

Achievement motivation may not be a constant dominating drive but may increase in situations where the individual is placed in a competitive environment. This may be a useful tool in the work environment, as employees will aim to achieve better than their colleagues and co-workers which could increase productivity of the business (Lawler III, 1994).

An individual with a high achievement level aims at succeeding in his or her

tasks and strives for excellence. They thrive on challenges and are driven to achieving their goals (Hodson, 2001).

The achievement motive was studied extensively as this is what fascinated McClelland the most. From his research and studies he believed that the need for achievement was the most important aspect of leadership or management in a business. He believed that managers or leaders who had a stronger need for affiliation would want acceptance and make unbiased, socially acceptable decisions in order to achieve popularity. He also believed that a manager or leader who had a stronger need for power may be more attracted to the role but may lack flexibility or people skills. This then makes a manager or leader who has a stronger need for achievement the most versatile and effective. This kind of leader would be result driven and therefore motivated to make things happen and get things done (McClelland et al., 1953; McClelland, 1961).

McClelland (1961) suggested that other characteristics of an individual with a stronger need for achievement included the following:

- Achievement takes precedence over material or financial rewards;
- Achievement of a task has greater personal satisfaction than recognition or being praised for it;
- Success is measured by the financial reward but is not the aim of the task;
- They are not motivated by security or status;
- Feedback that is reliable, quantifiable and factual is important for this kind of individual;
- They will constantly look at improving and finding ways to enhance task achievement or to better themselves;

- They will enjoy and find jobs where they can measure their own performance and have goals that are clearly defined, e.g. sales, entrepreneurial roles etc.;
- They are likely to set moderately high goals that are achievable but difficult enough to be a challenge and worth obtaining; and
- Prefer situations where there is a challenge and a calculated risk of failing; but not where there is a chance that they will not be able to achieve by their own doing.

McClelland (1961) found that individuals with a high need for achievement are seldom motivated by financial gain, as they are preoccupied with the accomplishment of a task or attainment of a goal. He believed that a high need for achievement was a good indicator for entrepreneurial success and he studied the correlation with high achievement, managerial success and economic activity.

In about 20 studies done by Johnson (1990) it was established that achievement and entrepreneurship have a positive correlation, where the individual possessed a willingness to take risks, has personal accountability and is constantly striving to accomplish their goals.

#### **b) Affiliation Motivation (n-affil)**

The need for affiliation can be described as the desire to establish and maintain relations with other individuals (McClelland, 1961). It is believed that individuals sought out the company of others when they felt anxious or confused about their own motives. Research also suggests that individuals look for companionship when they are lacking self-esteem, and still other theorists believe that this need for affiliation is innate (Lawler III, 1994). According to McClelland (1961) an individual that has a higher need for affiliation may have the following characteristics:

- The individual has a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others;
- The individual may easily conform to the norm and desires of other individuals whom they value for their friendship;
- This individual has a strong awareness of others emotions and feelings.

Many organisations have discovered that this need is often neglected within the organisation. Individuals may work in isolation and not have opportunity or appetite for social interaction among peers (Lawler III, 1994).

Individuals who have a high need for affiliation are more concerned with their relationships at work and with their team members. It is more important to co-operate with each other rather compete against each other. They wish to fit in and feel a sense of belonging. The individual who has a stronger need for affiliation requires interaction and is concerned with the working relationships, which make them great team players (Hodson, 2001). They usually are attracted to jobs that enable them to interact with others and where they work in a team rather than alone (McClelland, 1961).

The need for affiliation is similar to that of Abraham Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. An individual with a stronger need for affiliation is concerned with the desire to be accepted, liked by others and feel part of a group (McClelland, 1961).

### **c) Power Motivation (n-pow)**

The need for power can be described as the need to control and influence other individuals as well as to have responsibility over them (McClelland, 1961). Individuals who have a high need for power are driven by status and control of situations and people. These individuals are driven by the influence that they have on the work environment and other employees (Hodson, 2001). Someone who has a stronger need for power is concerned with influencing

others and voicing their opinions. This need is simply not just to be in control or control those around them but a need to have an impact, be influential and affect goalachievement within an organisation (McClelland, 1975). Power is defined by Wolman (1992) as an individual's ability or capabilities.

Power goes beyond just the need to have resources for survival– it goes on to satisfying personal goals and ambitions. Power can manifest itself in an individual by portraying self-confidence and self-reliance (Wolman, 1992).

The need for power is often associated with leadership. These individuals make good leaders due to their influential status and hunger for control, as long as it is controlled (Peterson, 1992).

McClelland (1975) suggest that other characteristics of an individual with a stronger need for power include the following:

- They are concerned with the organisation's effectiveness and feel responsible for building and developing the organisation;
- They like to work for the sake of it, unlike the achiever who prefers to minimise work by finding means to work efficiently;
- They are committed and dedicated to their organisation and work ethic;
- They are hard working, have great energy and devotion believing that success will follow; They have a strong sense of justice feeling that hard work and sacrifice will be rewarded;
- They have a need to be heard and want to be part of important decision making within their organisation; and
- They have a need to feel that they have a made a difference.

The need for power can be divided in two ways, firstly there is a need for personal power, which can be destructive in the sense that the individual wants power over others. This may lead to actions, behaviours or decisions that are not beneficial for the organisation but rather the wants and desires of the individual. The individual strives for dominance for the sake of dominating or having social power. The second type of power refers to institutional power, where the individual has a need to direct teams and influences others in order to achieve organisational goals, strategies and objectives which is to purely facilitate goal attainment (McClelland, 1975).

McClelland (1975) believes that individuals are motivated to find and perform optimally in the roles that match their needs. An individual who has a higher need for achievement should be strongly motivated in a sales or entrepreneurial role. An individual with a higher need for affiliation should be motivated in a role that has a primary focus on establishing relationships with others, such as a role in social work or employee relations. An individual who has a higher need for power should be motivated in a role where they have a strong impact or influence over others such as a journalist or in management.

Hodson (2001) suggests that McClelland's theory might be somewhat biased in the sense that he has generalised achievement across gender. She believes that the way boys and girls are brought up are very different and that if achievement is learnt, it is not taught to girls and boys in the same manner. A parent may discipline a son more and tell him to persevere with a difficult task when he fails, but for a girl that discipline may not be as intense. The second concern that Hodson (2001) had was that culture differences may have not have been taken into consideration in McClelland's theory, as some cultures differ in terms of the meaning of achievement. Rollinson et al. (1998) criticised McClelland's theory for making use of projective techniques for data collection which involves subject interpretation with the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). The Motivational Drivers questionnaire differs from the Thematic Appreciation test (TAT) which predominantly measures achievement in an individual.

The Motivational Drivers survey measures all three drivers and the extent to which an individual is driven by each of these drivers in terms of rated preference. The purpose of the research was to determine any correlations between these drivers and the individual's personality preferences, making the Motivational Drivers questionnaire more relevant to the purpose of this research study. The reliability and validity of the Motivational Drives Survey will be discussed in Chapter 4 in detail.

### **3.2.2 Goal Theory**

The Goal theory states that motivation of an individual relates to the targets or goals that are set out for employees.

#### *3.3.2.1 Locke and Latham*

Locke first proposed in 1968 that goal-setting influenced performance and motivation in individuals. He believed that as long as the goal criteria matched the performance criteria and that the individual accepted the goal, then it could be measured and controlled. Locke and Latham (1990) describe a goal as an individual's purpose with regards to quantity, quality or rate of performance. Zimmerman (2000) describes goals as self-regulation in forethought, performance control and self-reflection. Seijts (2001) describes the assumptions of the goal theory as follows:

- Setting specific, challenging goals;
- The linear relationship between difficulty of the goal and performance of the individual;
- Feedback is necessary but not sufficient in causing goals to affect performance; and
- Only once goals are set, specific, challenging and committed to – will employee incentives and participation affect performance.

The basis of this theory is that the setting of specific and challenging goals

results in better performance than just encouraging an individual to do their best (Seijts, 2001).

Locke's (1968) theory was based on the concept that the more difficult the goal was, the better the individual had to perform to obtain it. He believed that goals influenced performance in the following ways: (a) it directed attention and action; (b) mustered up effort; (c) increased persistence within the individual to achieve; and (d) motivated the search to identify the relevant strategies in order to perform.

In determining goals an individual usually takes the following into consideration: what is expected to be achieved, what the individual wants to achieve and the standard that the individual sets as minimum achievement (Robertson, 1992). The goal-setting theory stated that decisions are calculated by individuals in attempting to achieve their goals. He or she would be motivated to do whatever is required in order to achieve their goals. In this way setting goals affects the individual's behaviour and work performance.

Locke (1991) named the "motivation hub" the centre at which the action sits which consists of personal goals, goal commitment and self-efficacy. These variables are the most conscious determining motivators and can mediate effects of external incentives. In organisations, personal goals may conflict with organisational or management goals. Performance may be undermined if motivation and action tendencies are not aligned. This may have a detrimental effect on a team's performance (Locke & Latham, 2002).

The Expectancy theory and Locke's (1968) goal theory seem to contradict each other in the sense that Vroom (1964) believed that an individual weighed up the difficulty of achieving success, whereas Locke (1968) believed that the difficulty of a task motivated an individual to perform better and work harder to achieve success (Locke & Latham, 2002). This contradiction was resolved by the work of Garland (1984) who used multiple regression instead of zero-order correlation to measure the subjective probability of success and goal difficulty. In previous research the relationship

had a negative correlation. In Garland's (1984) research his findings suggested that both subjective probability of success and goal setting influenced motivation to perform.

Most studies done using goal setting have used single goals, leaving both Locke & Latham (1990) acknowledging shortfalls in using multiple goals. This theory does not make any predictions affects of proximal goals and distal goals (Yearta, Maitlis & Briner, 1995). Proximal goals refer to how far they extend into the future and distal goals are long-term or primary goals (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Yearta et al (1995) suggest that goal-setting theory has good theoretical foundations and empirical support but lacks substance when applied in the organisational context.

### **3.4 INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY THEORIES**

Maslow's (1954) theory which is a humanistic approach to motivation, identifies that an individual has a need to move towards self-actualisation and growth. Alderfer (1969) limited these needs to only three towards which an individual strives. McClelland's (1961) theory focused on motivation within the working environment where he identified three needs that motivate individuals: achievement, power and affiliation. Herzberg's (1959) theory focused mainly on job satisfaction but corresponds with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

All these theories have contributed to the study of motivation in different ways but highlighting important aspects of how an individual is driven and motivated in the workplace as well as socially. Locke & Latham's (1968) Goal theory explored how an individual is motivated through setting goals for themselves. In terms of the Process theory – Vroom's (1964) Expectancy theory – individuals are motivated to perform only if they feel that the effort they put in will lead to a desired result. The illustration below demonstrates the relationship and the underlying principles of Content, Process and Goal

theories.

### Motivational Theories

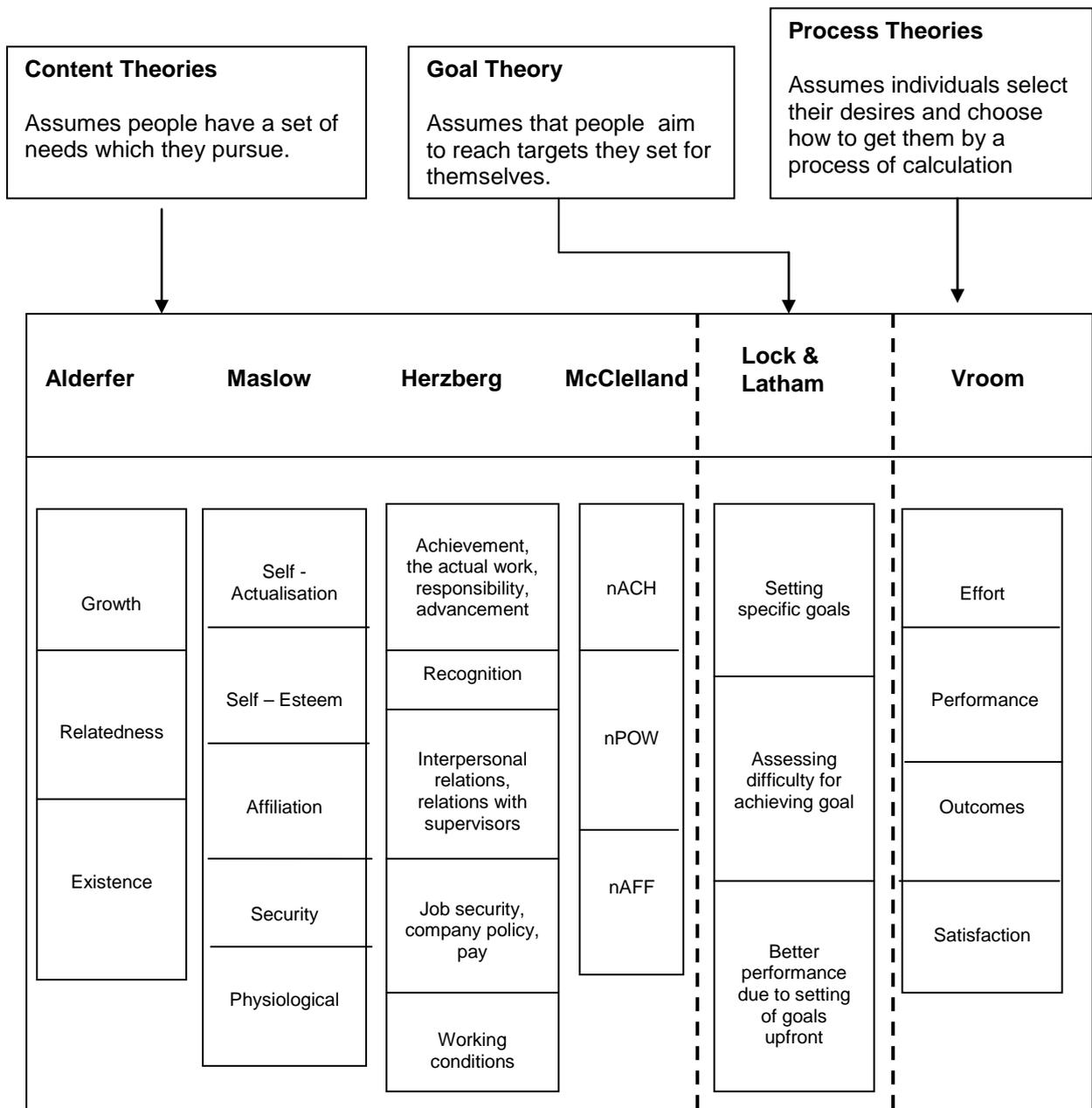


Figure 3.3 Relationship between content, process and goal theories (Adapted from Rollinson, et al. 1998)

### 3.5. INTEGRATION OF PERSONALITY AND MOTIVATION

The study of motivation within an organisational context can add value to the business and the individual. Society is driven by organisations. Four in every five people work in an organisation; this implies that an individual spends a number of hours in a day in the working environment. It is therefore beneficial

for an individual to know what motivates and drives them in order to achieve and satisfy their goals. Knowing what motivates their employees can assist managers in bringing out the best in them in terms of their work and enjoyment of their job. According to Lawler III (1994) it is usually the motivated voluntary actions of individuals that determine the effectiveness of an organisation. It is therefore important to identify the influence that the organisation has on motivating individuals within their organisation.

Humanistic theories differ from psychodynamic theories on motivation in the way that motivation is studied. One major difference is that motivation in humanistic theories recognises a number of variants rather than instinct needs. It takes into account the differences in and diversity of an individual. Humanistic theory supports the belief that a number of aspects of an individual need to be considered, rather than just the need for self discovery as suggested by Jung (1967). Humanistic theory does acknowledge that instinct and self discovery play a role in motivation but are not the overriding factors of motivation in an individual (Fontana, 2000:70).

Mowen (2000) developed a model of motivation and personality called the 3M Model, also known as the Metatheoretic Model of Motivation and Personality. This model was developed to investigate and understand the impact of personality on consumer behaviour. It was developed to create an organising structure for understanding personality constructs and what drives behaviour. According to Mowen, Park and Zablah (2007) this model integrates four theoretical approaches, namely:

- Describing how personality traits motivate behaviour by using a control theory framework, it uses Trait theory in believing that valid and reliable scales can be developed to measure intrapsychic nature for behaviour;
- It uses hierarchical models of personality to suggest that traits are more abstract in structure and that cross situational traits are limiting to situational specific behavioural tendencies which influence behaviour;
- and

- It uses concepts from evolutionary psychology to suggest that material and physical needs signify highly basic genetic traits.

In the control theory element, Mowen (2000) suggests that a three-level feedback model is utilised. Where a set of behavioural principles are derived from a generalised self-concept, for example to be kind to others, this will lead to habitual behaviour which will lead to specific actions. He believes that there is a four-level hierarchy of traits which incorporates a reference point for certain behaviours and suggests that this is the base of the individuals' self-concept.

For the purpose of this research study McClelland's (1961) theory was used to determine the motivational drive of the employees. This was done through a questionnaire that was administered in a controlled environment during the recruitment process.

The following diagram illustrates how the motivational drivers will be investigated in this study in relation to the personality traits.

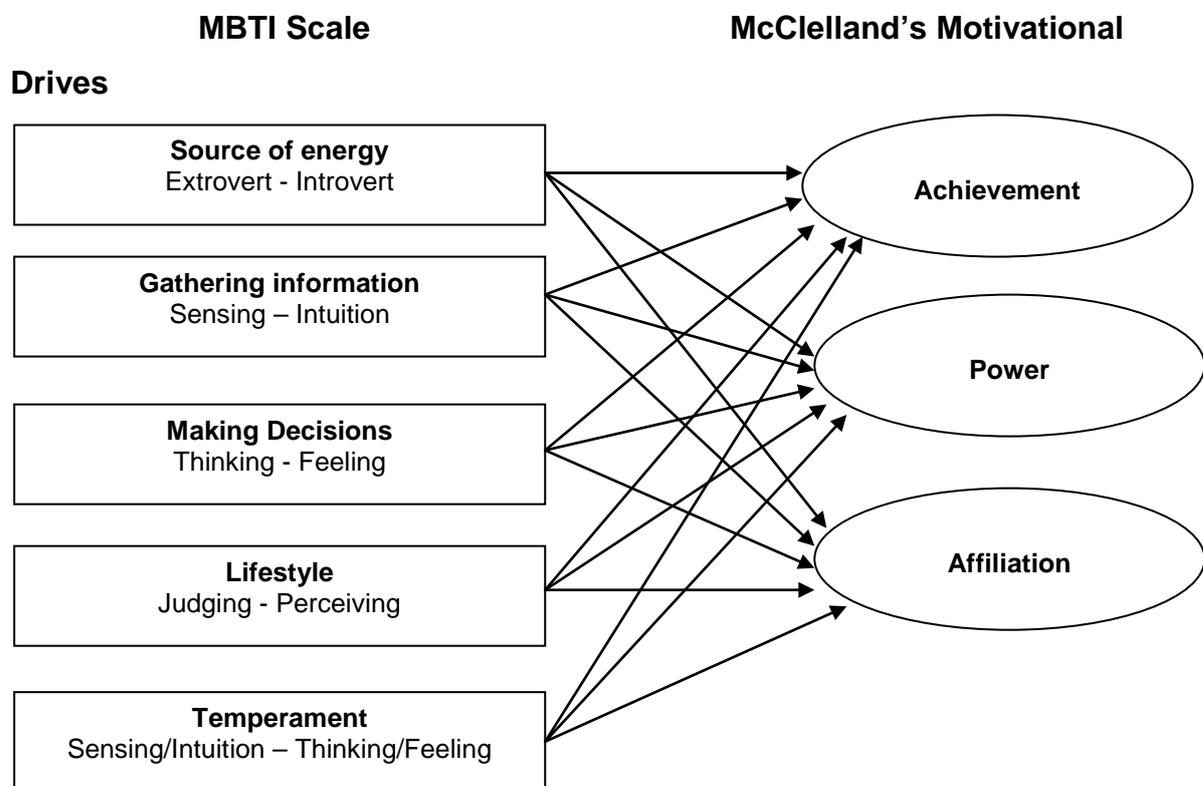


Figure 3.4 The Relationship between Motivational Drivers and Personality

The research aims to investigate if there is a relationship in terms of a correlation between the MBTI scales and achievement, power or affiliation on McClelland's motivational drives scale. The assessment tools utilised during recruitment of the employees of the private bank were based on these two theories.

In reviewing McClelland's (1975) Motivational Drivers theory and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator based on Jung's theory, the theoretical foundation of these approaches were established on the motivational drivers and personality type, setting the tone for the empirical research outcome.

### **3.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In Chapter 3 the theories of motivation were investigated namely, Goal, Expectancy and Need theories and the contribution that these theories have made to the investigation of individual motivation and organisational motivation. In Chapter 4 the link between the theoretical basis for this research and the research methodology for the empirical study will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **4. EMPIRICAL STUDY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the empirical study which includes the methodology of the study in terms of sample selection, justification for assessment tools used, data gathering and processing.

#### **4.2 EMPIRICAL STUDY AIMS**

The specific aims relating to the empirical study are

- to establish the personality types of the employees in the organisation
- to establish the motivational drives of these employees
- to integrate the results of the personality assessment and motivational drives to establish if a relationship exists between personality and motivation
- to formulate recommendations in terms of the relationship between personality and motivational drives in the organisation.

#### **4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

Wilkinson (1999) states that in research one should provide information on sample size and the process that led to the sample size decision. According to Gliner and Morgan (2000) sampling is the process of selecting part of a larger group of participants with the intent of generalising from the smaller group which is called a sample. In order to make valid conclusions, a sample needs to be representative of the total population. However, due to the fact that the assessments were already done a sample was chosen of people who had most recently completed the psychometric assessments.

A population refers to the event, things or individuals that are represented in a research project where a sample refers to a group of individuals that are less than the population (Christensen, 1997). In order to achieve an accurate description of the general population, random sampling should be used. The method of random sampling gives everyone in the population an opportunity to be selected.

This research was conducted in a South African Private Bank. The staff count totals 341 people. This includes employees at all levels and in different departments, ranging from core business to the support divisions such as Human Resource and Information Technology.

#### **4.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

##### **4.4.1 Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)**

The MBTI is structured on the work of Jung's (1967) psychological types. Jung (1967) identified three dimensions namely orientation of energy, process of perception and process of judging which could be used to explore an individual's type. According to Myers and McCauley (1990) Briggs and Myers extended the theory to cover an implicit aspect of Jung's theory, a scale that described attitudes and behaviours of an individual towards the outside world.

Black (1994) describes the MBTI as a personality assessment that measures an individual's existing predisposition or tendencies. Individuals can be divided into 16 categories based on four dimensions: extroversion (E) or introversion (I), sensing (S) or intuition (N), thinking (T) or feeling (F), and perceiving (P) or judging (J). Form G (self-scored) was used which is a self-reporting instrument. The individual needs to respond to the 94 items by selecting their normal behaviour between two options. The MBTI aims to identify preferences rather than indicate an individual's ability to use either their most or least preferred personality style (Myers & McCauley, 1990).

#### 4.4.1.1 *Rationale for Inclusion*

The purpose for selecting the MBTI was due to the fact that it had been used for years in the Private Bank as part of the recruitment assessment battery but nothing further was done with the results. The MBTI is a widely used instrument in South Africa and has positive research on its reliability and validity. It was decided by the researcher to establish whether other assessments, namely the Motivational Drivers survey used in the process may have some relationship to this personality assessment.

#### 4.4.1.2 *Nature and Composition*

There are four dimensions of the MBTI described by Briggs Myers (1993) as:

- a) Extroverts (E) prefer to focus on the outer world of people and activity. Their energy is focused outward and they receive their energy from interacting with people. On the other hand the Introvert (I) prefers to focus inwardly on their own ideas and experiences. They receive energy from reflecting on their thoughts, memories and feelings.
- b) People who have a preference for Sensing (S) rely on information that is real and tangible. They are attuned to practical reality and the specifics of what is happening around them. People, who have a preference for Intuition (N), rely on the relationships and connections between facts. They see the big picture and focus on new possibilities.
- c) People who prefer Thinking (T) use logical consequence of a choice of action in decision-making. They analyse options objectively and take themselves out of the situation; they make decisions based on facts. Those who prefer Feeling (F), consider what is important to them and to others that are involved when making a decision. They base their decisions on values and empathy.

- d) People who prefer Judging (J) like to live in a planned, orderly way. They like to regulate and manage their lives. People who prefer Perceiving (P) live in a more flexible, spontaneous manner. They seek to experience and understand life rather than control it.

#### *4.4.1.3 Reliability and validity*

Kirby (1997) suggests that there is a great deal of positive evidence that supports the reliability and validity of the MBTI assessment, provided that it is administered correctly and used for the purposes recommended by the test developer .

The MBTI generates dichotomous results and therefore the preferred approach to reliability is to consider how often the same types emerge in repeated testing. However the MBTI manual (Myers & McCauley, 1990) (Myers, McCauley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998) presents split half and coefficient alpha measures of internal consistency using continuous scores for various samples. The MBTI is an ipsative instrument meaning that it is measured against itself. It is observed as a fact and not compared to other results but rather in the context of an average or expected outcome. Each person is his or her own frame of reference (Blenkinsop & Maddison, 2007).

According to Myers et al.(1998) the internal consistencies based on Alpha coefficients are all over 0.7 for the MBTI scales. They report the internal consistency of the MBTI to range from .91 to .92 depending on the scale. In terms of test-reliability, 66 per cent of respondents reported the same for all four scales after a four week interval and 91 per cent were the same on three out of four preferences. Harvey (1996) reports an overall 0.84 on reliability and 0.86 for internal consistency measure and 0.76 for temporal stability.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) a test must demonstrate adequately the personality theory it claims to represent in order for it to be deemed valid. Due the MBTI being based on theory it is argued that its validity must be evaluated in terms of how well it demonstrates relationships and predicts

outcomes of that personality theory (Murray, 1990) (Johnson, 1992). Myers et al. (2003) report that validity is estimated at over 75 per cent based on feedback received from psychologists using the assessment. After a decade of studies Hammer (1996) reports that the MBTI has good convergent, discriminant and predictive validity, construct validity and substantial convergent validity between the MBTI and the Five-factor model.

Taylor and Yiannakis (2007) used the Cronbach (*a*) alpha coefficient to determine the internal consistency reliability for the South African population. The results of their study are shown in Table 4.1. The results of the Cronbach alpha coefficient were above .80, making it acceptable in terms of internal consistency reliability. The closer to 1, the more reliable the test is (Taylor & Yiannakis, 2007).

**Table 4.1 Internal consistency reliability (Taylor & Yiannakis, 2007:11)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b><i>a</i></b>
Extroversion/Introversion	0.91
Sensing/Intuition	0.85
Thinking/Feeling	0.88
Judging/Perceiving	0.91

The results from the Taylor and Yiannakis (2007) study demonstrated evidence that the form M was accurate in determining results for the South African population. From the sample used in the study, 96 per cent of the individuals verified their obtained preference.

#### *4.4.1.4 Administration*

The MBTI was administered in a standardised and controlled manner. The individual completed the MBTI together with a biographical questionnaire as part of the recruitment procedure and this was scored by a psychometrist.

#### **4.4.2 Motivational Drives Survey**

The Motivational Drives survey based on McClelland's (1961) Motivational Need theory was developed by a company called Manspec, as part of their leadership Competency assessment tool (Van der Merwe & Van Der Merwe, 1999).

The Motivational Drives survey consists of 45 descriptors that are grouped into combinations of three. The individual has to mark on a scale of 1 to 3 points which statement they most or least agree with in terms of their own behaviour.

##### *4.4.2.1 Rationale for Inclusion*

The purpose for selecting the Motivational Drives Survey was due to the fact that it had been used for years in the Private Bank as part of the recruitment assessment battery but nothing further was done with the results. It was decided by the researcher to see if other assessments, namely the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator used in the process may have some relationship to this personality assessment.

##### *4.4.2.2 Nature and Composition*

The Motivational drives survey has three scales namely, Achievement, Power and Affiliation. These can be summarised as follows according to McClelland (1961):

- a) Achievement - Need for achievement is the urge to excel, to accomplish in relation to a set of standards, to struggle to achieve success.
- b) Power - Need for power is the desire to influence another individual's behaviour to suit oneself. In other words, it is the desire to have control over others and to be influential.

- c) Affiliation - Need for affiliation is a need for open and sociable interpersonal relationships. In other words, it is a desire for relationship based on co-operation and mutual understanding.

#### 4.4.2.3 *Reliability and validity*

According to Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe (1999) in terms of item analysis, items were examined for item-total correlation and where necessary adjusted or eliminated from the instrument. All items may assume a range of scores and it was therefore decided to use Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha to estimate the reliability of the items in the instrument. In terms of Concurrent validity, Standard Multiple Regression analysis was performed separately between each item and the composite independent criterion as the motivational drivers survey is part of a full battery assessment.

Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe (1999) report a reliability of 0.96 and 0.87 on concurrent validity. A standard multiple regression was calculated between the composite independent criterion and the items contained in the survey. A multiple regression coefficient of  $R = 0.55$  ( $p < 0.01$ ) was obtained.

In view of the small proportional distribution of female subjects (on the 'gender' dimension), a test of predictive bias was included. However, in the case of the racial distribution, the model developed by Jensen (1980) was applied. In terms of this model, the predictor and criterion scores was compared and tested for differences in slope, intercept and standard error of estimate (Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe, 1999).

In terms of predictive bias, the predictor and criterion scores were compared and tested for slope difference, intercept and standard error of estimate (Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe, 1999).

Table 4.2 represents the results that were calculated.

**Table 4.2 Predictive Bias presented as a result of racial differences (Van der Merwe and Van der Merwe, 1999).**

<i>Test</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Significance</i>
a) Test of the difference between the regression slopes	-0.002	50	0.998
b) Test of the difference between the intercepts, assuming that group 1 (white group) is the major group	0.902	50	0.372
c) Test of the difference between that standard error of estimate	1.038	7	0.420

#### 4.4.2.4 Administration

The assessment tools were administered in a standardised and control manner. The individual completed the MBTI, Motivational Drivers Questionnaire and a biographical questionnaire as part of the recruitment procedure which was then scored by a psychometrist.

## 4.5 DATA COLLECTION

The data was collected from the existing files of employees who had most recently completed the assessment battery when they were recruited. The latest 150 samples were selected. A biographical questionnaire was part of the recruitment battery that gave the researcher additional information about the participants. The participants were sent notification that their results would be used for a research project and should they wish not to be part of it, they would need to let the researcher know. Out of the 150 chosen participants only 147 had accepted the proposal and 3 did not respond. Due

to ethical issues it was decided to proceed without these 3 participants.

## **4.6 DATA ANALYSIS**

In this study both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in analysing the data collected. Descriptive statistics included the maximum scores, means, standard deviations and frequency distribution (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Anatsasi and Urbina (1997) suggest that it is common practice in applied psychology research to investigate the effects of biographical variables such as age, gender and education within a relationship.

The raw scores of the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers Survey were converted to nominal scores. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) nominal measurement is elementary and unrefined, but it does divide data into discrete categories that can be compared with one another.

According to Leedy & Ormond (2005) inferential statistics differ from descriptive statistics as the latter is simply describing what is or what the data shows, where as inferential statistics aims to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone.

The statistical electronic package used for data analysis was the IBM SPSS version 19 (2010).

### **4.6.1 Frequency Distributions**

The first step is to identify the range of scores and establish the frequency with which each occurs. A frequency distribution table is an efficient way to summarise the information so that the researcher can identify patterns (Tredoux & Durheim, 2002). The frequency distributions were calculated for the biographical data, the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers Survey. These tables are used to describe the data collected to enable the researcher to describe the sample population and the distribution of the personality type and motivational drivers. The distribution tables are illustrated and discussed in

## Chapter 5.

### 4.6.2 Correlations

According to Cascio (1998) correlations consist of measuring and determining the strength and direction of the relationship that may exist between them. The correlation co-efficient (indicated as  $r$ ) is a measure of this relationship and varies between 1 and -1. The direction of the relation determines the positive or negative relationship between variables. If  $r$  is close to 1, it is an indication of a strong positive relationship. If  $r$  is closer to -1 it indicates a strong negative relationship. However should  $r$  be 0, this indicates that there is no linear relationship between the variables.

### 4.6.3 Level of statistical significance

Cohen (1988) describes statistical tests as the probability that it will yield statistical significant results. A p-value is generated with each statistical test of a null hypothesis, which generates the probability of a result under the null hypothesis. According to Leedy and Ormod (2005) statistical significance is the probability that the observed result could have occurred randomly if there is no true underlying effect. The significance level is the criterion used for rejecting the null hypothesis.

The levels of statistical significance are represented in the table below:

Probability	Level	Significance
$P$	0.10	Less significant
$P$	0.01 – 0.05	Significant
$P$	0.001 – 0.01	Very significant
$P$	0.001	Extremely significant

**Table 4.3 Levels of Significance (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002)**

In research,  $p < 0.05$  is commonly used for level of significance but due the explorative nature of the study it was decided that  $p < 0.10$  will be used as the level of statistical significance. It is advisable not to set rigorous significant levels in explorative research and therefore  $p < 0.10$  is acceptable (Garson, 2006).

#### **4.6.4 Spearman Rho**

The Spearman Rho, is a non-parametric correlation coefficient used for ordinal data and was utilised due to the small sample size. Spearman's Rho, as is the case with any other correlation coefficient, may be interpreted in one of two ways. Firstly the statistical significance (the p-value) of the coefficient is reported and analysed. Traditionally a significance value of  $p < 0.05$ , would lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis where  $H_0 (p = 0)$  with a 95 per cent level of confidence that relationship did not occur by chance. A significance value of  $p < 0.10$  or smaller would lead to the rejection of  $H_0 (p = 0)$  with a 90 per cent level of confidence, the latter value where  $p < 0.10$  is used in this case. Secondly, since statistical significance is closely related to sample size, the effect size of a correlation coefficient may also be used to judge the practical, rather than just statistical significance (Cohen, 1988).

Spearman Rho can be thought of as the regular Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson  $r$ ); that is, in terms of the proportion of variability accounted for, except that Spearman R is computed from ranks. As mentioned above, Spearman R assumes that the variables under consideration were measured on at least an ordinal (rank order) scale; that is, the individual observations (cases) can be ranked into two ordered series (Williams, Sweeney & Anderson, 2009).

Once the size of the correlation has been considered, the last test to apply is the sign related to the correlation. The following should be taken into account:

- A positive correlation indicated by either a + (or the lack thereof) suggests that as the x value goes up so does the y value.

- A negative correlation indicated by a – (minus sign) suggests that as the x value goes up, the y value goes down or vice versa.

It is important to mention that the sign of the correlation coefficient, whether it is positive or negative, has no bearing on the strength of the relationship.

#### **4.6.5 Cross Tabulation**

Cross tabulation is the process of creating contingency tables. A contingency table is a graphical method of showing a relationship between two variables. The frequency distribution provides information about the variable individually. The table reveals insight into the relationship between the two variables in terms of frequency (Williams, Sweeney & Anderson, 2009).

### **4.7 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESIS**

The following research hypotheses were formulated in order to address the objectives of the study:

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drivers.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between

Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

#### **4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In Chapter 4 the steps followed by the empirical study, namely the sample, the psychometric battery in terms of selection, validity, reliability and administration, data processing and formulation of the research hypotheses were discussed.

## CHAPTER 5

### 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the research results are presented and discussed. The research sample is discussed in terms of gender, race and age. The analyses of the results will be presented and discussed and the chapter will conclude with a summary.

#### 5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

The aim of descriptive statistics is only to describe and not to draw conclusions or make inferences on the larger group (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2006). Frequency distributions are used to illustrate the results. A frequency distribution can be described as a tabular summary of data that shows the number of or frequency of an item in each of several non-lapping classes (Williams et al., 2009).

In order to comprehensively describe the sample (n = 147), analyses in terms of frequencies and percentages were performed in terms of population, gender, race and age.

Table 5.1 below illustrates the statistics for the variables population, gender, race and age.

Table 5.1 Biographical Data

---

Variable	N	Percentage %
<i>Population</i>		
Total Population of Bank	341	100
Total available sample	147	43.1

---

---

<i>Gender</i>		
Male	66	44.9
Female	81	55.1
<i>Race</i>		
White	60	40.8
African	29	19.7
Indian	39	26.5
Coloured	19	12.9
<i>Age</i>		
20 – 25 years	7	4.8
26 – 30 years	43	29.3
31 – 35 years	55	37.4
36 – 40 years	28	19.0
41 – 50 years	11	7.5
50 + years	3	2.0

---

### **5.2.1 Population**

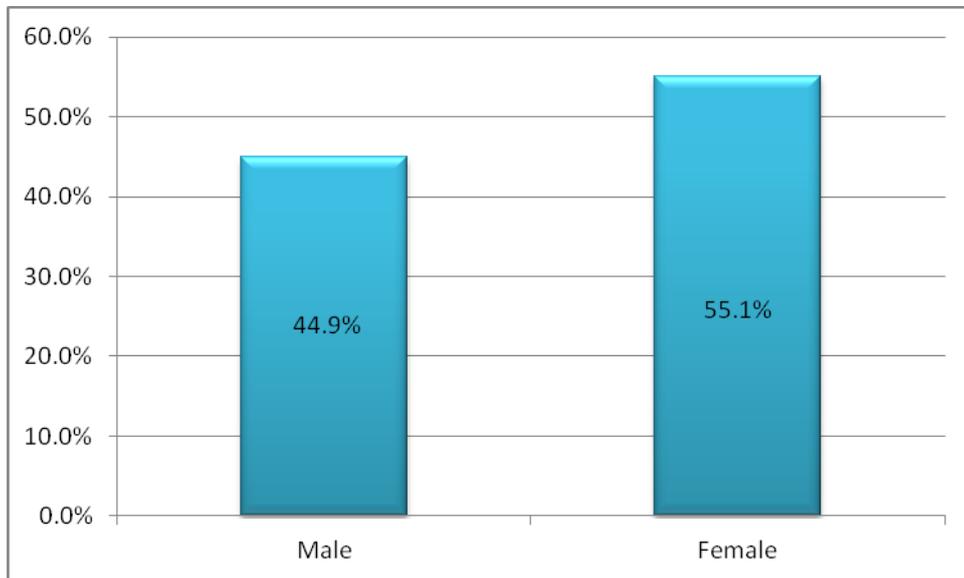
The whole population of the Private Bank is 341. From the available assessments done, 150 of the most recent assessments were selected for the research project. All these employees were contacted to obtain their permission to use their assessment data for the research project. Only 147 gave their approval and were included in the research sample.

### **5.2.2 Gender**

From Table 5.1 it is apparent that the majority of the sample (55.1%) was female. This could be attributed to the fact that the head office is mainly made up of support and administrative employees. There is however an

initiative to bring more females into higher paying and management roles.

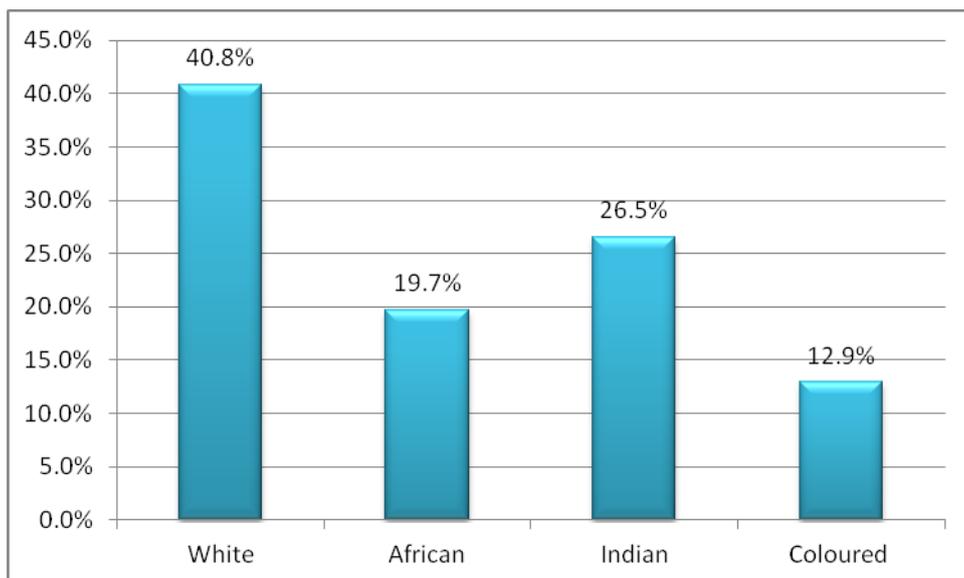
**Figure 5.1 Biographical Statistics for Gender**



### 5.2.3 Race

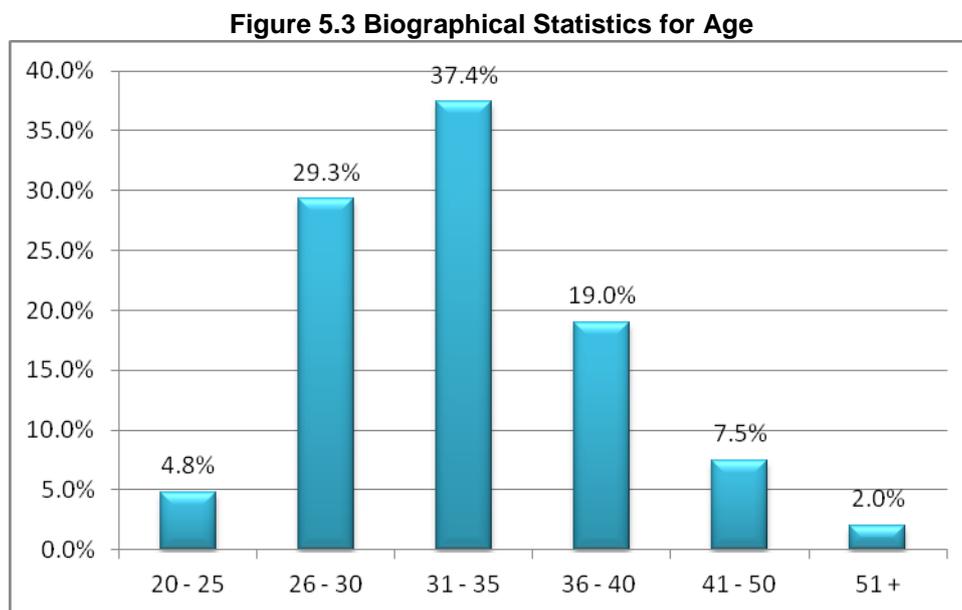
According to Table 5.1 the race distribution consisted of majority White employees (40.8%), followed by Indian employees (26.5%) and African employees with (19.7%) and Coloured employees with (12.9%).

**Figure 5.2 Biographical Statistics for Race**



## 5.2.4 Age

In Table 5.1 majority of the sample is age group 31 - 35 years (37.4%) followed by age group 26 – 30 years (29.3%). The lowest of the age groups are made up of the age group of employees that are over 50 years (2%) and employees aged 41 – 50 years (7.5%). From this it can be detected that the workforce is fairly young which may impact their motivational drives. That will be investigated later in the chapter.



## 5.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ASSESSMENT RESULTS

The two questionnaires used were the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to assess personality type and the Motivational Drivers Survey to assess an individual's motivational driver. The reliability and validity of the measurement tools have been discussed in Chapter 4. The purpose of this discussion is to present the results from the study carried out.

### 5.3.1 Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myer-Briggs Type Indicator includes the following scales (Quenk, 1996: 2, 3):

- Extroversion is energy produced through interaction with the outer world of people and objects. Focus is on breadth and variety of experiences in the world.
- Introversion is energy produced through interaction with inner experiences and ideas. Focus is on depth and intensity of private reflections.
- Judging is the approach to the outer world is to come to conclusions and make judgments. Focus is on closure, predictability, planning, organisation and control.
- Perceiving is the approach to the outer world is to gather information and perceive. Focus in on adaptability, flexibility, spontaneity and openness to new information.
- Sensing is information gathered through the five senses. Focus is on concrete facts, details and experiences that occur in the present.
- Intuition is information acquired as patterns or global wholes. Focus is on interrelationships, meanings and possibilities in the future.
- Thinking is conclusions based on logical analysis of sensing or intuitive information. Focus is on impartiality and objectivity.
- Feeling is conclusions based on personal values about sensing or intuitive information. Focus is on empathy and harmony.

Please note the following abbreviations for this chapter:

E - Refers to an extroverted preference on the MBTI

I - Refers to an introverted preference on the MBTI

S - Refers to a sensing preference on the MBTI

N - Refers to an intuitive preference on the MBTI

T - Refers to a thinking preference on the MBTI

F - Refers to a feeling preference on the MBTI

J - Refers to a judging preference on the MBTI

P - Refers to a perceiving preference on the MBT

Table 5.2 Frequency Distribution of MBTI Profiles

MBTI Profile	Number of cases	Per cent	Cumulative Percentage
ENFJ	1	0.7%	0.7
ENFP	3	2.0%	2.7
ENTJ	19	12.9%	15.6
ENTP	13	8.8%	24.4
ESFJ	5	3.4%	27.8
ESFP	1	0.7%	28.5
ESTJ	57	38.8%	67.3
ESTP	10	6.8%	74.1
INFJ	1	0.7%	74.8
INTJ	7	4.8%	79.6
INTP	4	2.7%	82.3
ISFJ	1	0.7%	83.0
ISTJ	20	13.6%	96.6
ISTP	5	3.4%	100
<b>Totals</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

In Table 5.2 ESTJ is the most dominant personality profile with 38.8 per cent. According to Demarest (as cited by Hardijzer, 2000) a number of research supports that the ESTJ type is predominant in the work environment. The study reports that in the corporate environment this is the most common personality type according to the MBTI assessment.

The ESTJ profile in the work environment is likely to represent goal and task directed individuals that are characterised by decisiveness, realistic and factual, and logical in decision making. They would also be individuals that would prefer order and structure and are likely to behave in a more systematic and abiding manner (Myers et al., 1998).

Table 5.3 Extroversion/Introversion and Biographical Data

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Sum of E</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of I</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Totals</b>
Female	58	39.5	23	15.6	81
Male	50	34.0	16	10.9	66
<b>Race</b>					
African	24	16.3	5	3.4	29
Coloured	13	8.8	6	4.0	19
Indian	32	21.8	7	4.8	39
White	39	26.6	21	14.3	60

<b>Age Group</b>					
20 – 25	6	4.1	1	0.7	7
26 – 30	35	23.8	8	5.4	43
31 – 35	41	27.9	14	9.5	55
36 – 40	17	11.6	11	7.5	28
41 – 50	6	4.1	5	3.4	11
+ 50	3	2.0	0	0.0	3
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>73.5</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>147</b>

From Table 5.3 it can be detected that there is a higher preference for Extroversion (73.5%) from the sample than Introversion (26.5%) overall. Concerning gender, race and age there is still the same scenario with a preference for Extroversion. The extroverted majority prefer a working environment with more practical experience that offered more contact with the outside world and relationships with others. This is interesting in the private banking environment as it is very customer based, and networking is important.

The introverted minority would prefer to work alone and keep to themselves. They would work effectively in situations where they work independently and are involved with concepts and ideas. They may be perceived as not participating but are usually quieter as they require time to process information first before than can contribute to a situation (Myers et al., 2003).

Table 5.4 Sensing/Intuition and Biographical Data

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Sum of S</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Totals</b>
Female	51	34.7	30	20.4	81
Male	48	32.7	18	12.2	66

<b>Race</b>					
African	19	12.9	10	6.8	29
Coloured	14	9.5	5	3.4	19
Indian	25	17.0	14	9.5	39
White	41	22.9	19	12.9	60

<b>Age Group</b>					
20 – 25	5	3.4	2	1.4	7
26 – 30	30	20.4	13	8.8	43
31 – 35	37	25.2	18	2.2	55
36 – 40	18	12.2	10	6.8	28
41 – 50	6	4.1	5	3.4	11
+ 50	3	2.0	0	0.0	3
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>67.3</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>147</b>

In Table 5.4 the Sensing/Intuition Scale results are presented. The preference for Sensing (67.3) is far higher than the preference for Intuition (32.7%). In terms of gender, race and age group the predominance of the sensing preference is evident. The Sensing/Intuition scale measures to what extent an individual's perception is based on facts and events. Shuck and Phillips (1999) suggest that there are two types of perception, one is becoming aware and the other is gathering of information. They state that individuals with a preference for S establish what is occurring in the immediate moment where as an individual with a preference for N looks at possibilities and relationships. The S preference would mean that individuals prefer a work environment that is systematic and based on attention to detail and facts. A N preference would prefer a work environment that is filled with new possibilities and where they could continually learn new things (Myers et al., 2003).

Table 5.5 Thinking/Feeling and Biographical Data

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Sum of T</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Totals</b>
Female	71	48.3	10	6.8	81
Male	60	40.8	6	4.1	66

<b>Race</b>					
African	27	18.4	2	1.4	29
Coloured	16	10.9	3	2.0	19
Indian	34	23.1	5	3.4	39
White	55	37.4	5	3.4	60

<b>Age</b>					
20 – 25	6	4.1	1	0.7	7
26 – 30	39	26.5	4	2.7	43
31 – 35	48	32.7	7	4.8	55
36 – 40	26	17.7	1	0.7	28
41 – 50	10	6.8	2	1.4	11
+ 50	3	2.0	0	0.0	3
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>89.8</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>147</b>

In Table 5.5 the Thinking/Feeling Scale is presented where the Thinking preference is predominant with 89.8 per cent with a preference for Feeling at only 10.2 per cent. The Thinking/Feeling scale describes how an individual makes decision. From table 5.5 it can be detected that there is no major difference in terms of gender, race or age. According to Shuck and Phillips (1999) study in America, 80 per cent of the general population prefer the T dimension regardless of their gender.

Young and Walters (2002) state that individuals with a preference for T tend to use logic and analysis in their decision making. They are likely to be more objective and impersonal when drawing conclusions. Their decisions are based on facts, evidence and models. Individuals with a higher preference for F, tend to make decisions depending on the impact it will have on others.

Table 5.6 Judging/Perceiving and Biographical Data

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Sum of J</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of P</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Total</b>
Female	59	40.1	22	15.0	81
Male	51	34.7	15	10.2	66

<b>Race</b>					
African	26	17.7	3	2.0	29
Coloured	12	8.2	7	4.8	19
Indian	30	20.4	9	6.1	39
White	42	28.6	18	12.2	60

<b>Age</b>					
20 – 25	5	3.4	2	1.4	7

26 – 30	32	21.8	11	7.5	43
31 – 35	39	26.5	16	10.9	55
36 – 40	22	15.0	6	4.1	28
41 – 50	9	6.1	2	1.4	11
+ 50	3	2.0	0	0.0	3
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>74.8</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>25.2</b>	<b>147</b>

In Table 5.6 the Judging/Perceiving scale according to gender, race and age group is illustrated. A preference for Judging is predominant with 74.8 per cent and with a preference for Perceiving at only 25.2 per cent regardless of gender, race or age group. This scale reflects how individuals orientate themselves with the outer world.

According to Young and Walters (2002) individuals with a higher preference for J are likely to be more organised, prefer schedules and complete tasks before commencing with the next one. An individual that has a preference for P is far more casual, flexible and open-ended.

Table 5.7 MBTI One Symbol MBTI Preference

<b>One Symbol Combination</b>	<b>No. Of cases</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Valid Percentage</b>	<b>Cumulative Percentage</b>
E	108	73.5	73.5	73.5
I	39	26.5	26.5	100
S	99	67.3	67.3	67.3
N	48	32.7	32.7	100
T	132	89.8	89.8	89.8
F	15	10.2	10.2	100
J	110	74.8	74.8	74.8
P	37	25.2	25.2	100

Table 5.7 illustrates the single symbol cases scored in the MBTI among all four scales. The Thinking symbol is dominant, meaning that it is the most

common preference from all the other symbols. The least selected symbol is the Perceiving symbol.

Table 5.8 Two Symbol MBTI Preference

Two Symbol Combination	No. Of cases	Percentage Of sample	Valid Percentage
SJ	83	56.5	56.5
SP	16	10.9	10.9
NF	5	3.4	3.4
NT	37	25.2	25.2

Table 5.8 illustrates the number of two symbol cases in the MBTI that were selected. The most frequently chosen dual symbol is SJ, which is the combination of Sensing and Judging.

### 5.3.2 Motivational Drivers

The Motivational Drivers Survey consists of the following scales (McClelland, 1961):

- Achievement Motivation is the need to achieve a particular standard of performance of excellence or to be the best in a competitive environment.
- Affiliation Motivation is the desire to establish and maintain relations with other individuals.
- Power Motivation is the need to control and influence other individuals as well as to have responsibility over them.

Table 5.9 Frequency Distribution of Motivational driver

Motivational Driver	Number of cases	Per cent	Cumulative Percentage
Achievement	74	50.3	50.3
Affiliation	39	26.6	76.9
Power	34	23.1	100

From Table 5.9 it can be deduced that Achievement is the most dominant motivational driver with 50.3 per cent followed by Affiliation with 26.6 per cent and Power with 23.1 per cent. This illustrates that most employees within the Private Bank are driven by the need to be successful; this is characterised by individuals who set a standard of excellence and are competitive. According to Lawler III (1994) Achievement motivation may not be a constant dominating drive but may increase in situations where the individual is placed in a competitive environment. This can be a useful tool in the work environment, as employees will aim to achieve more than their colleagues and co-workers. This could increase productivity of the business.

The Private banking industry in South Africa is very competitive as there are a limited number of clientele that meet requirements of having a private banker. At this particular private bank one needs to earn more than R1 million per annum to qualify. It may be a possibility that these individuals are drawn to this industry due to the competitive nature, as there is not only intercompany competition but also much internal competition for the most successful banker who brings in new clients, as well as makes the most money.

Table 5.10 Motivational Drivers and Gender

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Sum of Ach</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Aff</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Pow</b>	<b>%</b>
Female	43	29.3	22	15.0	16	10.9
Male	31	21.1	17	11.6	18	12.2
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>50.3</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>23.1</b>

Both males and females scored achievement as a dominant motivational driver, however there is a difference in terms of the second driver which for females was Affiliation, and for males was Power. This may be common in similar research due to the stereotyping of gender roles that is sometimes found in the workplace.

Females may tend to seek companionship and individuals that have a high need for affiliation are more concerned with their relationships at work and with their team members. It is more important to them to successfully co-

operate with each other rather compete against each other (Hodson, 2001).

Table 5.11 Motivational Drivers and Race

<b>Race</b>	<b>Sum of Ach</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Aff</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Pow</b>	<b>%</b>
African	16	10.9	5	3.4	8	5.4
Coloured	9	6.1	6	4.1	4	2.7
Indian	17	11.6	14	9.5	8	5.4
White	32	21.8	14	9.5	14	9.5
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>50.3</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>23.1</b>

In Table 5.11 there is no difference in terms of race and the dominant motivational driver which is Achievement. However the only difference in terms of secondary motivational drivers was with Indians where they expressed Affiliation rather than Power as per the other race groups.

Table 5.12 Motivational Drivers and Age

<b>Age Group</b>	<b>Sum of Ach</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Aff</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Sum of Pow</b>	<b>%</b>
20 – 25	2	1.4	2	1.4	3	2.0
26 – 30	23	15.6	11	7.5	9	6.1
31 – 35	31	21.1	13	8.8	11	7.5
36 – 40	12	8.2	11	7.5	5	3.4
41 – 50	6	4.1	2	1.4	3	2.0
+ 50	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	2.0
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>50.3</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>26.5</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>23.1</b>

From Table 5.12 it can be detected that the older age group, 50 years and older can be grouped in a motivational driver for Power. This also applies to the age group 20 – 25 years; however both samples are far too small to make a concrete deduction.

## 5.4 CORRELATIONS

In order to determine if there is a significant relationship between the scales of

the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers Survey, the Spearman Rho test was utilised. The results are presented below in Tables 5.13 to 5.17.

Table 5.13 Extroversion/Introversion and Motivational Drivers

			Ach	Aff	Pow
Spearman's rho	E	Correlation Coefficient	.183*	-.148	.039
		Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.027</b>	.074	.636
		N	147	147	147
	I	Correlation Coefficient	-.215**	.103	-.036
		Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>.009</b>	.214	.661
		N	147	147	147

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.01$  \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.13 presents the relationship between the preference of the Extroversion/Introversion scale of the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers. This scale measures the preference an individual has for obtaining their source of energy. From the statistical test there is a higher significant negative relationship between Introversion and Achievement at the 1 per cent level and significant positive relationship between Extroversion (5 % Level) and Achievement.

This relationship means that those who are likely to be motivated by Achievement are more likely to be Extroverted than Introverted.

Table 5.14 Sensing/Intuition and Motivational Drivers

			Ach	Aff	Pow
Spearman's rho	S	Correlation Coefficient	-.093	-.001	.048
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.261	.993	.561
		N	147	147	147
	N	Correlation Coefficient	.105	.063	-.132
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.204	.445	.110
		N	147	147	147

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.01$  \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.14 presents the relationship between the preference on the Sensing/Intuition scale of the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers. This scale measures the preference that an individual has when gathering information about a situation, person or event. From the statistical test there are no significant relationships between any of the Motivational Drivers and the Sensing or Intuition scales.

This would mean that there is no difference in terms of how an individual gathers the information around them and how they are motivated.

Table 5.15 Thinking/Feeling and Motivational Drivers

		Ach	Aff	Pow	
Spearman's rho	T	Correlation Coefficient	.088	-.217**	.148
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.290	<b>.008</b>	.074
		N	147	147	147
	F	Correlation Coefficient	-.013	.144	-.105
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.876	.082	.204
		N	147	147	147

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.01$  \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.15 presents the relationship between the preference of the Thinking/Feeling scale of the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers. This scale measures how an individual is more likely to make decisions. From the statistical test there is a significant negative relationship between Thinking and Affiliation at the 1 per cent level.

This relationship means that individuals who make decisions by having a preference for Thinking, are less likely to be motivated by Affiliation. This may be as a result of individuals having the need to be accepted and want the acknowledgement of others and are more unlikely to make decisions that will be unpopular and based on facts and logic. An individual who has a preference for Thinking is likely to make decisions based on the factual implications rather than the impact it may have on others.

Table 5.16 Judging/Perceiving and Motivational Drivers

			Ach	Aff	Pow
Spearman's rho	J	Correlation Coefficient	-.069	.133	-.053
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.408	.108	.527
		N	147	147	147
	P	Correlation Coefficient	.052	-.144	.076
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.531	.082	.362
		N	147	147	147

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.01$  \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.16 presents the relationship between the preference on the Judging/Perceiving scale of the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers. This scale measures the preference that an individual has and how they orientate themselves with the outside world. From the statistical tests there are no significant relationships between any of the Motivational Drivers and the Judging or Perceiving scales.

This would mean that there is no difference in terms of how individuals orientate themselves with the outside world and how they are motivated.

Table 5.17 Two Symbol MBTI and Motivational Drivers

			Ach	Aff	Pow
Spearman's rho	SJ	Correlation Coefficient	-.046	.090	-.024
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.583	.278	.771
		N	147	147	147
	SP	Correlation Coefficient	-.068	-.145	.111
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.415	.081	.180
		N	147	147	147

	NF	Correlation Coefficient	.029	.172*	-.118
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.725	<b>.038</b>	.156
		N	147	147	147
	NT	Correlation Coefficient	.103	-.026	-.063
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.214	.754	.448
		N	147	147	147

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.01$  \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed),  $p < 0.05$

Table 5.17 looks at the relationship between two symbol MBTI scales. These scales are the Temperament Scales. These Temperament Scales can be explained as follows by Myers et. al. (2003); SJ is known as the Guardians, NF is known as the Idealists, SP is known as the Artisans and NT is known as the Rationals.

In Table 5.17 there is only significance between the NF – Idealists and the Motivational driver, Affiliation at the 5 per cent level. The “Idealists” mostly speak of what they hope may be possible for others, and they act in good conscience. They value empathy and meaningful relationships which is why they are more likely to be motivated by Affiliation. They want to make the world a better place and focus on developing the potential of others and finding purpose in life. They are driven and motivated by the need for acceptance and appreciation by others.

## 5.5 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The results presented from the empirical study conclude that in terms of

Personality according to the MBTI, and Motivational Drivers according to the Motivational Drives Survey, that there are certain scales that have a relationship and others that have no significant relationship.

The research hypothesis can be supported, partially supported or not supported based on the table below which presents the relationships of the empirical study.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Extroversion /Introversion and motivational drives.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between Extroversion /Introversion and motivational drives.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drives.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drives.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drives.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drives.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drives.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drives.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drives.

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drives.

Table 5.18 Hypothesis Table

<b>Statistical Test</b>	<b>Hypothesis</b>
There is statistically significant relationship between Extroversion /Introversion and motivational drives.	Supported
There is statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drives.	Not supported
There is statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drives.	Supported
There is statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drives.	Not supported
There is statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drives.	Partially supported

From the above table it can be concluded that a relationship exists between certain scales on the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers, however it is not true for all scales. Three out of the five hypotheses were rejected.

## **5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In Chapter 5 the results from the research project were documented and reported. The biographical information of the sample and the descriptive statistics were presented. The results from the correlation statistical analysis were explained.

The results from the correlation study indicate that a significant relationship exists between a number of personality scales on the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers as identified by McClelland.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **6. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions with regards to the research study, to discuss possible limitations of the study and to provide recommendations for future research that is conducted within a similar field. This research study was formulated in terms of the theoretical and empirical aims. This chapter will integrate the research and draw conclusions in terms of the identified aims.

#### **6.2 CONCLUSION RELATING TO DEFINED AIMS**

The purpose of this study was to investigate, analyse and evaluate whether there is a relationship between personality and motivational drivers and to determine if participants differed in their personality preferences and in how they are motivated.

The following section expands on and integrates the literature review as it relates to both the theoretical as well as the empirical study aims.

##### **6.2.1 Conclusion Relating to Theoretical Aims**

With reference to the literature review for this research the following conclusions can be drawn:

###### *6.2.1.1 Specific Aim 1: Conceptualising Personality*

The first aim of the literature review was to conceptualise personality and personality preferences. A comprehensive literature review was done which entailed incorporating the definition of the term personality and clarification of the terms associated with analytical psychology. A discussion and integration

of the various terms and approaches indicated that “personality” has been defined from diverse views.

Pervin and John (2001) describe personality as the characteristics of an individual that explain the consistent patterns of behaviour, which are described as individual differences. Type theory assumes that preferences are inborn and are all equally valid, they however can be manipulated by family or external pressures (Coetzee, 2005).

According to Coetzee (2005), despite one dominant attitude that each person uses consciously, the mental functions of perception and judgment when observing his or her own world assigns meaning to the experience. According to research by Taylor and Yiannakis (2007) very little research has been done on the MBTI in the South African context prior to 1990. In recent years more studies have been done, however not in terms of the MBTI and motivation. The literature study concluded that in previous research on personality and motivation, personality was measured by the Big Five Factor Model rather than the MBTI (Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009).

It is concluded that there is limited research or literature that covers the development and history of personality type theory. In terms of this, personality was defined in terms of the psychoanalytical paradigm perspective. Among the psychoanalytical theories discussed was Jung’s theory of type which focused on personality structure, dynamics and development. This was then integrated into the purpose of selecting this theory and the implications thereof. This chapter provided the theoretical basis for the analysis and interpretation of the empirical study. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was used as the measurement tool and therefore the principles of the theory, the foundation and development of the assessment tool was explored.

### 6.2.1.2 *Specific Aim 2: Conceptualising Motivation*

The second aim of the literature review was to conceptualise motivation and motivational drivers. The literature review incorporated the clarification of the concepts associated with motivation as well as the integration of various concepts and approaches towards motivation. David McClelland's model of Motivational drivers was discussed in terms of structure, concepts and applications.

Content, Process and Goal theories were discussed in order to provide a holistic literature review on motivation. The Humanistic paradigm perspective was used as the foundation of this literature review. Many studies have been done on motivation from various perspectives, which have been grouped and categorized, however over recent years the focus has been on integrative, comprehensive theories (Klein & Fein, 2005).

Motivational drivers are the factors that energize, direct and sustain behaviour in the individual (Wong, Gardiner, Lang & Coulon, 2008). The various theories and how motivation is defined in each of those theories were explained and discussed.

It can be concluded that the literature review has contributed to the qualitative study in that it has provided the theoretical foundation for the analysis and interpretation of the empirical results. The motivational Drives Survey was based on David McClelland's (1961) motivational drivers theory. The theory was discussed in detail as the foundation for the assessment tool.

### 6.2.1.3 *Specific Aim 3: The Relationship between Personality and Motivation*

The third aspect of the literature review was to determine if a relationship exists between personality and motivation. A number of challenges facing a proposed integration was discussed and it was concluded that despite the fact that both disciplines (personality and motivation) developed within the context of individual differences research, it has been a challenge and sometimes impossible to bring the two concepts together.

Despite this, the chapter presented research on some findings and noted that further research is required as per Furnham (1997), who states that in research done and in literature, it is surprising that so little work has been done on individual differences' correlation with motivation. More so since there is a marked difference in performance and behaviour of individuals at work. It is known that there are individual differences in motivation but there is no theoretically derived and empirically supported construct for work motivation (Klein & Fein, 2005).

Klein and Fein (2005) believed that due to our advanced understanding of personality, further research has been done on the role of personality and how it relates to motivation and task performance. There has been much interest in personality and the combination of motivational theories and around models of self-regulation. Many attempts have been made to link personality to motivational variables using various tools which have provided inconsistent results (Gellatly, 1996).

Seibokaite and Endriulaitiene (2012) reported that there is a link between personality traits and work motivation in their study of professional drivers, using the Big Five Inventory. In terms of research on personality and motivation, the Big Five Inventory model has been more commonly used (Wong et al., 2008)(Furnham, Eraculeous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009)(Vaiman, Lemmergaard & Azevedo, 2011).

It can therefore be concluded that the literature review has contributed to the quantitative study through providing a theoretical foundation for the analysis and interpretation of the empirical study.

## **6.2.2 Conclusion Relation to Empirical Aims**

With reference to the empirical aims for this research the findings for each of the research aims and hypothesis will be presented and the following conclusions can be drawn:

### 6.2.2.1 Specific Aim 1: Personality Types of the Organisation

The first aim of the empirical study was to determine the personality types of the employees of the organisation. The MBTI was used in order to derive a personality type. The results of the personality types of the individuals in the organisation are presented in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1 Results of the Myers-Briggs Type indicator**

MBTI Profile	Number of cases	Per cent
ENFJ	1	0.7%
ENFP	3	2.0%
ENTJ	19	12.9%
ENTP	13	8.8%
ESFJ	5	3.4%
ESFP	1	0.7%
<b>ESTJ</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>38.8%</b>
ESTP	10	6.8%
INFJ	1	0.7%
INTJ	7	4.8%
INTP	4	2.7%
ISFJ	1	0.7%
ISTJ	20	13.6%
ISTP	5	3.4%
<b>Totals</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>100</b>

The result of the assessment measure was discussed in Chapter 5 in detail which illustrates that the ESTJ was the most common personality type.

### 6.2.2.2 Specific Aim 2: Motivational Drivers of the Organisation

The second aim of the empirical study was to determine the motivational drivers of the employees of the organisation. The Motivational Drives Survey was used in order to determine what the most dominant driver is that motivates employees. The results of the personality types of the individuals in the organisation are presented in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2 Results of the Motivational Drivers Survey**

Motivational Driver	Number of cases	Per cent
Achievement	74	50.3
Affiliation	39	26.6
Power	34	23.1

The result of the assessment measure was discussed in Chapter 5 in detail which illustrates that the Achievement was the most common motivational driver.

#### *6.2.2.3 Specific Aim 3: The Relationship between Personality and Motivation*

The empirical research firstly aimed to determine what the personality profiles of the current employees are, what their motivational drivers are in the South African Private Bank and to determine if a relationship exists. The results were presented according to the demographical data and the assessments results obtained. The empirical study progressed to determine if a relationship existed between the personality profiles and the motivational drives as measured by the MBTI and the Motivational Drivers Survey respectively.

In order to determine if a relationship exists, the Spearman rho statistical test was used between a variety of MBTI groups and Motivational drivers:

- Extroversion/Introversion and Motivational Drivers (Achievement, Affiliation and Power) which revealed statistical significance finding.
- Sensing/Intuition and Motivational Drivers (Achievement, Affiliation and Power) which revealed no statistical significance finding;

- Thinking/Feeling and Motivational Drivers (Achievement, Affiliation and Power) which revealed statistical significance finding;
- Judging/Perceiving and Motivational Drivers (Achievement, Affiliation and Power) which revealed no statistical significance finding;
- Temperament Scale and Motivational Drivers (Achievement, Affiliation and Power) which revealed statistical significance finding.

#### 6.2.2.4 *Specific Aim 4: Formulate Recommendations*

The fourth aim of the empirical study is to formulate recommendations for future studies on the relationship between the two concepts (personality and motivation) within the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that the empirical aim of the study to indicate that there is in fact a relationship between certain personality profile constructs and motivational drivers, has been achieved. Even though the research supports the theory that there is in fact a relationship between the two concepts, more research needs to be done using other personality models and motivational drivers.

A recommendation to the Private Bank can be made to utilise the results obtained from individuals' assessment when they are recruited, to understand their personality and motivational drivers in order to manage them more effectively. By looking at the dominant motivational driver they could find initiatives to motivate their employees and also develop meaningful retention strategies.

### **6.2.3 Conclusion Relating to Hypothesis**

The research hypothesis was as follows:

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drives.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and motivational drives.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between Sensing/Intuition and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between Thinking/Feeling and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between Judging/Perceiving and motivational drivers.

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between temperament and motivational drivers.

The Null hypothesis is rejected based on the findings that there is a partial relationship between the MBTI personality profile constructs (Extroversion/Introversion, Thinking/Feeling and Temperament) and the motivational drivers. It can therefore be concluded that there is in fact a relationship between personality measured by the MBTI and motivational drivers measured by the Motivational Drivers Survey.

### **6.3 LIMITATIONS**

The present study has a number of limitations that impact the success of the research, influences the outcomes and thus prompt improvements that future researchers may wish to consider. The limitations are discussed with regards to the literature review as well as the empirical study.

### **6.3.1 Limitations on Literature Review**

Explorative research with respect to personality and motivation within a South African context is currently very limited. This lack of information was limiting in terms of determining the existence of a theoretical relationship.

From a specific view there is even less literature on the relationship between personality type as defined by the MBTI and Motivation as defined by McClelland. Even though there is a fair amount of research on personality type and motivational drivers it is rather limited in its scope. A large portion of literature is based on the MBTI as a measuring style rather than a measuring of personality.

### **6.3.2 Limitations on Empirical Study**

With regards to the empirical study the following limitations were identified for the sample, the measuring instruments and in the ability to generalise the findings of this particular research study.

#### *6.3.2.1 The Sample*

The main limitation of the empirical study can be attributed to the relatively small size of the sample as well as the under-representation of the personality types. A final sample of 147 may have been regarded as large enough to determine whether a relationship exists between the two concepts but may have not been large enough to determine whether there is a definite relationship between the personality and motivational drivers.

The sample constituted of participants from only one organisation and as a result there is no assurance that extraneous variables have not systematically biased the results of the study and reduced the generalisability of the study.

The sample group could have also been constituted of more equitable numbers from all South African race groups as well as age groups, specifically age groups ranging from 50 years and older.

#### 6.3.2.2 *The Measuring Instrument*

The study employed only quantitative psychometric instruments. Single psychometric measures were used to measure personality and motivational drivers. The use of other assessment methodologies could have been used which may have been more useful. There is much written on the limitations of using ipsative measurement and forced choice response styles in the assessment of personality specifically for the purpose of research. Both assessment tools used had ipsative response format which may distort data which in turn causes psychometric shortcomings (Furnham & Stringfield, 1993).

Both assessments are dependent on a degree of self-insight on the part of the respondent. The degree on self-insight and own perception of this particular research sample is obviously unknown, which may have impacted on the reliability of the findings.

The MBTI personality preferences were calculated in a fairly quantitative manner with little focus on the dominant and auxiliary functions. Given the quantitative nature of this study nuances in dominant and auxiliary functions may have been overlooked. According to Grigorenko and Sternberg (1997) one of the weaknesses of using the MBTI is that type preference is categorical, either/or, whereas most personality traits are continuous with individuals possessing either more or less of each trait. The limitation with categorising type is that it suggests a finality of the results. The Motivational Drivers Survey presents the same limitation of categorising an individual into

a definite motivating type.

In terms of interpretation an individual's personality type or motivational driver is often interpreted as either/or and overlooks the slight typology tendencies in different situations. It is further limited by the quantitative nature of the research which fails to take into consideration type combinations.

Despite all the above limitations, the study showed potential for investigations of the relationship between individual personality type preferences and motivational drivers.

### *6.3.2.3 Generalisability*

Although the findings of the current study are restricted by its empirical limitations, in that interpretation can only be limited to the demographic and sectorial confines of the sample population, it has added and reinforced other findings in similar contexts with regard to knowledge on the relationship dynamics between personality preferences and motivational drivers.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In light of the conclusions and limitations, the following recommendations can be made with regards to the future research:

- Future research in the field should be supported by larger sample sizes.
- Future research should be supported by a more representative sample, particularly in terms of ensuring large enough groups to perform statistical calculations along all the various dimensions.
- Similar studies could be conducted over a broader spectrum of organisations to enable more generalisable results.

- Given that there is sufficient research to indicate that certain MBTI types are drawn to certain work environments, the research could be conducted in such a way as to ensure a representative sample of all possible MBTI type profiles. A sample can be selected based on individuals who have already completed the MBTI and where their type is known. They can be requested to complete a Motivational drivers survey to determine the correlation.
- Given that the MBTI is a personality measure and identifies an individual's adapted behaviour in given contexts, additional questionnaires or measurements could be included that determine adapted as well as inherent behaviour. This could ensure that an accurate description of each individual profile would be obtained.
- In terms of a quantitative study, it may be useful to use a personality measurement that could more easily be translated into numerical or quantitative data.
- Further qualitative methods or tools could be incorporated into the study in order to provide a more concrete basis for analysis.
- More studies should be done using different measurement tools and theories to determine the relationship between personality and motivation.
- Further to this, the results of the two assessments when new employees are assessed, are to identify if there is a relationship between the personality profiles and their motivational driver and include it on the individual's overall psychometric assessment report.
- A recommendation to the Private Bank can be made to utilise the results received from an individual's assessment when they are recruited, to understand their personality and motivational drivers in order to manage them more effectively.
- The Private Bank could look at the dominant motivational driver to find

initiatives to motivate their employees as well as develop meaningful retention strategies.

## **6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter discussed the conclusions with regards to the study in terms of both the theoretical and empirical aims. The possible limitations were discussed with reference to both the theoretical and empirical study of the research. This chapter concluded with recommendations for future research to explore the relationship between personality type and motivational drivers.

## REFERENCES

Alderfer, C.P. (1969). *An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs; Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*. Vol 4(2), pp. 142 – 175.

Allport, G. (1937) *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Anastasi, A. & Urbina, S. (1997). *Psychological testing*. (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Arkes, H.R. and Garske, J.P. (1982). *Psychology Theories of Motivation*. Brooks/Cole.

Arnold, J., Cooper, C.L. & Robertson, I.T. (1998). *Work Psychology: Understanding Human Behaviour in the Workplace* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London: Financial Times.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Baggett, C. (2000). *Humanistic practice as a new paradigm: A new energy centre for AHP*. AHP Perspective. Retrieved June 11, 2009 from <http://www.sonoma.edu/psychology/052db/baggett.html>

Barling, J. (1986). Interrole conflict and marital adjustment amongst working fathers. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*, Vol. 7, pp. 1 – 8.

Baron, R. & Bryne, D. (1994). *Social Psychology*, (7<sup>th</sup> ed). Allyn and Bacon, Boston: MA.

Baron, R.A. & Greenberg, J. (2008). *Behavior in organizations* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pearson Education Inc., New Jersey.

Barrick, M.R. & Ryan, A.M. (2003). *Personality and work: Reconsidering the role of personality in organisations*. Pfeiffer: John Wiley and Sons.

Bergh, Z.C. & Theron, A.L. (2003). *Psychology in the work context*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bernstein, W.M. (1995). On integrating cognitive and motivational explanations in psychology. In Oosterwegel, A. & Wicklund, R.A. (eds.), *The Self in European and North American culture: Development and processes* (pp. 159 – 168) Dordrecht: Kluwer.

Boeree, C.G. (2006). *Personality Theories: An Electronic Textbook*. Psychology Department: Shippensburg University.

Bohart, A. C. & Greening, T. (2001) Comment: Humanistic Psychology and Positive Psychology. *American Psychologist*, Vol 56(1) pp. 81-82.

Briggs Myers, I. (1993). *Introduction to Type*. CPP Inc.:CA.

Briggs Myers, I. (1998). *Introduction to Type: a Guide to Understanding your Results on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologist Press: CA.

Buchanan, D.A. & Huczynski, A. (1985). *Organisational Behaviour*. Prentice Hall.

Buchanan, D. (2000). Motivation management. *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol 2, pp. 95 – 96.

Campbell, J. (Ed.)(1988). *The Potable Jung*. Penguin Books.

Campbell, D. & Pritchard, R. 1976. Motivation theory in industrial and organizational psychology. In Dunnette, M.D. (ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. pp. 63-130. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Carroll, R.T. (2004). *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator – The Sceptic's Dictionary*. Retrieved on September 2011 from <http://skepdic.com/myersb.html>.

Carver, C. S. & Scheier, M. F. (2000). *Perspectives on personality* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Cascio, W.F. (1998). *Applied psychology in human resource management*. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Cherrington, D.J. (1994). *Organizational behaviour* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Christensen, L.B.(1997). *Experimental Methodology* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Coetzee, M. (2005). *Career counselling in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: practical techniques for facilitating career competency and resilience*. Unpublished manuscript. Department of Industrial Psychology. Unisa, Pretoria.

Cohen, D. (1977). *Psychologists on psychology*. Taplinger Publishing: New York.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences*. Orlando: Academic Press.

Cyert, R.M. and March, J.G. (1964). A behavioural theory of organizational objectives. In M. Hair (Ed.), *Modern Organization Theory*. New York: Wiley.

Denison, D.R. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A natives point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review*, 21, pp. 610 -654.

Deponte, A. (2004). Linking Motivation to Personality: Causality Orientations, Motives and Self-descriptions. *European Journal of Personality*, Vol 18, pp.

31–44.

Elliot, A.J. & Thrash, T.M. (2002). Approach-Avoidance Motivation in Personality: Approach and Avoidance Temperament and Goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(5), pp. 804 – 818.

Engler, B. (2009). *Personality Theories*. (8<sup>th</sup> Ed). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Publishing Company: Boston.

Ewen, R.B. (1998). *An introduction to theories of personality*. Hillside, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fontana, D. (2000). *Personality in the workplace*. London: MacMillan Press Ltd.

Foxcroft, C. & Roodt, G. (ed.) (2004). *An introduction to psychological assessment in the South African context*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Foxcroft, C. D. & Roodt, G. (2006). *An introduction to psychological assessment in the South African context* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Freud, S. (1923). *The Ego and the Id*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Funder, D.C. (2001). Personality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol 52, pp.197 – 221.

Furnham, A. (1997). *The psychology of behaviour at work: The individual in the organisation*. Hove East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Furnham, A. & Stringfield, P. (1993). Personality and work performance: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator correlates of managerial performance in two cultures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol. 14, pp. 145 – 153.

Furnham, A., Eracleous, A. & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2009). Personality, motivation and job satisfaction: Hertzberg meets the Big Five. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 24(8), pp. 765 -779.

Garland, H. (1984). Relation of effort-performance expectancy to perform in goal-setting experiments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 69(1), 79 – 84.

Garson, J.W. (2006). *Modal Logic for Philosophers*. Cambridge University Press.

Gellatly, I.R. (1996). Conscientiousness and task performance: Test of cognitive process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol 81, pp. 474 – 482.

Gellerman, S.W. (1978). *Motivation and Productivity*. AMACOM: New York.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*, University of Edinburgh Social Sciences Research Centre. Anchor Books edition.

Gliner, J.A. & Morgan, G.A. (2000). *Research Methods in Applied Settings: an integrated approach to design and analysis*. Lawrence Erlbaum associates, Inc.

Green, T.B. (1992). *Performance and Motivation Strategies for Today's Workforce. A guide to Expectancy Theory Applications*. Quorum Books: Westport.

Greenberg, J. (1987). Reaction to procedural injustices in payment distributions: Do the means justify the ends? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72:55-61.

Grigorenko, E.L. & Sternberg, R.J. (1997). Styles of thinking, abilities, and academic performance. *Exceptional Children*, Vol. 63, pp. 295 – 312.

Gulliford, R.A. (1991). The Role of Personality in Assessing Management Potential, *Personnel Review*, Vol. 20(1), pp. 25 – 31.

Hall, C.S.(1954). *A Primer in Freudian Psychology*. Meridian Book.

Hammer, A.L.(1996). *MBTI applications: A decade of research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychological Press.

Hardijzer, C.H. (2000). *The relationship between cognitive styles and personality types*. University of South Africa.

Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the Nature of Man*. World Publishing Company: Chicago.

Hjelle, L.A. (1992). *Current Research and Application in Personality Theories*. McGraw-Hill Inc.: USA.

Hodson, C. (2001). *Psychology and Work*. Routledge: Sussex.

Hogan, R. & Roberts, B.W. (2001). *Personality and industrial and organizational psychology*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.

House, R.J. & Wigdor, L.A. (1967). Herzberg's Dual factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: A review of the evidence and a criticism. *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 20(4), pp. 369 – 390.

Huitt, W. (2001). Motivation to learn: An overview. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University. Retrieved (21/11/2009), from <http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>.

Hyde, J. S. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, 60, pp. 581-592.

IMB (2010) SPSS version 19.

James, L.R. & Mazerolle, M.D. (2002). *Personality in work organizations*. California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Jenson, A.R. (1980). *Bias in Mental Testing*. London: Methuen.

Johnson, J.C.(1990). *Selecting Ethnographic Informants*. California, Sage Publications Inc.

Judge, A.T & Ilies, R.I. (2002). Relationship of Personality to Performance Motivation: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 797 – 807.

Jung, C.G. (1967) in Michael Fordham (Ed.). *The Collected Works of C.G. Jung*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Jung, C.G. (1976). Psychological types. In *Collected works of C.G. Jung, Vol 6*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Kanfer, R. (1990). Motivation theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In Dunnette, M.D. & Houghs, L.M. (eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Vol 1*, pp. 75 – 170. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Kirby, S. (1997). Competing motivations and emergence: explaining implicational hierarchies. *Language Typology, Vol. 1(1)*, pp. 5 – 32.

Klein, H.J. & Fein, E.C. (2005). Goal-propensity: Understanding and Predicting Individual Differences in Motivation. *Personnel and Human Resources Management, Vol. 24*, pp. 215 – 265.

Landy, F.J. & Conte, J.M. (2010). *Work in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: An Introduction to*

*Industrial & Organisational Psychology*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Wiley-Blackwell Publishing: CA.

Lawler III, E.E. (1994). *Motivation in Work Organizations*. Jossey-Bass Inc.: California.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormond, J.E. (2005). *Practical research: Planning and design*. (8<sup>th</sup> ed). Upper Saddle Rivers, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Locke, E.A. (1968). Toward a theory of task motivation and incentives. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, Vol 3, pp.157 – 189.

Locke, E.A. (1991). The motivation sequence, the motivation hub and the motivation core. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, Vol 50, pp. 288 – 299.

Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal-setting and task motivation. *American Psychologist*, Vol 57 (9), 705 – 717.

Maddi, S.R. (1996). *Personality Theories: A comprehensive analysis*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pacific Grove: Brooks Publishing Company.

March, J.G. and Simon, H.A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.

Martin, C. (1997). *Looking at Type: The Fundamentals*. Centre for Application of Psychological Type: USA.

Martin, J. (1998). *Organizational Behaviour*. International Thompson: London.

Martin, D.W. (2008). *Doing psychology experiments* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA:

Thomson Wadsworth.

Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper

Mayer, F.S. & Sutton, K. (1996). *Personality: An integrative approach*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mayer, J.D. (1998). A systems framework for the field of personality. *Psychological Inquiry, Vol 9, pp. 118 – 144*.

Meyer, W.F., Moore, C. & Viljoen, F.C. (1992). *Personality Theories: From Freud to Frankl*. Johannesburg: Lexicon Publishers.

McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.A., & Lowell, E.L. (1953). *The achievement motive*. Appleton Century Croft: New York.

McClelland, D.C. (1961). *The achieving society*. Princeton, Van Nostrand: New Jersey.

McClelland, D.C. (1975). *Power: The inner experience*. Irvington: New York.

Moller, A.T. (1995). *Perspectives on Personality*. Johannesburg: Butterworths.

Montana, P.J. & Charnov, B.H. (2008). *Management*. (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Barron's Educational Series Inc.

Mouton, J. and Marais, H.C.(1994)(eds.). *Knowledge and Method in the Human Sciences*. Pretoria: HRSC.

Mouton, J. (2008) *How to Succeed in your Master's & Doctoral Studies. A South African Guide and Resource Book*. Van Schaik Publishers:Pretoria.

Mowen, J.C. (2000). *The 3M Model of Motivation and Personality: Theory and*

*Empirical Applications to Consumer Behaviour*. Kluwer Academic Press.

Mowen, J.C., Park, S. & Zablah, A. (2007). Toward a theory of motivation and personality with application to word-of-mouth communications. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol 60, pp. 590 – 596.

Muchinsky, P. M. (1993) *Psychology Applied to Work*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/ Cole.

Murray, J.B. (1990). Review of research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. *Perceptual and motor Skills*, Vol.70, pp. 1187 – 1202.

Myers, I.B & McCaulley, M.H. (1985, 1990). *Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, I.B & McCaulley, M.H., Quenk, N.L., & Hammer, A.L. (1998). *Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Neuman, W. (2000). *Social Research Methods*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed). Needham Heights, MA: Pearson Education Company.

Pervin, L.A & John, O.P. (2001). *Personality: Theory and Research*, (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). John Wiley & Sons Inc: New York.

Peterson, C. (1992). *Personality*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.:USA.

Quenk, N.L. (1996). *Beside ourselves: Our hidden personality in everyday life*. Palo Alto, CA: CPP Inc.

Revelle, W. (1995). Personality processes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol 46, pp. 295 – 328.

Robbins, S.R. (1998). *Organisational Behaviour: Concepts, controversies and applications*. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.

Robbins, S.R. & Judge, T.A. (2009) *Organizational Behaviour* (13<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.

Robbins, S.R., Judge, T.A., Odendaal, A. & Roodt, G. (2009). *Organisational Behaviour: Global and South African Perspectives*. Prentice hall: Cape Town.

Robertson, I.T., Smith, M. & Cooper, D. (1992). *Motivation: Strategies, theory and practice*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cromwell Press: London.

Rollinson, D., Broadfield, A. & Edwards, D.J. (1998). *Organisational behaviour and analysis: an integrated approach*. (1<sup>st</sup> ed.). USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Rothbart, M.K. (2004). Temperament and the pursuit of an integrated developmental psychology. *Palmer Quarterly*, 50(4), pp.492 – 506.

Saville, P., Cramp, L. & Henley, S. (1994). *Occupational Personality Questionnaires manual*. Esher, Surrey: Saville & Holdsworth.

Schachter, S. (1959). *The Psychology of Affiliation*. Stanford University Press: California.

Schneider, B. (1990). *Organizational culture and climate*. San Francisco: Josey Bass.

Schermerhorn, J.R., Hunt, J. & Osborn, R. (2000). *Managing Organizational Behavior*. John Wiley & sons: New York.

Schuck, A.A. & Phillips, C.R. (1999). Assessing pharmacy students learning style and personality types: A ten year analysis. *American Journal of*

*Pharmacy Education, Vol 63, pp. 27 – 33.*

Schultz, D. and Schultz, S.E. (1998). *Theories of Personality*. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company: USA.

Seibokaite, L. & Endriulaitiene, A. (2012). The role of personality traits, work motivation and organizational safety climate in risky occupational performance of professional drivers. *Baltic Journal of Management, Vol. 7(1), pp. 103 – 118.*

Seijts, G. H. (2001). Setting goals: When performance doesn't matter. *Ivey Business Journal, January/February*. Ivey Business Management: Toronto.

Sherman, M. (1979). *Personality: Inquiry and Application*. Pergamon Press Inc.: New York.

Sigmund, F. (1923). *The Ego and the Id*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Southwell, E.A. and Merbaum, M. (1971)(eds.). *Personality: Readings in Theory and Research. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition*. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company: California.

Singer, J.L. (1984). *The Human Personality*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc: USA.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. (1992). *Management principles*. Kenwyn: Juta & Co, Ltd.

Stahl, M.J. (1986). *Managerial and Technical Motivation: Assessing Needs for Achievement, Power and Affiliation*. Praeger Publishers: New York.

Stevens, A. (2001). *Jung: A very short introduction*. London: Oxford University Press.

Taylor, N. & Yiannakis, C. (2007). South African MBTI Form M Data Supplement. Jopie van Rooyen & Partners SA (Pty) Ltd.

Theron, A. (2003). Perspectives on general and work behavior. In Z.C. Bergh & A.L. Theron (eds.) *Psychology in the working context*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed. pp. 3 – 15). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Tredoux, C. & Durheim, K. (2002). *Numbers, hypotheses and conclusions: a course in statistics for the social sciences*. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Vaiman, V., Lemmergaard, J. & Azevedo (2011). Contingent workers: needs, personality characteristics, and work motivation. *Team Performance Management*, Vol. 17(5), pp. 311 – 324.

Van der Merwe, P.J. & Van der Merwe, L. (1999). *An Annual Report summarising research conducted amongst South African companies*. Manspec (Pty) Ltd.

Van Rooyen, J. (2008). *MBTI Qualifying Training Manual*. CPP Inc.

Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.

Wahba, M.A. & Bridwell, L.G. (1976). Maslow reconsidered: a review of research on the need hierarchy theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 15 pp. 212 – 240.

Wanous, J.P. & Zwany, A. (1977). *A Cross-Sectional Test of the Need Hierarchy Theory: Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*. In *Understanding Management* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Mason: Thomson.

Weiten, W. (1992). *Psychology: Themes and variations*. (7<sup>th</sup> ed). London: Brooks Cole.

White, M.D. & Marsh, E.E. (2006). *Content Analysis: a Flexible methodology*.

*Library trends*, Vol. 55, pp. 22 – 45.

Wilkinson, L. (1999). *Statistical Methods in Psychology Journals*. *American Psychologist*, Vol. 54(8), pp. 594 – 604.

Williams, J.C. (1998). Motivation: The value of work ethic. *Baylor Business Review*, Vol 16(1), 3 – 7.

Williams, T.A., Sweeney, D.J. and Anderson, D.R. (2009). *Contemporary Business Statistics with Custom Selections*. C&C Offset Printing: China.

Winter, D.G. (1998). The Contributions of David McClelland to Personality Assessment. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 71(2), pp. 129 – 145.

Wolman, B.B. (1992). *Personality Dynamics*. Plenum Press: New York.

Wong, M., Gardiner, E., Lang, W. & Coulon, L. (2008). Generational differences in personality and motivation: Do they exist and what are the implications for the workplace? *Journal of managerial Psychology* Vol. 23(8), pp. 878 – 890.

Wrightsman, L.S. (1977). *Social psychology*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Monterey: Brooks/Cole.

Yearta, S.K., Maitlis, S. & Briner, R.B. (1995). An exploratory study in theory and practice: A motivational technique that works? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 68(3), pp. 237 – 252.

Young, A.J. and Walters, J.L. 2002. Relationship between DHI production values and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator as a measure of management ability. *J. Dairy Sci.* 87(8):2046-2052.

Zimmerman, B.J. (2000). Attaining Self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In Boekaerts, M. & Pintrich, P.R. (eds). *Handbook of Self-*

*regulation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.