Individual Differences and Work Performance

Only study guide for
IOP2606

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IMPORTANT INFORMATION

Please register on myUnisa, activate your myLife e-mail address and ensure that you have regular access to the myUnisa module site IOP2606, depending on which semester you are registered for, as well as your group site.

Note: This is an **online module**; therefore your module is available on myUnisa. However, in order to support you with your studies, you will also receive certain study material in print format.

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Dear Student

Note: This document will provide you with information about myUnisa, the official learning management system of the university. If at all possible, we would like to encourage you to set up your myLife account at https://myunisa.ac.za/portal and join the online learning environment as soon as possible.

GETTING STARTED LETTER

*Welcome to the module on **Individual Differences and Work Performance** (IOP2606).*

We trust that you will find this module interesting, meaningful and rewarding, and that it will be of practical value in your work situation too.

Please remember that IOP2606 is a semester module. You will write your examination in May/June if you are registered for the first semester and in October/November if you are registered for the second semester. So do not waste any time: start studying as soon as possible.

USING THE NAVIGATION BAR AND myUNISA OPTIONS

You can use various options to navigate the sites of the modules you have enrolled for. These options are displayed on the left-hand side of the screen of all the sites. Click on the specific navigation option, and it will open the page containing the information you are looking for. The first page you will see when opening any site is the home page.

EXAMPLE 2: Home page of a module site

Remember, from the IOP2606 home page, we are just a click away! We will follow a weekly schedule indicating what needs to be done for a specific week and thus the home page will be updated regularly.

The following is an alphabetical list and accompanying explanation of other myUnisa options that we will use for this module:

myUnisa options	Explanation
Additional Resources	This option allows you to access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.
Announcements	From time to time an announcement will alert you to important information. You will sometimes also receive an e-mail notification in this regard. In addition, the most recent announcements will be displayed on the home page.
Assignments	This option allows you to submit assignments and monitor your assessment results. We will provide clear guidelines on the submission of assignments.
Blogs	The **Blogs** option is used mostly for reflective activities. In the case of this module, marks might be assigned and awarded for blog activities. Should you require assistance in setting up your blog, go to the navigation bar of your module site, select **FAQs** and under the category **Technical issues** you will find directions to help you.
Discussions/Discussion Forums	This option is used mainly for interactive discussions and activities relating to the various topics and themes associated with the field of individual differences and work performance. The forums and learning activities are created to assist and support you in mastering the learning outcomes. Participating in the discussions will also help you to be better prepared for the assignments. The module site contains a variety of discussion forums. There are forums where you can meet and chat with your fellow students (**Forum 1: Student Lounge**) and ask us questions (**Forum 2: Queries to my lecturer**). In some instances, your participation in the discussion forums will be assessed and the mark awarded will form part of your year mark. However, this will be clearly indicated to you. In **Forum 1: Student Lounge** you will be able to create your own discussions should you wish to do so. To find out more about how to do this, consult the category **Technical issues** under **FAQs** ("frequently asked questions").

FAQs (frequently asked questions)	The **FAQs** option provides questions and answers relating to the module. These are grouped in various categories ranging from assessment matters to technical issues. If you have any queries about the module, start by consulting the FAQs. Should you not find an answer to your question, you are most welcome to contact us.
Glossary	The **Glossary** option allows you to access an alphabetical list of terms/terminology, usually specialised terms and their definitions, which are related to the field of individual differences and work performance. In print format, glossaries usually appear at the end of a book or sometimes at the end of chapters. By selecting **Glossary**, you can easily access such a list of specialised terms and the accompanying explanations if you do not understand the meaning of the word or concept used in this discipline.
Official Study Material	This option allows you to access and download the official study material such as the tutorial letters.
Prescribed Books	This option is used in all the modules to display the prescribed books for the module. However, for this module there is no prescribed book.
Schedule	This option displays the dates of the compulsory assignments and examinations. The calendar on the home page will also display all the dates of the various learning activities captured in the schedule. To access the information on scheduled events, click on the date in the calendar (which will be highlighted and underlined if activities are scheduled for that day), or click on **Schedule** in the navigation bar, which gives you the option to view the calendar by week, month or year. You can also use **Schedule** to help you plan and manage your time so that you can keep up with the various learning activities for this module. Note that you will not be able to add or change schedule entries.
Self-assessment	This option allows you to access a variety of self-assessment activities related to the outcomes and various parts of the module. Some of the self-assessments will allow you to test your knowledge about a specific theme or topic presented under **Learning Units**. You will receive immediate feedback on these self-assessments. The assessments that will be marked and that count towards your year mark will be clearly indicated.

PLANNING AND MANAGING YOUR TIME

Attempting to balance study, work, family life and extracurricular activities is a challenge requiring you to manage ever-increasing and competing demands. You therefore need to plan an appropriate schedule that will suit your individual needs and circumstances. Apart from the suggested study timetable (which you can access by selecting **Tutorial Letter IOP2606/101** and the due dates for assignments (which you can access by clicking on **Schedule**), we do not prescribe a study timetable. However, here are some recommendations. Given the time constraints, you may want to follow some of them.

Browse through the module site	Take time to browse through the module site and familiarise yourself with the requirements and demands of the module. This will enable you to see the bigger picture of the whole module. **FAQs** (on the navigation bar of the module site) is a valuable resource and could be a useful starting point. Evaluate the demands, opportunities and challenges of your personal circumstances and determine how they relate to the assignment due dates and the other relevant learning activities you need to attend to. It may be a good idea to enter these dates in your personal diary immediately.
Compile a personal study timetable	Decide on strategies for planning ahead and compile your personal study timetable. We recommend being disciplined in keeping to your schedule. Perhaps you could start with some preliminary reading and exploring the recommended material. The amount of information presented on the module site and the number of assignments to be completed may seem overwhelming at first, but don't be disheartened!
Approach your studies systematically	Work your way systematically through the various learning activities, reflective questions and assignments based on them. Make sure that you meet all the requirements for the learning activities. Use the learning outcomes and assessment criteria, the supporting material and learning activities (stipulated under **Learning Units**) to give you a foundation for the knowledge and skills you need to develop. To help you approach your studies with confidence, you may find it helpful to start by browsing through the module site and to acquaint yourself with the learning outcomes and assessment criteria, the additional resources, the study guide and learning units. The learning units are designed and developed in the form of manageable "chunks" to help you achieve the learning outcomes logically and systematically.
Contact your lecturers	Do not hesitate to contact us if you experience any difficulties with any aspects of the module. You can contact us either via e-mail, telephone or the **Discussions** option. Our contact details are available on the home page of the module site. Remember, help is just a click away.

Contact your peers	Please make regular contact with your peers (via the Student Lounge and other forums accessible by means of **Discussions**). Engage with your fellow students to clarify and broaden your understanding of challenging concepts and themes. You will find that by participating in discussions and continuously reflecting on your learning, you will expand your knowledge base and develop new skills that you can apply in the workplace. Most students find these discussions with their lecturers or fellow students extremely useful when preparing their assignments.

PARTICIPATING IN THE ONLINE COMMUNITY

If you have taken online courses before, you may well be familiar with how to participate in online environments. However, if this is the first time you are taking an online course, you may be interested in how to go about communicating in cyberspace. An important issue of online communities is how people relate to each other. As you may know, the internet – cyberspace – has its own culture and accompanying conventions for e-mails, social networks and more formal online environments such as myUnisa, our educational learning management system.

When communicating electronically, people often forget that the person on the receiving end is someone with feelings, facial expressions, gestures and a unique tone of voice. Without being able to observe these communication cues it is quite possible to misinterpret participants' meaning – in the case of online communication, meaning is usually conveyed by written words only. Because online communication tends to be less personal, it would be a good idea to familiarise yourself with guidelines on netiquette under additional resources on the IOP2606 module site on myUnisa). These guidelines will give you useful information about participating in online discussions, such as how to address one another and making sure that you "know what you're talking about and make sense" (see rule 5).

Note that when participating in the online discussions, we strongly recommend that you direct your responses to us and your fellow students by **addressing us/them** at the opening of your response. Also, when you end your contribution, **sign off by using your name** (or title and surname). This will serve as an indication of how you would like us and your fellow students to address you.

We urge you to make an effort and commit to following these guidelines to ensure that your communication and actions online are respectful.

Now, to get started, please access *Forum 1: Student Lounge* and **introduce yourselves** to each other (**Discussion 1**).

CLOSING REMARKS

Familiarise yourself with the online environment before the module starts in January and July of each year.

We look forward to witnessing your progress at a personal and professional level during the year.

It is a pleasure having you as a student, and we would like to take this opportunity to wish you every success with your studies.

Your lecturers

LEARNING ONLINE ON myUNISA

Welcome message on the home page

Welcome to the module *Individual Differences and Work Performance* (**IOP2606**). We hope that you will find it interesting, meaningful and enriching.

Don't hesitate to contact your lecturers by means of *Discussion Forum 2: Queries to my lecturer*, on the module site, via e-mail or by paying us a visit at our offices on the Muckleneuk campus in Pretoria. Should you wish to visit us on campus, please remember to make an appointment beforehand (office hours: 08:00–16:00).

The module will enable you to develop a solid knowledge base and sound understanding of the theory of individual differences and its practical implications for work performance. It also touches on the improvement of employee productivity and organisational effectiveness.

Organisations cannot be functional without the individual and collective characteristics and contributions of their employees. You should be able to recognise and understand the differences between people. You need to develop and use these differences to enable individuals and groups to function optimally in the workplace. This means that they are helped to reach their full potential and meet the employer's expectations. This broad outcome or competency is essentially what industrial psychologists are trained to do.

It is not surprising that the psychology and knowledge of personality and individual differences are used mostly in **psychological assessment**. Most psychological tests and other psychological assessment techniques, also in the work context, are developed and used to measure personality attributes and their relationship with and influence on specific work behaviours. Examples are measures of personality traits, abilities (intelligence and aptitudes), values, interests, attitudes,

motivation and emotions, ways of coping and decision-making and learning styles. In this module we will discuss many concepts and research findings relating to assessment and assessment results.

Apart from the hard copy, there is also an electronic version available under **Additional Resources** on myUnisa. Please familiarise yourself with our module site.

Visit the module site regularly to keep up to date with all the learning activities.

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS (FAQS)

CATEGORY	QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS
Tutorial letters	**Question 1: What information do the tutorial letters contain?**
	Answer:
	The tutorial letters contain important information about the scheme of work, resources and assignments for this module. We urge you to read them carefully and to keep them at hand when working through the study material, preparing the assignments, preparing for the examination and addressing questions to us.
	More specifically, in Tutorial Letter **IOP2606/101**, you will find the assignments and assessment criteria as well as instructions on the preparation and submission of the assignments. This tutorial letter also provides all the information you need with regard to the study material, other resources and how to obtain these.
	Tutorial Letter **IOP2606/201** contains feedback on Assignment 01; Tutorial Letter **IOPALLA/301**contains important information which applies to **all students** registered with the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.
	Right from the start we would like to point out that you **must read all the tutorial letters** you receive during the semester, as they always contain important and, sometimes, urgent information.
	Please make sure that you work through the tutorial letters **before** you embark on any work in the study guide or assessment tasks.
	Question 2: Will I receive all my tutorial material when I register?
	Answer:
	Note that **not** all of your tutorial matter may be available when you register.
	Tutorial matter that is not available when you register will be posted to you as soon as possible.
	Note: It is not possible to fax outstanding tutorial letters to students. However, you can download them from the module site under **Official Study Material** and **Additional Resources**.
	It is therefore to your benefit to register as an online student so that you can access and obtain your study material immediately.

Student support services	**Question 1: Whom should I contact regarding administrative queries?**
	Answer:
	All administrative enquiries in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology should be directed to the departmental helpdesk:
	E-mail address: DeptIOP@unisa.ac.za
	Tel: +27 (0)12 429 8033 or +27 (0)12 429 8054
	Question 2: Whom should I contact regarding academic queries?
	Answer:
	All queries about the **content** of this module (IOP2606) should be directed to us, your lecturers.
	Telephone calls should be made during office hours (08:00–16:00). Lengthy problems should rather be dealt with by e-mail.
	You are welcome to visit us at our offices on the Muckleneuk campus, but please make sure that you have made an appointment beforehand. Appointments should be made **at least three days in advance.** We cannot guarantee that we will be able to attend to you if you arrive at the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology without an appointment.
	Our contact details are in the Tutorial letter IOP2606/101.
	Question 3: What support can I expect from my lecturers?
	Answer:
	We will use the home page to post regular messages to guide you through the semester. Furthermore, you will receive regular announcements to draw your attention to important learning events and assessment tasks. We have also prepared supporting learning resources and various discussion forums and topics which you will be able to access through myUnisa. You can thus expect regular communication from us. Remember, help is just a click away.
	Question 4: What resources will I be able to access via myUnisa?
	Answer:
	We realise that, as a distance education student, you cannot always visit the **library** when you are searching for information. Therefore, we have included online resources on our module site which you can access at any time.
	On this site, you will find the following material:
	• Tutorial letters (under **Official Study Material**) • a direct link to the Unisa library (from the menu bar on the left of your module site) • summaries of discussion forums (in the relevant forums)

	Note: There are no prescribed books or books reserved via the e-reserves system.
	Question 5: What other support services are available regarding general student matters?
	Answer:
	If you need to contact the university about matters not related to the content of this module, consult the publication *Study @ Unisa,* which you received with your study material. This booklet contains information on how to contact the university (e.g. to whom you can write for different queries, important telephone and fax numbers, addresses and details of the times certain facilities are open).
	Always provide your **name, student number** and **module code** when you contact the university.
	Question 6: Are there any study groups for this module?
	Answer:
	There are no official study groups for this module. However, we strongly recommend that you form your own study groups with fellow students living in your area.
	To form study groups, you can share your contact details with your fellow students in the **Student Lounge** forum in **Topic 2: Fellow student contact detail.** Contact students who live near to you and invite them to form a study group.
	Question 7: I am disabled – what support is there for me?
	Answer:
	Contact the Advocacy and Resource Centre for Students with Disabilities (ARCAWid).
	E-mail address: zmgolomb@unisa.ac.za
	Tel: +27 (0)12 429 3829 or fax +27 (0)12 429 6729
Assignments	**Question 1: How do we submit our assignments?**
	Answer:
	Refer to Tutorial Letter 101. You can submit your assignments electronically via myUnisa, your regional office or by registered mail.
	YOU CANNOT E-MAIL YOUR ASSIGNMENT TO US!
	It is highly recommended that you submit your assignment online via myUnisa. The system can then capture it.

	Question 2: What are the assignment due dates?
	Answer: See your Tutorial letter IOP2606/101
	Question 3: Will I be penalised if I submit my assignment late?
	Answer:
	Yes, no late submissions will be accepted!
Exams	**Question 1: Any tips for the exam?**
	Answer:
	No! You have to study all the prescribed material – the questions asked in the exam will come from the Study Guide.
	Remember to study regularly before the examination. If you do not follow the suggested study plan in Tutorial Letter 101, draw up your own time schedule in which you spread your work out over approximately 15 weeks from registration to the examination, and work consistently according to the schedule.
	Note: DO NOT focus in your exam preparation on available examination papers alone. You have to study the sections in the prescribed Study guide to obtain more complete knowledge and insight which will enable you to answer any question.
	Question 2: Are there any past exam papers?
	Answer:
	Previous examination papers are available to students on myUnisa. It would, however, be a very big mistake to focus on these previous papers for exam preparation only, as we change the questions for every semester. According to Unisa policy, we are not allowed to make the memorandums of the papers available to students, so please do not ask us for any examination memoranda. The papers are available so that you can see how we formulate questions and what we expect of you.
	Question 3: What is the format of the exam?
	Answer: See your Tutorial letter IOP2606/101
Online learning	**Question 1: Is it easier to learn online than through print-based material?**
	Answer:
	No. The course content of an online class is usually identical to that of a print-based distance learning course on the same topic. Compared to regular face-to-face classes, some people think the workload is even more demanding because you have to be a **self-directed** learner and **stay motivated** to keep on top of your work.

The most successful online students tend to share the following characteristics:

- They are self-motivated and are self-starters.
- They have good organisational and time management skills.
- They are fairly familiar with computers and the internet.
- They are resourceful and actively seek answers and solutions to questions and problems.

Question 2: What are the benefits of learning online?

Answer:

In the online world you can study *any time*, *anywhere* and at a *pace* that suits your individual learning style. Remember, though, that you will still have to meet the required deadlines for assignment submissions.

Question 3: What internet skills would be useful for online learning?

Answer:

The most successful students tend to have the following skills:

- familiarity with their web browser
- familiarity with an e-mail program (including attaching documents and reading attachments)
- some familiarity with web-based interactions – e-mail, social networks, learning management systems
- familiarity with word processing (MSWord)
- experience in successful internet searches, using a variety of browsers and search engines

Question 4: How important is attitude to achieve success in my studies and in an online learning environment?

Answer:

Your attitude is very important to ensure success. We know that you are interested in individual differences and work performance otherwise you would not have enrolled for this module. We want to encourage you to develop a **positive attitude** towards your studies and online learning environment. To achieve this, there are a number of things to bear in mind.

TIME is important for a distance education student. You must be in control of your time and manage it effectively. Draw up a study programme at the beginning of the semester. This requires discipline, but will ensure that you

- have sufficient time to work through all the relevant study material
- are able to submit the relevant tasks and assignments on the due dates
- have sufficient time for revision and preparing for the assignments and examination

We would like to encourage you to follow these guidelines:

- Do NOT fall behind in your planning.

14	• Work regularly and consistently. • Make sure that you understand the work as you go along. • Do NOT give up on difficult work; rather seek help as soon as possible. The Directorate for Counselling and Career Development can be accessed at http://www.unisa.ac.za/default.asp?Cmd=ViewContent&ContentID=96773 on the Unisa website or at counselling@unisa.ac.za for further information on how to manage your studies. We hope that this information will make your studies easier, and that you will do well. **Question 5: How should I approach my online learning?** **Answer:** We all have different learning styles and preferences. However, consider the following pointers/guidelines: • Allocate enough time to work through each learning unit and do the activities. • Allow extra time for work which seems difficult or with which you know you have a problem. • When you compile a study plan, allow time for personal responsibilities (e.g. family responsibilities, work obligations, social obligations, leave). • Make use of your most productive time for study (e.g. late evening after the children have gone to bed or early morning before the rest of the family wake up). • Remember that it is more effective to study for one hour on a regular basis (e.g. every day) than for ten consecutive hours every two weeks. Decide now how many hours you are going to spend on your studies per week. We recommend that you put one to two hours aside each day. • Keep a record of your progress. It will be gratifying to see what you have accomplished, and it will inspire you if you fall behind. Be prepared for disruptions to your study programme owing to unforeseen circumstances. You should therefore monitor your progress so that you can catch up immediately if you fall behind. Remember that it is easier to catch up one week's lost hours than the lost hours of an entire month.
Technical issues related to myUnisa	**Question 1: How do I create a new topic, using Discussion Forum?** **Answer:** To create a new topic in a forum, you need to do the following: 1. Select and access the **Student Lounge** forum from the list of forums under **Discussion Forums**. 2. Now, at the top of the page select **Add a New Topic**. 3. Give your topic a **descriptive name** in the **Topic Title** box. 4. In the **Message** box, write down the instructions for the discussion. 5. Click on the **Submit** button to create your topic for discussion.

Question 2: What is expected of me when I participate in discussion forums?

Answer:

Remember, online discussion forums are not the same as e-mail messages, or a letter to the lecturer, or a chat room. Therefore, the myUnisa discussion forums must not be used for personal messages to us or to one another. You are, however, welcome to use the forum marked **Student Lounge** to introduce yourself to your fellow students, to form study groups and to create your own topics.

In this module we will be using the online discussion forum for **academic** purposes. For this reason, the discussions will be based on topics related to module outcomes, the assessments and the supporting content.

Online discussion forums are more like class discussions in a face-to-face classroom, where the lecturer raises discussion points and asks questions. All the students can then respond to the lecturer's questions as well as to one another's responses. The lecturer can then clarify uncertainties and perhaps provide a summary at the end of a discussion.

Participating in discussion forums provides you with opportunities to

- discuss and clarify issues in the subject area
- share experiences and ideas with peers and lecturers
- solve problems collaboratively
- debate topical issues
- raise questions about the topic under discussion
- introduce the most recent developments in the subject area
- receive immediate feedback on assignments
- have access to additional resources related to relevant topics in this subject/discipline

Question 3: How do I set up my own blog?

Answer:

The **Blogs** option is a useful way of sharing your views and thoughts on this module with your fellow students. What we would like you to do is to create your own blog on this site and to use it as a place where you reflect on your progress in this module. You can also read and write comments on your fellow students' blogs, as long as they are positive and uplifting!

To get your own blog started, follow these instructions:

1. Go to **Blogs**.
2. Click on **Add blog entry** at the top to start your blog.
3. Give your blog entry a title.

   - You could use something like *"Reflections on my learning experience in this module".* This is just an example of a title.
   - Your name will automatically show next to this blog entry.

4. Then type your message inside the text box provided.
5. After the text box, you are asked to "choose who can see this entry".

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6. The default setting of the blog is ticked: **This entry is publicly viewable**.

- You should NOT change this, because this is the only way that anyone can read your reflections and leave comments.
- If you have not quite finished, you can click on the **Save Draft** button. No one else will be able to read your blog until you click on **Publish entry**. (**Note**: If you save a draft, you need to click on **This entry is publicly viewable** when you have finished and want to publish.)

7. If you want to add a comment to someone's blog, just click on the link **Leave a comment** at the bottom of the blog you are reading.

You can add links, bullets, lists and colour, and so forth, by using the editing buttons. You can also go back, delete and edit your blogs. You can create new blogs on different topics under your name by just clicking on **Add blog entry** again.

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HOW TO ACCESS YOUR E-TUTORS

The tutorial support programme (TSDL) is an additional programme or support provided by the TSDL department. Please note that these classes are not presented by lecturers. Consult Tutorial letter IOP2606/101 on how the E-Tutoring system works.

THE DISCUSSION FORUMS AND LEARNING UNIT DISCUSSIONS

In **Discussion Forums** on myUnisa, forums have been created to provide feedback to you on the various activities in the learning units.

The table that follows indicates the various forums created for students to interact with one another and their lecturing team. The forums are also divided per learning unit and the topics under discussion. For detailed feedback on activities, we encourage you to open discussions in the navigation bar – open the relevant learning unit forum – click on the relevant activity – read the detailed feedback. To comment on the feedback you can click on **Reply** at the bottom of the page and post your views by clicking on **Publish** at the bottom of the page or **Cancel** if you do not wish to post.

The feedback discussions may also bring certain important points to your attention with which you can compare your own findings and learning experiences with other students. We encourage you to share your learning experiences on the forum. You will have access to the various links in this section on your IOP2606 Module site on MyUnisa under Additional Resources -_Web links. Any change to these links will be communicated to you by your lecturers on the MyUnisa platform.

Forums	Topics
Forum 1: Student Lounge *Use this forum to discuss general matters among yourselves*	***Discussion 1: Introduce yourself*** Dear Student Use this forum to get to know your fellow students. Tell each other about your current work situation, professional background and anything else you would like to share (± 250 words). ***Discussion 2: Queries to lecturers*** Dear Students Use this forum to discuss any course-related content with us.
Forum 2: Assignment 01 queries *Use this forum to discuss Assignment 01*	***Discussion 1: Assignment 01 queries*** Dear Students Use this space to share your questions regarding Assignment 01.
Forum 3: Assignment 02 queries *Use this forum to discuss Assignment 02*	***Discussion 1: Assignment 02 queries*** Dear Students Use this space to share your questions regarding Assignment 02 with fellow students.

Forum 4: Examination queries *Use this forum to discuss the examination*	*Discussion 1: Examination queries* Dear Students Use this space to share your questions regarding the examination preparation with fellow students.
Forum 5: ENRICH YOUR LEARNING LU 1 *Use this forum to discuss this non-compulsory activity*	1. Instructions: For your own development you may want to take the online learning style quiz to find out what type of learner you are http://vark-learn.com/the-vark-questionnaire/?p=questionnaire 2. Instruction: Take the big five test at http://www.outofservice.com/bigfive/ How do you think the big five personality test could help you identify your personality factors that impact on your work performance? **FEEDBACK** This is a non-compulsory exercise which is individualised. Reflect on what you may have learnt and discuss your findings with your peers on this forum.
Forum 6: Activity 1 LU 2 Biographical/case study research	Instructions: Open the link and consider in which variation of biographical/case study research approach you think "10 lessons from the richest black South African – Patrice Motsepe" falls. http://buzzsouthafrica.com/richest-black-south-african-patrice-motsepe/ **FEEDBACK** It could be argued that the research approach in the article is impressionistic versus scholarly. This means that successful entrepreneurs are often profiled in a vague, romantic and subjective way, while other criteria could be more concrete and objective in referring to specific successful behaviours and outcomes. *If you disagree with the statement, please start a discussion with your peers and with us on this forum.*

Forum 7: ENRICH YOUR LEARNING LU 2 **Research question** *Use this forum to discuss this non-compulsory activity*	Now that you have completed learning unit 2, you are familiar with work-related personality research. Do you have a burning research question in your mind that you would like to research? If so, write down your research question based on what you have just learnt. Consider the following: • Is it a relationship or causation you are interested in? Explain. • What are your variables? • Which variables are independent and which are dependent? Explain. Each student will have a different question so post your answers on this discussion forum. We will provide personalised feedback on your particular question.
Forum 8: ENRICH YOUR LEARNING LU 8 **Research question** *Use this forum to discuss this non-compulsory activity*	In this non-compulsory exercise, follow the link http://www.cnbcafrica.com/video/?bctid=3787761330001 on SMEs and start-ups key drivers of innovation. Reflecting on what you have learnt in this learning unit and module as a whole, what individual differences can you deduce in individuals that may have informed the survey of General Electric? For example, education is mentioned a number of times. In the context of South Africa, do you think the determinants of education on entrepreneurial behaviour played a role? Explain. What can you say about risk-taking behaviour and creativity after watching the clip? Discuss your views on **Discussion Forum 8**.

ORIENTATION TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND WORK PERFORMANCE

Now that you are familiar with the virtual space of myUnisa, let's orientate you towards IOP2606 Individual Differences and Work Performance.

The purpose of this module is to enable you to develop a solid knowledge base and sound understanding of the theory of individual differences and its practical implications for work performance in order to improve employee productivity and organisational effectiveness.

In line with this purpose, we will endeavour to develop and assess your knowledge and understanding of the theoretical contents and concepts. We will do this by means of our learning outcomes and assessment criteria for tasks, for example completing the learning activities, completing assignments and answering questions in the examination. We will also develop and assess your practical skills to ensure that you can apply your knowledge. In addition, we want you to show and develop certain values and attitudes in your learning experiences. In other words, you should know or be able to judge how well you have completed study tasks, how and in which areas improvement is possible and how you can use your knowledge and skills to make a contribution. These outcomes and competencies are applicable in all areas of life; they are the basis of effective study and practice. Of course, in this module the focus is on assisting you in becoming a competent industrial and organisational psychologist.

PURPOSE OF THE MODULE

The primary purpose of this module is to provide you with the right knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to work in the field of individual differences and work performance. This module will enable you to develop a solid knowledge base and sound understanding of the theory of individual differences and its practical implications for work performance. It also touches on the improvement of employee productivity and organisational effectiveness.

In recent years, management practices and theory have changed (Moerdyk et al, 2015). There are the challenges of

- competing internationally
- constantly improving quality and service delivery
- improving customer satisfaction and ethical behaviour
- maintaining a high level of performance
- enhancing people skills
- maintaining work/life balance while improving social integration
- managing diversity and composition of the workforce
- managing falling levels of loyalty in a new workforce
- managing time and stress
- learning to think and plan strategically

The situation in South Africa poses its own unique challenges facing organisations, both internal and external.

External forces include

- high and low oil prices

- downturn in the economies that buy South African products, resulting in low economic growth for the country

Internal forces are

- employment equity and black economic empowerment legislation aimed at redressing past imbalances
- relatively low skills base in South Africa
- values of employees and the communities they come from that are often not aligned with those of the employers
- takeovers, amalgamations and restructuring of organisations which have interrupted established patterns of production and relations between people

Organisations cannot be functional without the individual and collective characteristics and contributions of their employees. A shift needs to happen from an emphasis on procedural and maintenance issues to a more strategic emphasis with the purpose of developing levels of performance and commitment of employees that would help organisations achieve their strategic objectives. Management needs to find a way of developing a mind-set that creates opportunities both within the organisation and within the general economy as a whole.

The urgent need to diversify the workforce, especially at senior executive level, in terms of race and gender must be accompanied by an organisational culture that allows people to belong and succeed. Internal components of organisations need to be aligned with the external market to ensure the sustainability of the organisation.

In light of what we have just discussed, you should be able to recognise and understand the differences between people. You need to develop and use these differences to enable individuals and groups to function optimally in the workplace. This means that they are helped to reach their full potential and meet the employer's expectations. This broad outcome or competency is essentially what industrial psychologists are trained to do.

It is not surprising that the psychology and knowledge of personality and individual differences are used mostly in **psychological assessment**. Most psychological tests and other psychological assessment techniques, also in the work context, are developed and used to measure personality attributes and their relationship with and influence on specific work behaviours. Examples are measures of personality traits, abilities (intelligence and aptitudes), values, interests, attitudes, motivation and emotions, ways of coping, and decision-making and learning styles. In this module we discuss many concepts and research findings relating to assessment and assessment results.

LAYOUT OF THE MODULE

This module consists of eight learning units:

LU 1 Origin and nature of individual differences	LU 2 Work-related personality research	LU 3 Biographical factors and work performance
		LU 4 Cognitive individual differences and work performance
		LU 5 Emotions, personality and work performance
		LU 6 Individual differences, work motivation and work performance
		LU 7 Individual differences and occupational choice
		LU 8 Individual differences, entrepreneurship and work performance

The learning units will provide you with the necessary study material. They serve as a practical method of familiarising you with various types of learning activities and learning methods, and provide feedback on learning activities to assist you in mastering the contents and stated learning outcomes.

In the units we will introduce you to the theoretical constructs, assumptions, explanations and research findings which form the foundational knowledge necessary to understand and utilise your knowledge within the field of personality and individual differences. The various learning activities in the learning units will facilitate your understanding of and insight into the theory. You will acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to identify and manage individual differences.

We will also help you develop the necessary attitudes and values you need to manage your own learning responsibly, and to make a contribution in the workplace.

At the beginning of each learning unit you will be provided with a number of learning outcomes you should achieve after having worked through the contents of the learning unit.

We encourage you to use your own initiative and other resources to enrich your learning. These could be additional reading (such as sources referred to or recommended in the learning units, other written media like newspapers and scientific articles on the internet), talking to other people and your own observations or experiences in your work or other contexts.

Each leaning unit contains the following learning aids:

- a broad learning outcome and more specific learning outcomes
- key questions and concepts
- applicable theoretical concepts and research findings
- ethical principles

Experiential learning opportunities

You will also find the following experiential learning opportunities:

- learning activities in each learning unit
- an opportunity to enrich your learning by completing additional non-compulsory tasks to broaden your understanding of the topic under discussion
- a glossary of key concepts that you will create yourself

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

The learning outcomes for each learning unit are linked to activities, assignments and the examination. We will assess your ability to do the following:

- Explain something (knowledge/theory).
- Do something (skills).
- Make a positive difference (attitude/values/ethics).

On completion of the module, you should be able to

- explain theoretical principles underlying personality or individual differences in employee work performance
- explain work-related personality research approaches in respect of personality factors as predictor variables and work performance as dependent variables
- explain personality and individual differences with regard to biographical factors, their influence on work performance and their role in work-related personality research
- explain the role of cognitive personality factors or individual differences, such as learning, decision-making, problem-solving and intelligence, in work performance
- discuss individual differences with regard to theory and research on work motivation and emotion
- apply principles pertaining to individual differences in an organisational context
- evaluate the role of personality or individual differences in entrepreneurial behaviours

Note: Although each of the eight learning units has a specific learning outcome that is dealt with separately, most of the outcomes are interdependent. Learning unit 1 provides the theoretical concepts relevant to individual differences and personality which are applicable in other learning units. It can be viewed as the basis for these learning units where we elaborate further in terms of individual differences and motivation, emotions and vocational choice, for example. Learning unit 2 forms the basis for individual differences in the workplace. These concepts would also form the basis in the subsequent learning units where, while we concentrate on specific concepts, you need to keep in mind that we are dealing with individual differences specifically in the workplace as they manifest in work performance.

Here is a table of all the learning outcomes for all the learning units.

CONTENT	LEARNING OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA
LU 1 Origin and nature of individual differences	Explain theoretical principles underlying personality or individual differences in employee work performance. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The meaning of individual differences or personality and types of individual differences are explained in detail. (2) The factors influencing individual differences and work performance are identified and described. (3) The various approaches to the explanation of personality and the origins of individual differences are explained in detail. (4) The different trait classifications and work-related personality classifications are critically discussed and examples are given. (5) The application of individual differences in the work context is discussed.
LU 2 Work-related personality research	Explain work-related personality research approaches in respect of personality factors as predictor variables and work performance as a dependent variable. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The advantages and disadvantages of work-related personality research are explained in detail. (2) The theoretical approaches used to identify personality variables in work-related personality research are explained and critically evaluated. (3) The integrated models used to explain the variables involved in work-related personality assessment and research are illustrated and explained in detail. (4) Reflection on future trends and needs in work-related personality research is provided.

LU 3 Biographical factors and work performance	Explain what personality and individual differences are with reference to biographical factors, their influence on work performance and their role in work-related personality research. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) Biographical and demographic factors are explained. (2) A developmental model or approach is presented to indicate how biographical factors influence human functioning. (3) The various aspects of biographical factors are described. (4) The practical use of biographical factors in research and assessment is illustrated. (5) The various types of biographical factors influencing the relationship between personality and work performance are explained.
LU 4 Cognitive individual differences and work performance	Explain the role of cognitive personality factors or individual differences, such as learning, decision-making, problem-solving and intelligence, in work performance. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The nature of different cognitive processes is explained in detail. (2) The influence of individual differences in cognitive processing on work behaviour is illustrated. (3) Research findings about the role of cognitive personality factors in work performance are critically evaluated. (4) The concept of intelligence is explained, and different approaches to the study of intelligence are discussed and compared.
LU 5 Emotions, personality and work performance	Discuss individual differences with regard to theory and research on emotion. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The various concepts related to emotions are differentiated in detail. (2) The emotion-arousing processes and their influence on work performance are described. (3) The role of emotions in personality, motivation and psychological wellbeing is critically discussed.

LU 6 Individual differences, work motivation and work performance	Discuss individual differences with regard to theory and research on work motivation and apply principles pertaining to individual differences in an organisational context. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The concepts of motivation and work satisfaction as used in various theoretical approaches are explained. (2) The concepts of work motivation and work satisfaction are critically discussed in the light of practical motivational and work satisfaction enhancement strategies. (3) Research on the role of individual differences in work motivation and work satisfaction is described.
LU 7 Individual differences and occupational choice	Discuss individual differences, work motivation and work performance in an occupational/organisational work context. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) Principles of individual differences are applied in the context of occupational choice concepts used in various theories in vocational psychology. (2) The individual differences in occupational choice and concepts relating to the person-job fit and expectancy are explained and justified. (3) The individual differences in work performance and career success in various occupations are identified and explained. (4) The various types of career development problems which may arise are indicated. (5) The role of personality in withdrawal behaviours is explained in detail. (6) The advantages of knowledge about the relationship between personality and vocational choice in the work context are described.
LU 8 Individual differences, entrepreneurship and work performance	Evaluate the role of personality or individual differences in entrepreneurial behaviours. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The psychology of the entrepreneur is explained in terms of its application and use in the work context. (2) The entrepreneur is profiled by referring to personality and psychological factors, background and demographic factors, as well as environmental and organisational influences. (3) The strategies to enhance leadership and entrepreneurial behaviour are critically discussed. (4) The relationship between entrepreneurial behaviour, leadership and management behaviour is described.

MUTUAL EXPECTATIONS

What you can expect from Unisa:

- We will provide you with up-to-date and relevant study material which compares favourably with the best local and international material.
- We will keep the study material relevant to the needs of industry and commerce by consulting regularly with important stakeholders outside Unisa.
- We will assist you in developing competencies at a designated level, which corresponds to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) level 6. The level descriptors are taken into account in the design of your study material and assessment.
- We understand that studying through Unisa may be more challenging than studying at residential universities. We will thus support you as best as we can, and when and wherever you need it. You may contact us to make a personal appointment, or phone us to discuss study matters. You may also contact us via electronic media (myUnisa or e-mail).
- We will provide you with clear indications of what we expect from you in terms of your assessments.
- We will provide feedback on assignments submitted on or before the due dates. This feedback should reach you within a month of the submission date. Your final feedback will reach you at least six weeks before the examination.

What we expect from you:

- Read all tutorial letters diligently to make sure you know what is expected of you and to benefit from our feedback.
- Start studying your prescribed material soon after registration and keep a regular study schedule.
- Complete the learning activities to gain a better understanding of the learning contents and acquire good application skills.
- Submit compulsory assignments on or before the due date, and complete other assignments for your own preparation.
- Take responsibility for checking the status of your registration, tuition fees, examination admission and examination dates and venues.
- If possible, use all the learning support facilities which Unisa offers you.

CREATE YOUR OWN GLOSSARY

After you have completed the first learning unit, you should begin to compile your own glossary of key concepts and other important concepts and their meanings. You should add to this glossary as you work through the rest of the learning units. The glossary will provide you with a very effective summary and a learning tool in your preparation for the examination. Use a notebook and divide the pages into two columns: write the concepts in the left-hand column and their meanings (in a word or two, or a very short phrase) in the right-hand column. An important rule is to be brief – one or at the most two A4-pages should be enough for all the key concepts in a whole learning unit.

The **Glossary** option on the myUnisa site can also be used to compile a bank of key concepts to share with fellow students.

Note: Your glossary will be useless if you do not go through it repeatedly to help you remember the words or concepts and their meanings.

Please ensure that you read the various tutorial letters, for example Tutorial Letter 101, carefully. Tutorial letters contain important information, including feedback on assignments or information on the examination. No discussion class is currently offered for this module.

Note: The learning activities in the learning units sometimes include a reflection question that requires you to think about the competencies you have used or developed when doing the specific learning activities. You are also expected to reflect on your competencies in your assignments. Our tutorial letters with feedback on assignments explain how this is done.

Your task is to be willing to use the above learning tools, which will add value to your learning experience and help you to achieve the learning outcomes of the module and each learning unit.

LEARNING UNIT 1   ORIGIN AND NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
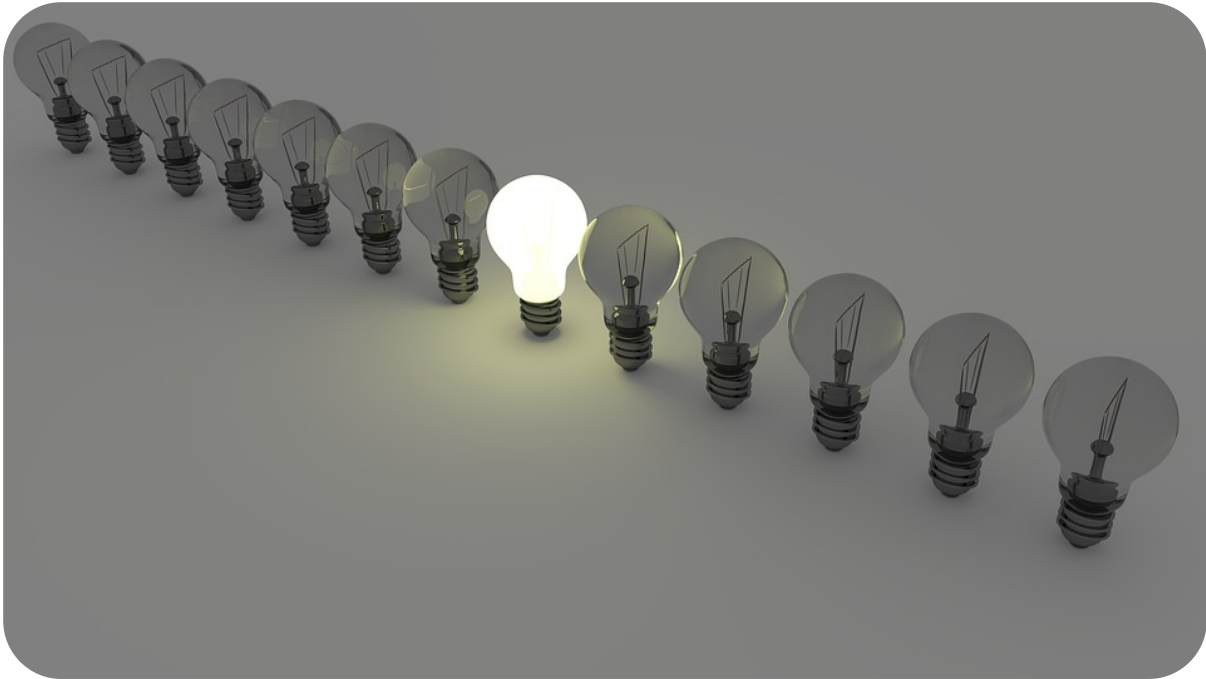
1.1 INTRODUCTION

When new employees enter organisations they bring with them a number of individual differences which impact on work performance. Their individual differences, such as unique personalities, values, emotions and moods, are stable or transient characteristics that affect how employees behave and perform at work.

In fact, organisations will hire or promote employees with the expectation that individuals would have certain skills, abilities, personalities and values to match the job demands and the degree to which the individual's values, personality, goals and other characteristics match those of the organisation.

Individual differences and work performance @ work
Why SAP wants to train and hire nearly 700 adults with Autism http://www.inc.com/jeff-chu/sap-autism-india.html
A request from the autism society of India to SAP for help has culminated in the company announcing that by 2020, it hoped to have 1 percent of its overall workforce coming from the autism spectrum.
The company was quick to point out that this is not a purely altruistic effort as there is a particular skill set people in this spectrum bring with them which adds business value.

On an individual level when asked what advice an autistic employee could provide for employees not on the spectrum the answer was "we are just like everyone else. We may think a little different". **Source: INC (2015)**	
KEY TAKEAWAY	
Personality traits and individual differences are important but we need to keep in mind that behaviour is determined by both the person and the situation.	

To help you learn this material effectively, you will be requested to do some activities throughout this learning unit.

There are a number of links and articles in this learning unit which you may want to peruse for your own development and which we have indicated as such. While these are for personal development and not compulsory reading, the aim of these activities is to get you thinking about the concepts so that you are able to apply them in certain work and other applicable situations.

1.2   ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 1.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 1 - Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	E-reserves • Bauer, T., & Erdogan, E. (2012). *An introduction to organizational behavior*. Retrieved from http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/an-introduction-to-organizational-behavior-v1.0/ • Activity 1 - Jamison, D. F. (2008). Through the prism of black psychology: a critical review of conceptual and methodological issues in Africology as seen through the paradigmatic lens of black psychology. *The Journal of Pan African Studies, 2*(2), 96-117. • Activity 2 - Nwoye, A. (2015). What is African psychology the psychology of? *Theory & Psychology, 25*(1), 96-116.
	Screencast SCLU1 Theoretical approaches to individual differences and personality
	Enrich your learning – Go to **Discussion Forum 5**

1.3   LEARNING OUTCOMES

The aim of this learning unit is to explain theoretical principles underlying personality or individual differences in employee work performance. We want to enable you to explain and apply, in relevant situations, important theoretical explanatory approaches to personality, types of individual differences and factors influencing the nature of personality and individual differences.

CONTENT	LEARNING OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA
LU 1 Origin and nature of individual differences	Explain theoretical principles underlying personality or individual differences in employee work performance. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The meaning of individual differences or personality and types of individual differences are explained in detail. (2) The factors influencing individual differences and work performance are identified and described. (3) The various approaches to the explanation of personality and the origins of individual differences are explained in detail. (4) The different trait classifications and work-related personality classifications are critically discussed and examples are given. (5) The application of individual differences in the work context is discussed.

1.4   PERSONALITY AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

From your previous studies you already know that personality can be defined as the relatively stable feelings, thoughts and behavioural patterns an individual has (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

1.4.1 Personality

Moerdyk et al (2015) explain that there are numerous definitions of personality which include the following:

- "Personality is a more or less enduring organisation of forces within the individual associated with a complex of fairly consistent attitudes, values and modes of perception which account, in part, for the individual's consistency of behaviour" (Barnouw, 1985).
- "Personality is the relative stable and distinctive patterns of behaviour that characterise an individual and his or her reactions to the environment" (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2012).

As Bauer and Erdogan (2012) note, personality will give us clues about how a person is likely to act and feel in a variety of situations. Having this knowledge would enable human resource practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists to assist management in shifting from procedural and maintenance issues in organisations to a more strategic emphasis, with the purpose of developing employees' levels of performance and commitment to achieve strategic objectives of organisations.

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) suggest some formal definitions of personality which view personality in terms of wholeness and complexity. One of them is Allport's definition of personality as "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought" (Allport, 1961, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

South African literature defines personality as the constantly changing but nevertheless relatively stable organisation of all physical, psychological and spiritual characteristics of the individual. These characteristics determine the individual's behaviour in interaction with the context in which the individual finds themselves.

African psychology explains personality as conscious behaviour; a unitary or holistic concept of interdependent physical, mental and spiritual dimensions in harmony with the values of its history, ecology, nature and the laws of life (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The question is then: If personality is stable, does this mean it does not change? Bauer and Erdogan (2012, pp. 111-112) ask us to think about how we have changed as a result of our own life experiences. The fact is that our personality changes over long periods of time. As we grow older we become more socially dominant, more conscientious and more emotionally stable between the ages of 20 and 40. Openness to experience tends to decline during this time as well - a mean-level change in personality over our lifetimes. Therefore, even though we treat personality as relatively stable, changes do occur.

Is our behaviour in organisations dependent on our personality? Bauer and Erdogan (2012) say to some extent yes, but to some extent no. We must remember that there are only modest correlations. For example, an extraverted person would most probably seek out friends and social situations, but it does not mean that their personality will immediately affect their work behaviour. At work we all have jobs to do and roles to perform. Our behaviour would strongly be affected by what is expected of us as opposed to how we want to behave. If people have more autonomy over their work, their personality will become a stronger influence over their behaviour.

Literature defines the work personality as semi-autonomous and separate from other aspects of personality. Work personality includes acquired work styles, behaviours, abilities, feelings and attitudes necessary to fulfil a productive role as demanded in work situations (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.4.2   Individual differences

From your previous studies it should be clear that individual differences have a connotation of uniqueness in personality and behaviour (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013). We have all at one point in time noticed that the variety of people around us is not only "skin deep". There are also many different ways that people differ in their thinking, feeling and behaving. It is these differences in personality that seem important to us to define who a person is (Ashton, 2013).

Ashton (2013) points out that the idea of differences among individuals is important only to the extent that it gives us a direct or indirect comparison with others.

1.4.2.1 Differences in thinking, feeling and behaving

Here we refer to a person's tendency or likelihood of showing some behaviours or having some thoughts or feelings (Ashton, 2013). This does not only include external behaviour as shown by a person's action and words, but also the internal aspects of a person such as their thoughts and ideas.

Expression could also be both external and internal. For example, consider your co-worker who takes on difficult challenges, expressing optimism that things will turn out well. Not only is optimism expressed, but the person estimates in their thinking that the likelihood of success will be high. The person will also express their feelings through excitement rather than anxiety about the project. The scenario could be the total opposite for other team members.

1.4.2.2 Differences in conceptually related ways

In some cases, differences may be expressed in ways that appear to have some common psychological element sharing some obvious similarities with one another. For example, what behaviour would you think a person would be expressing when giving a large tip to a waiter at a restaurant: show-off, generosity or careless with money?

1.4.2.3 Differences across situations

Ashton (2013) considers the importance of personality as not only being a habit confined to a specific situation, but shown across a variety of settings in which people differ in the ways they express themselves.

1.4.2.4 Differences across time

Here we can consider the definition of personality again and whether it changes. Ashton (2013) maintains that some pattern should be observed over the long run rather than simply on a temporary basis. If we consider our previous example of optimism, it could be argued that should the project fail, your co-worker would have felt some disappointment for some time and perhaps also felt some pessimism; however, they would likely approach the next project optimistically again. This shows that even though a person expresses one kind of behaviour throughout their lifespan, it does not mean that this will not change from time to time.

1.4.3 Individual differences and personality traits

The question is which kinds of individual differences should be considered separately from personality traits as distinct categories of psychological characteristics.

In this module we concur with Ashton (2013) and treat several important individual differences as belonging to categories different from the category of personality trait.

- Mental abilities such as verbal or mathematical skills differ from personality traits representing a person's maximum level of performance in some task and not necessarily a typical way of behaving, thinking or feeling.
- Beliefs and attitudes are usually focused on some particular "object", such as a specific set of religious or political issues, rather than a general style of behaving, thinking or feeling.
- Sexuality refers to a person's specific orientation.

By categorising in this way, we are by no means saying that mental abilities, beliefs, attitudes and sexuality are not important parts of personality. These characteristics of individuals speak to the complexity in defining individual differences and what they might mean and how they can be measured.

1.4.4 Biology and personality

Early ideas proposed a biological basis for individual differences based on an individual's physique or body type. More than 2 000 years ago early philosophers of ancient Greece considered personality to be influenced by various fluids in the body (Ashton, 2013). Recently systematic efforts by researchers

to find the biological basis of personality has made inroads into theory by studying substances such as neurotransmitters and hormones and by studying the workings of the brain itself. Recent theories have been proposed to explain how personality differences may be influenced by various substances and brain structures (Aston, 2013).

1.5 FOUR THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND PERSONALITY

Psychologists consider three categories of topics to study with regard to human behaviour (Ashton, 2013):

- Some would study the universal aspects of human behaviour – the way in which everyone tends to be similar in their behaviour and how people in general are likely to behave in a certain way.

- Other psychologists would examine unique combinations of very specific features that make an individual person different from everyone else.

- Yet another group of psychologists would explore the ways in which any given person can be similar to others yet different from other people.

Scientific psychology is based on good theory, especially on empirical or objective and reputable measurements which provide evidence that concepts are valid and reliable. The scientific approach to the study of personality is based on various theories, methods and other resources.

1.5.1 Psychoanalytic theories

These theories view personality as shaped by a person's early development and the way psychic energy is deployed by the person. It is argued that many of the origins of human behaviour are buried deep in the unconscious and that people are generally unaware of the reasons for some of their behaviour (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

Many view this theory as not having much to offer in terms of trying to explain organisational behaviour. However, between the two world wars, theorists shifted their ideas about organisations and work as complex interactive systems (Dimitrov, 2008). In addition, organisational psychology is concerned with systems, not only organisational systems and dynamics, but also with individuals and groups within the system fostering worker adjustment, productivity and satisfaction (Koopman, 2012).

Within organisations systems psychodynamics is concerned with individual differences within the system (Cilliers, Rothmann, & Struwig, 2004). The focus is on the profound nature of resistance to change when individuals encounter dysfunctional leadership, interpersonal conflicts and ineffective team processes. Individuals' subjective and frequently unconscious feelings in response to anxiety and how ego defences are used by individuals against perceived threats are considered (Van Eeden, 2010).

The systems psychodynamic approach considers these aspects not only in individuals, but also within and between groups in organisations. Understanding organisations in this way enables an understanding that individual differences are not only bound within the individual, but also manifest in group differences within the organisation. This subjective approach may assist individuals in becoming aware of why they and others behave in certain ways.

1.5.2   Behaviouristic or learning theories

The main idea of behaviouristic or learning theories is that personality is acquired by observable behaviour or responses, expectations and thoughts (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013). Personality develops because certain behaviours are rewarded. People are continually learning over their lifespan and situations could influence behaviour.

Concepts like expectancy, self-control, self-regulation and self-efficacy are used to explain that individuals need not merely give responses to stimuli, but can actively contribute and determine how they want internal and environmental stimuli to influence them (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

People's environments and circumstances are dominant influences on what they become. These influences may even override basic natural or genetic potential. Personality develops because certain behaviours occur and are rewarded more often than others, and this happens continuously over a person's lifespan. Because people are constantly learning, personality is not as stable as some would believe. Therefore, individual differences between people depend on how they have learnt and the types of environmental influences they have been exposed to (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.3   Humanistic theories

Humanistic theories focus more on the positive aspects of humans such as creativity, life satisfaction and positive contributions to the world (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

According to the humanistic theories, human personality and self-image are best understood in the light of people's subjective existence in their world. People's unique experiences of reality and the pursuit of self-actualisation are important. They ultimately strive to become fully functioning and to find meaning in life (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) note that these theories state that the development of personality happens over a person's lifespan, and as a result of people's universal and unique experiences. Personality is unique to every person, and the differences between people are made up of each person's life experiences and how these have accumulated to form the self-concept (or a perception of being a person).

1.5.4   Trait theories

Theories in this approach emphasise certain elements in personality. These theories postulate that human behaviour is characterised by enduring and consistent patterns of behaviour described as dimensions, traits, factors and types (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Moerdyk et al (2015) view the trait approach to personality as people's behaviour in terms of relatively stable characteristics. There are many different definitions of a trait, but a useful approach is to view a trait as any distinguishable, relatively enduring way one person differs from another. In terms of personality theory, it is important to remember that traits refer to behaviour tendencies and not factors such as age, gender and skin colour.

Trait psychology has contributed a great deal to our knowledge of the consistency of human behaviour in individuals and groups over time. It is arguably the most important contributor to the science of psychological assessment of individual differences through the use of objective instruments like personality questionnaires (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The trait approach is predominantly emphasised in workplace applications, especially in the area of assessing work competencies. Many factors have

been identified in various spheres, such as abilities, motivational states, interpersonal behaviours, emotions, beliefs, goals, attitudes, interests, values, managerial behaviours, entrepreneurial traits and organisational effectiveness.

The trait approach emphasises objective measurement of personality by using personality questionnaires and psychometric tests. Psychometric tests constitute the only real verified scientific paradigm in psychology. In a work context a lot of the analysis and measurement of employee and related processes follow the trait approach (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.5 Cognitive and social cognitive theories

These theories view people as rational and thinking beings who form their own personalities and determine their destinies by using cognitive powers to create and change cognitive constructs, processes and schemas about reality. People act according to their acquired thinking or knowledge of the world (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality develops according to the self-created cognitive constructs. The cognitive theorists believe that personality may not be that consistent because people's cognitive constructs are formed within a certain context and will change if old constructs are no longer valid. There will always be individual differences because people will have different constructs as a result of their ways of thinking, which are formed by their environments and their own inputs (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The social cognitive perspective emphasises self-regulation, cognitive processes and schema, perception and memory, which are all ways of understanding and controlling the world, the behaviour of other people and the behaviour of the self. The concept of a relational schema entails self-images of relationships and interactions with other people. Social cognitive theorists emphasise that specific, psychologically important situations will have different influences on different individuals (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The ideas of the social cognitive theorists might be useful in conjunction with the trait approach if it could be established that certain individuals with a certain trait profile will perform better than others in certain situations. In other words, they might be useful if they could assist researchers in identifying the underlying behaviour processes in personality traits. Assessment and research in this paradigm apply quantitative and qualitative measurements (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.6 Biological and evolutionary perspectives

According to this approach, human behaviour is firstly determined or influenced by genetic factors and biological processes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). These biological processes are researched in genetics studies, and are best illustrated by the behavioural similarities and differences found in twin and adoption studies (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). A great deal of modern research now focuses on biochemical substances such as neurotransmitters which are involved in communication among nerve cells or neurons (Ashton, 2013). Biological chemicals such as hormones have an effect on the activities of neurons, and this could influence behaviour and personality. Some researchers suggest that personality might be influenced by the extent to which the brain performs certain functions (Ashton, 2013).

Theorists from this school of thought strongly emphasise the evolutionary history of people and the influence of periods in which people live. For example, people's personality traits and behaviour are

viewed as a function of transfer from generation to generation as a result of evolutionary processes (Ashton, 2013; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The assumption is that the biological nature of behaviour that is common to all people may be changed by the evolutionary history and adaptation patterns of the human race. Ashton (2013) poses the question of why we are not all the same. Why is there variation in various traits and how is it maintained through the course of human evolution? One possible reason that Ashton (2013) suggests is that it is not important and has no consequence for survival or reproduction. Another possible reason could be to combat infectious diseases. These diseases tend to spread less quickly when people differ from one another. While these are likely explanations, the most likely explanation would be that many traits might sometimes be associated with individual differences in reproductive success.

Personality is quite stable in people over time because of genetic influences and the influence of people's need for social interaction. The latter is illustrated by people's innate or inborn (unconscious) dependence, and their need for affiliation and attachment from birth onwards. This approach emphasises accurate assessment, and the study of past events and historical influences on human behaviour. The role of genetics and biological processes in human behaviour is emphasised in the increasing realisation that human behaviour is more influenced by biological processes than has previously been evident or recognised (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.7 Psychosocial theories

The psychosocial theories emphasise the self as a core dimension of personality and personality development. Socially oriented and interpersonal theories represent different approaches to the study of personality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Psychosocial theories highlight the dominant role of interpersonal and social factors, and the influence of important other people in personality development. The importance of social behaviours or the social nature of personality is recognised in many theories and practices. The social nature of personality is a criterion for effective human functioning in various life roles. Many personality measurement techniques include factors which relate to the social nature of personality and concepts like self-concept (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). These approaches emphasise that social perceptions and other social influences strongly affect personality development, the resultant personality or individual difference factors and how they are expressed in work and other behaviours.

These social influences include factors such as race, gender and sexual orientation, but also specific aspects of developmental tasks, attitudes and values relating to work, and other work-related attributes. The role of cultural and cross-cultural differences should be considered owing to the influence of culture on employee perceptions about the meaning of work, work goals and achievement, which are expressed differently in work behaviour and the measurement of work behaviour. This suggests that we should see individual differences in the light of social influences and the way in which certain behaviours have been attributed to people by social systems (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.8 Occupation-oriented personality theories

Occupation-oriented personality theories focus on human career development and adjustment, and explain how the "work personality" develops as part of personality development. Work personality development is described as the acquisition of a productive role consisting of various personal

attributes. Work performance impairment may be related to the ineffective development of these work characteristics, competencies and attitudes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Specific career development theories can be classified as trait or factor approaches, because they relate to certain personality traits or types and dimensions of the work environment. The idea of person-environment fit is that optimal occupational performance is possible if employee characteristics are congruent with the characteristics of the work environment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Career development and work adjustment are the efforts of both the individual and the organisation to achieve and maintain congruence between them. The individual's work personality involves skills and needs which are determined by values. These values facilitate certain behaviours in the workplace (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.5.9   Asian and African perspectives

In Asian cultures there is less emphasis on the individual and related concepts like ego or self, individuation, independence, self-efficacy and autonomy.

A person's identity is closely related to their cultural identity. Personality formation is best acquired by knowledge of the soul gained through meditation and experiences of the self. This emphasis is congruent with the more religious and metaphysical cultural traditions which point to an emphasis on subjective and direct experiences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

African views on human behaviour or personality have been few with minimal coherent personality theory. Jamison (2008) classified about ten areas of differences between African and Western psychologies. We will not elaborate on these here, but you could read the attached pdf document to further your own understanding.

Activity1

Instruction: Go to your e-reserves and read Jamison, D. F. (2008). Through the prism of black psychology: a critical review of conceptual and methodological issues in Africology as seen through the paradigmatic lens of black psychology. *The Journal of Pan African Studies, 2*(2), 96-117.

The approaches followed are really in opposition to the political and cultural dominance of black cultures by Western white cultures. In many situations the dominance by white culture and politics causes experiences and feelings of inferiority, alienation and self-division. These influence the formation and adjustment of healthy personality functioning and self-identity. Recently there has been a new emergence in psychology of African psychology. While still fledgling in its existence and located in African universities, there is a drive to expand African psychology into the wider world (Nwoye, 2015).

Activity 2

Instruction: Go to your e-reserves and read Nwoye, A. (2015). What is African psychology the psychology of? *Theory & Psychology, 25*(1), 96-116. Read the article for an in-depth understanding of African psychology.

Nwoye (2015, p. 104) defines African psychology as "the systematic and informed study of the complexities of human mental life, culture and experience in the pre- and post-colonial African world".

With this definition Nwoye (2015) attempts to show that African psychology is much more inclusive and complicated than the term "indigenous psychology". African psychology embraces not only the need to take into account gaps and absences by mainstream psychology's limited understanding of the human condition and life of the mind of Africa, but also to help post-apartheid and contemporary African people to recognise and appreciate their triumphs, and the threats, opportunities and dilemmas of inhabiting present-day African environments.

Nwoye (2015) makes a clear distinction and states that African psychology is not equivalent to black psychology. He notes that African psychology is the psychology of the multiracial Africans and their worlds, including white Africans and Indians where their original place of birth is Africa; a psychology of inclusion and not polarisation.

African psychology explains personality and personality development as purposeful behaviour; a unitary or holistic concept of interdependent physical, mental and spiritual dimensions in harmony with the values of its history, ecology, nature and the laws of life.

In summary, the different personality theories describe personality based on the assumptions of the specified theory. It is important to note that the study of personality is an integrated science. Another important assumption is that all behaviour has meaning for people in terms of the context in which it occurs and in terms of the meaning or reality which each person attributes to it through language and communication. Human systems are also open systems and operate according to their own structures, rules, roles and feedback. These determine how stable, healthy or unhealthy the system will be. Personality, a work group, a family, an organisation and a nation are examples of human systems. Health will be optimal if there is balance and integration among all systems and their characteristics, rather than when they are unstable and changing in the negative sense. Therefore, individual behavioural norms must be considered in their context; they should not always be seen as isolated events.

1.6 TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE FACTORS

From personality theory, research and assessment a number of personality and personal factors or attributes which make people either different or the same have been identified. In some instances, these factors may also act as moderating factors which may influence the expression or manifestation of personality in a certain context. It is these factors of difference or similarity and their influence which managers use to assess and predict people's success at work. This is due to the fact that work success involves more than merely carrying out the work; it is a combination of effort, ability, skill and other attributes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In a general sense individual differences can be classified as either physical differences (abilities, skills, physical characteristics), psychological differences (personality, attitudes, values, interests, perceptions, emotions, learning processes, motives, needs, creativity), or other personal factors such as biographical factors and demographics. However, in the literature individual differences are often associated with ability factors and biographical or demographic factors. In a way these are distinguished from other personality factors, like personality traits, cognitive processes, emotions, needs and behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In this module individual differences are considered to be all the factors in a person's personality (cognitive, psychological, social, motivational and moral) and personal circumstances (biographical or demographic factors), which may be unique to specific people or similar among people, and which may influence work performance.

1.6.1 Cognitive abilities

It is a fact that people differ in terms of their cognitive and other abilities. What does ability mean? Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in their job.

Ability is an assessment of what a person can or cannot do. An individual's overall abilities are essentially made up of two sets of abilities, namely intellectual abilities and physical abilities:

• Intellectual abilities are those abilities that are needed to perform mental activities.

• Physical abilities are those abilities required to do tasks demanding stamina, dexterity, strength and similar skills.

The important point is to know how people's abilities differ and to use that knowledge to increase the likelihood that an employee will perform their job well (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.6.2 The trait approach to personality

As we have discussed previously, the trait approach to personality describes a person's behaviour as enduring characteristics across various situations. The more consistent the characteristics and the more frequently they occur in diverse situations, the more important those traits are in describing the individual. In an organisational context you will find that some individuals appear to be more conscientious, hardworking, confident, independent and dependable than others. Personality factors are also described in the five-factor model (FFM). These factors have been proved to be related to work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Big Five Dimension	Description	Positive Impact at Work	Negative Impact at Work
Open/closed to experience	Open to new experiences and imaginative Less open to new experiences, narrow-minded and unimaginative	Predicts training performance More creative	May lose focus May be a risk-taker
Conscientious/ disorganised	Well-organised, focused on targets, goals and deadlines, dependable and pays attention to detail Impulsive, disorganised and less detail-focused	Predicts training performance across most jobs and organisational settings, perhaps even better than ability likely to show deviant behaviour	Tends to be focused on detail, perfectionist reactive May resist change May not see the bigger picture
Extraverted/ Introverted	Outgoing and good at dealing with people Outgoing and comfortable in own company or that of their close friends	Positive for jobs needing social interaction Good leadership Higher job and life satisfaction Managers more	More likely to be impulsive Spend time socialising Predict performance for some jobs – sales, for example
Agreeable/tough minded	Good-natured, cooperative, avoiding conflict, easy to get on with and well liked Unfriendly, strong-willed and confrontational	Good to have at work and can be useful in customer-facing roles More compliant and conforming Weakest predictor of good job performance	May link negatively to team performance Need to be liked and therefore poor negotiators Generally less successful and earn less
Neurotic/ emotionally stable	Experiencing negative states such as anger, anxiety and guilt Stable, rarely upset and typically calm	Self-confident Willing to improve, tries to please others May be better than ability in predicting job performance	Predict poor job performance May be rigid and inflexible Make poorer decisions when stressed

Figure 1: Effects of big five traits on organisational behaviour (adapted from Moerdyk et al, 2015)

Other well-known trait concepts that have been researched extensively in a work context include stress-related traits or types, type A behaviours, locus of control, authoritarianism, self-monitoring, self-esteem, introversion versus extroversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism.

1.6.3 Other personality factors that influence work performance

There are a number of other personality factors that influence work performance. We will focus on locus of control, type A-type B personality and risk-taking behaviour.

Locus of control deals with the degree to which people feel accountable for their own behaviour. Those who have a high internal locus of control believe they are in control of their own destiny. People with a high external locus of control feel that things that happen to them are because of other people or luck, among other things (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

In general, **type A personalities** are those seen to always be moving at a fast pace and highly visible, while those with a **type B personality** are more laid back and not driven by time (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

People differ in their **risk-taking behaviour**. It may be a myth that low levels of risk-taking behaviour would be appropriate for work performance. Risk-taking behaviour would be dependent on what type of job was required. Think of stockbrokers: would high or low risk-taking behaviours be appropriate (Moerdyk et al, 2015)?

1.6.4 Orientations

Orientations refer to interests, values and attitudes. These orientations influence and affect employee performance.

Interests are specific action tendencies in personality that motivate people to pursue certain activities and jobs, for example to make certain career choices. It is assumed that if interests combine with abilities and other job competencies, they may explain happiness in the work context (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Values strongly influence a person's attitudes and behaviours. An employee's performance will likely be higher if their values fit in well with the organisation. For example, a person who places a high premium on imagination, independence and freedom will be poorly matched with an organisation that seeks conformity from its employees. Values also influence the development of career anchors. Career anchors are distinct patterns of self-perceived talents, abilities, motives, needs and attitudes. Values guide and stabilise an individual's career after several years of work experience and feedback. Individuals develop career anchors to avoid erratic or random decisions. If they sense that a job or job situation will not be consistent with their talents, needs and values, their anchor pulls them back into situations that are more congruent with their self-image (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Attitudes reflect a person's beliefs about things, ideas and people. They involve intellectual, emotional and behavioural aspects. They are also influenced by situations, for example a new employee who changes their attitude after exposure to the new organisation. Work-related attitudes have been the topic of many research studies and include job satisfaction and work commitment. These concepts relate to employee attitudes towards various personal and work-related issues which contribute to people's feelings of happiness in their work, and to their desire to support organisational goals and to remain in the organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.6.5 Emotions or affective states

Emotions or affective states entail the expression of our feelings and how feelings affect individual performance. We often relate our emotional life to our psychological make-up. We often say: "I do as I feel", "I am as old as I feel", and so on. You should be familiar with your own performance when you are feeling down or have the blues and compare it with your performance when you are on a high or feeling in control (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Emotional intelligence has recently been highlighted in psychology. Among other things, emotional intelligence means that you have knowledge of your own emotions and you can manage them in a way that contributes to your work performance. Emotional content is implied in many personality variables, for example in intellectual functioning, personality traits, work motivation, job satisfaction and psychological adjustment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.7 PERSONALITY TRAITS, TYPES AND STYLE CLASSIFICATIONS

1.7.1 Personality traits classification

Trait classifications include interpersonal trait and work-specific classifications.

Interpersonal trait classifications distinguish eight interpersonal trait categories as opposites on a circle. These opposites should be negatively related, while traits at right angles to each other should be independent of each other. The eight interpersonal trait categories are illustrated on the circle in figure 2. How people react in social situations is really determined by interpersonal traits. An interesting factor or trait approach to classify interpersonal behaviour is the interpersonal circumplex model proposed by Wiggins (Wiggins & Broughton, 1991). The interpersonal model is based on the assumption that personality is best expressed in interpersonal situations. In the workplace we know that the quality of employee relations and mutual respect are important factors for employee job satisfaction and the type of psychological climate in groups and organisations.
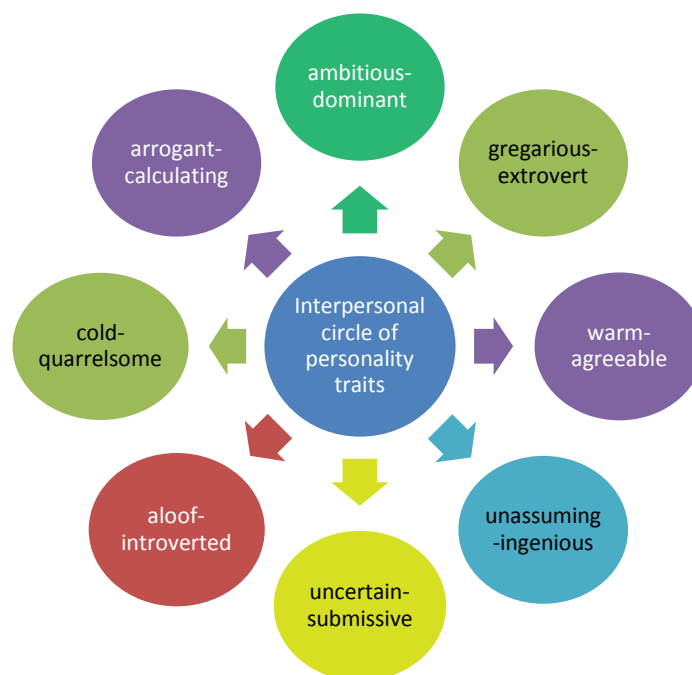
Figure 2: Interpersonal circle of personality traits

Work-specific classifications entail finding the work-related variables or attributes which have a positive and significant relationship with personality. This is necessary to predict work performance if certain personality measures are used as predictors (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). One of the measures of work criterion clusters or taxonomies is the 18-factor model on managerial performance, which was reduced to four main factors by Borman and Brush (1993). The four main factors are interpersonal dealings and communication; leadership and supervision; technical activities and mechanics of management; and useful personal behaviour and skills. The customer service orientation inventory (CSI) is the second example of work-related personality trait classifications which could be used universally to measure customer service. The factors in this questionnaire are sociable, communicative, courteous, positive body language, perceptive, responsive, tactful, cooperative, flexible, open, even-tempered, optimistic, accepting of authority, externally rewarded, competent and reliable (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The third example is the citizenship personality attributes and behaviours used to describe pro-social organisational behaviours and organisational citizenship behaviours in contrast to pure task behaviours (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Learning or adapting organisations are another classification in which traits such as systems thinking, having a shared vision, team learning, participative management systems, a climate of learning and sharing information, efficient communication and flexible structures describe the way in which an organisation copes with transformation and changes, and deals with its human resources demands (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). By observing and writing down behaviours and processes in individuals, groups or organisations over time, you should be able to identify certain characteristic traits and even repeated patterns.

1.7.2   Personality types and style classifications

The type approach to personality
Type theories to personality see people as a certain type, such as "male", "female", "strong", "weak" etc. One of the first attempts to describe personality in such a way was by the Greek philosophers who believed that personality was determined by four humours or body fluids (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

Table 1: The four humours of personality

ELEMENT	FLUID	PRODUCED BY	HUMOUR	PERSONALITY
Earth	Black bile	Gall bladder	Melancholic	Depressed, withdrawn, unhappy
Air	Blood	Liver	Sanguine	Optimistic, outgoing, calm, cheerful
Fire	Yellow bile	Spleen	Choleric	Irritable, grumpy, loud
Water	Phlegm	Lungs	Phlegmatic	Quiet, placid, unemotional

This classification is very old fashioned but you may find modern references to it on the internet. Wundt converted it into his typology, arguing that these personality types reflect different positions on a two-dimensional matrix consisting of the degree of emotionality and the extent to which

emotions are expressed. In the following figure you will note that a choleric person has strong emotions and is quick to react emotionally compared to others (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

Quick to react emotionally

Strong emotions

Mild emotions

Slow to react emotionally
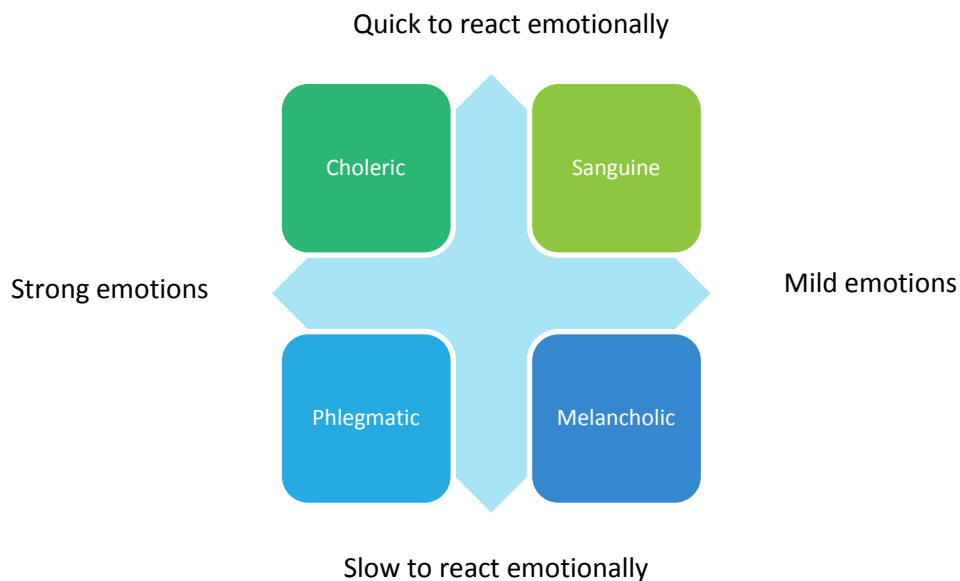
Figure 3: Wundt's typology

An extension of this approach was Jung's typology. Jung is seen by most as one of the founding fathers of modern psychology. Among his important innovations was the concept of extraversion, introversion, archetypes and the collective unconscious (Moerdyk et al, 2015). His theory proposes that people are innately different both in terms of the way they see the world take in information and how they see the world. His model of personality divides people along two dimensions of introversion/extraversion and stable/neurotic (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

In 1943 Jung's approach was developed further by a mother and daughter Catherine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers (Moerdyk et al, 2015). The Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI), like the Jung personality questionnaire, is a questionnaire that is based on Jung's theory of psychological type of two attitudes, namely extroversion and introversion, and four functions, namely thinking, feeling, sensing and intuition (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

A problem with the use of type descriptions is the tendency to label someone as a certain type and, in much the same way as we get used to a certain actor being typecast in certain roles, we can create the impression that this person can perform in no other role (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality types or style classifications include work commitment types, leadership or conflict management styles, coping styles and group roles.

Work commitment types are personality types based on the differentiation of patterns of work commitment or patterns of stress management. People are often classified as either a type A or a type B personality based on these patterns; you have already come across these in section 1.6.3 of this learning unit (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

One way of boosting work performance and job satisfaction is to place people in jobs that fit their personality and style.

In addition, six career anchors have been identified, namely an employee's self-image, a vocational self-concept or preferences, values, needs, work experiences and abilities at a certain stage in life which motivate the employee to prefer certain types of jobs or job tasks (Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs, & Mensele, 2016; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

There are various **leadership and conflict management styles** which are applied in human resources management and described by leadership and managerial theory. Leadership and managerial theory uses concepts such as administrative, bureaucratic, expert, ideological, charismatic, symbolic, democratic, autocratic and transformational (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989). Conflict management styles are classified based on two factors, namely the degree of concern for people and the degree of concern for task completion (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The conflict management styles are withdrawal (low concern for people and task execution), smoothing (high concern for people, but low concern for task execution), forcing (high concern for task execution, low concern for people), compromise (balance between task execution and concern for people) and problem-solving (solutions that satisfy people and task execution). Power and conflict management in organisations and between groups can also be described by certain styles, for example integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding and compromising (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The style of a person or group is indicated on a continuum (see figure 4), depending on concern for others or self and which conflict management style is used.
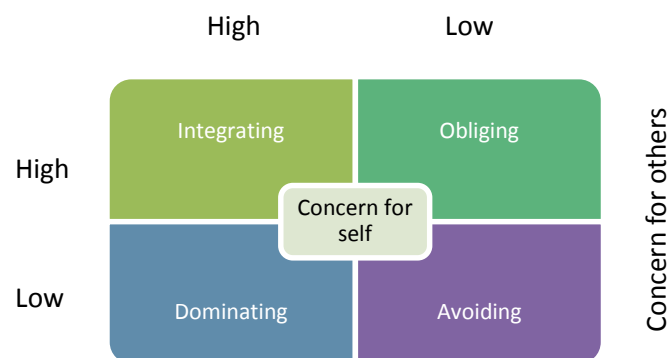
Figure 4: Style continuum (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1989)

Coping styles indicate the type of behaviour which may be applied in order to manage work or general stressful situations. The three types of job-related coping styles are control, escape and symptom management (Latack & Havlovic in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Another example of the coping styles is the ways of coping checklist (WCCL), in which two styles of coping, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, are identified. The WCCL is often used in stress research (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Group role types include eight types of roles which people may assume in a group. These are often used to facilitate interaction in work groups and are the following: chairman, shaper, plant, monitor-

evaluator, resource investigator, team worker, company worker and completer or finisher (Belbin, 1981).

Learning styles identify people's cognitive attitudes and the types of learning styles they use to disseminate information and solve problems. Four types of learning styles are accommodators, divergers, assimilators and convergers. These styles reflect a person's development in the acquisition of certain skills, whether the person is concrete or abstract in thinking, and whether the person uses active participation or reflective observation in thinking and learning processes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Age of an employee could also affect the learning styles of individuals. Bauer and Erdogan (2012) mention research which indicates that older employees prefer PowerPoint presentations, while younger employees prefer more interactive learning. Understanding these differences would enable you to understand any resistance to learning in the workforce.

1.8 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

To understand individual differences, and their cause-and-effect relationship in work performance, you need to know the determinants of personality and individual differences.

The formation and development of personality and individual differences are associated with the influence of either genetic or environmental factors, or a combination of these two major determinants. However, in many classifications of influencing factors, more specific factors have been identified (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The following is a description of the factors:

1.8.1 Genetic influences

The crucial question of nature versus nurture is ongoing. The question can be asked to what extent personality differences are caused by the environment or heredity. Ashton (2013) cites interesting research being conducted in this area in terms of studies on twins, relatives, genetic influences, environmental influences, parental treatment, peer groups and birth order.

Genetic influences determine biological maturation, growth and biological changes that take place notwithstanding environmental factors. The role of genetics entails covert factors such as tolerance for temperatures, sensitivity to chemical substances or resilience to stress. Obviously, genetically determined illnesses or the progressive development of illness may influence personality development, also with regard to job competencies. Many physical and even psychological illnesses are genetically determined and passed down (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Genetic influences are reported for elements, such as activity level, and emotions, such as anxiety, negative emotionality and aggression. Like genetic similarity between people in certain physical features, findings also indicate general similarities in certain social and emotional behaviours owing to genetic influences. For example, we often see and are surprised when family members have similar social and psychological behaviour. This behavioural uniqueness in certain people and similarities between generations are often coupled with evolutionary and cultural genetics. These behaviours are passed down over time between close relatives or in ethnic groups (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1.8.2 Evolution and individual differences

How evolution by natural selection can apply to human characteristics is too extensive for this module. Those of you who are interested in a more detailed discussion can consult Ashton (2013), chapter 7, pp. 154-175. For purposes of this module, it is sufficient to say that evolution as the cornerstone of modern biology is the concept of evolution by natural selection. To understand how evolution by natural selection can apply to human characteristics, we can consider the following:

- **Individual differences between people:** We vary in physical characteristics and psychological characteristics.

- **Inheritance of characteristics**: Research seems to suggest that perhaps more than 60% of the variability that exists in the population is due to genetic differences.

- **Characteristics associated with reproductive success:** Differences between basically healthy individuals, which increases survival rates.

- **Changes across generations in levels of characteristics:** There are some ways in which evolution might tend to produce differences between groups but in other instances also keep groups the same.

1.8.3 Environmental influences

Personality attributes and behaviours are acquired through multiple environmental influences of a physical, social or psychological nature. People also learn in many ways, for example through conditioning, association, identification, imitation or modelling other people. Environmental influences play an important role in the development of genetic potential and affect psychosocial behaviours such as values, attitudes and beliefs that characterise individuals or groups. One of the important functions of environmental influences is to socialise the developing person for adult responsibilities and roles such as marriage, family life and work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Family influences are possible because some of the most uniquely acquired attributes and behaviours of people develop in family interactions. Sadly, some of the most destructive influences may also appear in the family context, for example as a result of domestic violence, sexual and child abuse, and disturbed or broken relationships. The developing child's parents provide the types of psychosocial examples, models and rewards that will either enhance or inhibit healthy personality and career development. Interactions with the immediate and extended family are the basis for the growing child's attachment behaviours, self-concept and identity development. The parents' own behaviours and how they reward their children's behaviour will elicit certain types of constructive or destructive behaviours. The child's experience of family life will lay the groundwork for many roles, future relationships, gender identity and identity as a student, worker, parent and member of society. Every child in a family may have different experiences of the same family interactions and of the external environment which, together with genetic differences, may also explain personality and behaviour differences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Social affiliations outside the family are another powerful influence in some people's unique attributes and behaviours. These attributes and behaviours could develop as a result of the influence of important people outside the family, including peer groups and friends, who often serve as an extension of the family. Outside the home the child can explore and expand the perceptions of himself or herself and the world, and often also test the behaviours relevant in the family (Ledimo & Matjie,

2011). In a world with different values and attitudes, especially with regard to being responsible and independent, peer involvement may lay the basis for a culture of healthy competition, learning and work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Faulty learning processes and negative influences are also associated with disorganised personalities and behaviours in individuals and groups. Destructive attributes and behaviours may result in maladjusted behaviours, which are often the basis for personal and work maladjustment or work dysfunctions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Cultural membership provides the historical and immediate mega-environment which prescribes certain behaviours or creates opportunities. The group to which a person belongs at a certain time in life may create a legacy of socioeconomic status. It also influences identities and roles with related forms of behaviour that are not easy to change. Culture will in many ways determine how people think and feel, and what they do. Think about the many different behaviours in different ethnic and cultural groups in South Africa – religion, marriage, work, time, criminality, power, honesty, education, eating and drinking, social interaction and many more specific issues (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Cultural adaptation, learning processes and respect for one another's cultural heritage are important in a multicultural society. In an organisational context, culture can be defined as the collective norms, values, beliefs, thinking and behaviours based on past events which characterise the unique or distinctive ways in which people do things. It may influence personality and behaviours at work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

External events such as meso- and macro-environments influence human behaviour (see figure 5). Many individuals have little personal control over and influence in many of these environments. For example, they cannot control or affect world events or sociopolitical and economic events. Think about the far-reaching effects of certain political systems on people's lives in Africa and other parts of the world, or the negative effects of economic collapse or wars. Some people, both children and adults, could be traumatised for the rest of their lives by external events. Their attributes and behaviours will be visible in how they function in their various environments (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).
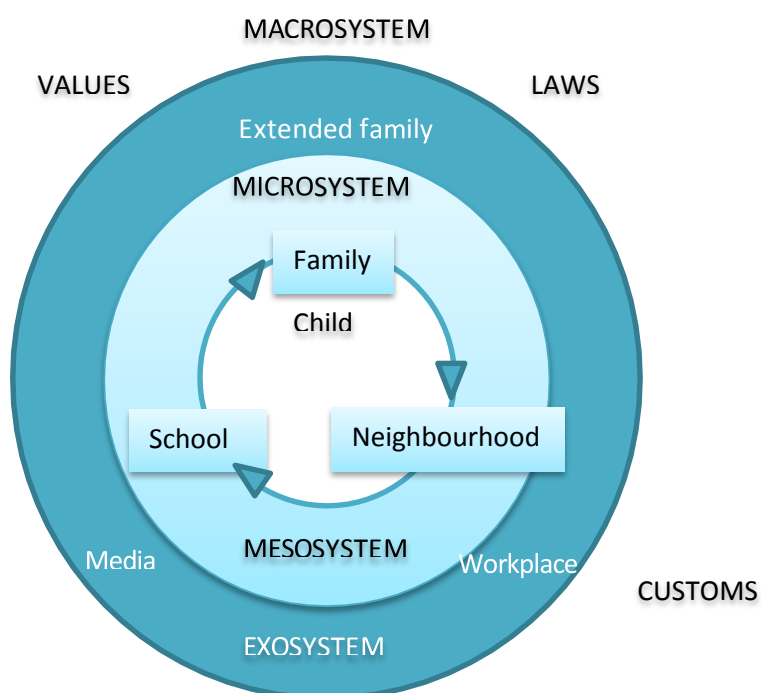
Figure 5: The individual in the context of surrounding environments (Craig, 1996)

1.9 APPLICATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND PERSONALITY IN THE WORK CONTEXT

It is important to know how and when individual differences and personality are applied in the work context. You should acquire specific knowledge of work context applications in which individual differences and personality play an important role. Aspects of applications are discussed in all the learning units of this module (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Individual differences could be used to select assessment techniques to assess people or groups for specific purposes, for example in selection, placement, promotion, career guidance and bringing employees together for specific tasks (like selecting group members), and to assess or understand consumer behaviour and decision-making.

- It is important to understand personality and human behaviour (profiling), for example in psychological reports, for specific purposes and in some form of assessment. Could you describe personality and human behaviour?

- Individual and personality differences play a role in determining job and situation requirements (specifications), and compiling job descriptions which can be used in job evaluations and performance management for purposes of the training, development and remuneration of employees.

- Acquiring and having knowledge of individual differences of employees may serve an important role in assessing and diagnosing specific work-related adjustment problems or work dysfunctions, such as counterproductive and withdrawal behaviours, with a view to remedial interventions.

- Objective and subjective assessment data on individual differences should be obtained for use in study and career choices, career guidance and workplace counselling.

- Knowledge of individual differences can be used in work and remuneration design with a view to motivating employees and understanding their work-related attitudes, like levels of job satisfaction and work commitment.

- Knowledge of individual differences has an important place in academic training and in basic and applied research in all or most psychology disciplines. Many psychological disciplines have to understand the complexities of the human personality, factors which influence its development and functioning, and the impact of personality on many spheres of life.

- An important application of research is the cross-cultural use of existing knowledge about individual differences and comparisons between cultures and groups. It facilitates a better understanding of diverse workforces or other cross-cultural issues which require cultural sensitivity.

- An important academic application is the emphasis on the individual and their uniqueness (an ideographic science), which is important in a world where, for reasons of time and practicality, general laws and groups are often emphasised while the individual and their specific attributes and circumstances are forgotten or not sufficiently considered (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

You may find other applications or expand on these points. Table 2 indicates some applications to individual differences and personality in the work context. Please note that the table is not exhaustive and that many other applications exist within the workplace.

Table 2: Applications of individual differences and personality in the work context

Personality approach	Assumption	Assessment practice	Work context
Behaviourally oriented	Personality can be observed	Assessment centres	Observing how people react at work
Projective techniques	The way people respond to various unstructured/ambiguous situations reflects their unconscious needs, desires and motives	Inkblot Ambiguous pictures Incomplete sentences SORT	Anger management Need for power Need for achievement Feeling unwanted
Developmental approaches	Stages of emotional and cognitive development	LPCAT Specific ability tests	Learning potential Cognitive ability
Psychoanalytical theory	Personality is shaped by events that occur during the person's early development and the way psychic energy is deployed by the person	Rorschach Thematic Apperception tests	Achievement need Need for power Need for affiliation

1.10 ETHICS@WORK

Considerations for using the MBTI for selection purposes:

"In many organisations around the world psychometric instruments are often used as part of the decision making criteria when selecting new employees. Other criteria often include: the individual's work history, experience levels, technical knowledge, interview ratings, etc. Psychometric results are often used to compare people based on factors relevant to the job and in doing so discriminate fairly. From the trait perspective, certain psychological traits are seen to be necessary or desirable in certain job settings, and often the applicant's standing on a trait would be used to decide whether or not they would be appropriate for the specific job context. In accordance with type theory, individuals who report a particular type are not precluded from having or developing the skills associated with the opposite type. The type categorisation indicates a natural preference, or tendency, toward obtaining and using different types of information for decision-making purposes, which does not mean that individuals are unable to gather or use other types of information in effective decision-making or behaviour."

In addition, the MBTI Manual states that:

"Using the MBTI (tool) for purposes such as job selection and advancement is therefore inappropriate, as respondents can easily answer the items so as to appear to be the type favoured for a particular job or position within an organization."

While people who report certain types may be drawn to particular environments, due to the nature of the environment, type preference does not determine whether or not an individual will succeed in that particular environment. Each type brings its own unique gifts, and these are to be celebrated, not used to discriminate.

Given the psychometric properties of the MBTI® assessment there is a clear indication that it would be inappropriate to use the MBTI® assessment in the selection context given the type of information that is obtained. Using the MBTI® assessment in selection would open your practise or company up to legal risk."

Retrieved 22 January 2016 from JVR Psychometrics *https://catalogue.jvrpsychometrics.co.za/mbti-to-select-or-not-to-select-should-not-be-the-question/*

1.11   ENRICH YOUR LEARNING

These practical exercises are not compulsory but have been designed to enrich your learning in learning unit 1. Go to **Discussion Forum 5** and follow the instructions.

1.12   CONCLUSION

Personality is a fascinating topic. The variety of explanations may help us to understand, consider and respect the rich nuances in people's behaviour. Personality represents the self; it integrates all of a person's visible and underlying attributes, which may be expressed in various types of behaviours. In the work context, how people differ in various ways and personality factors influences work performance. The optimal management and development of human resources depend on the manager's ability to determine and optimise individual employees' different personality traits and their congruence with the organisation and situation.

1.13   SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Individual differences	Humanistic	Acquired behaviour
Genetic attributes	Existential	Moderator
Character	Afrocentric	Cultural
Psychoanalysis	Abilities	Biographical
Behaviourism	Intelligence	Demographic
Dynamic learner	Attitudes	Interaction
Interests	Values	Traits

LEARNING UNIT 2   WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this learning unit is to explain work-related personality research. We examine research approaches and models used to identify personality and work performance factors. Specific work performance criteria, factors influencing personality research in the work context and research trends and needs for the future are also discussed.

This learning unit is important because the ability to understand and conduct research in the work context is an important competency for your further studies and for industrial psychologists in academic, research and human resource positions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 2.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 2 - Additional resources

Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** *option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	• E-reserves
	
	   o Section 2.5.1 Correlations: Vocational identity trajectories differences in personality and development of wellbeing
	
	   o Section 2.11 Self-assessment: The relationship between personality traits and work performance of call centre agents
	
	• Unisa policy on copyright infringement
	
	• Research in practice: http://buzzsouthafrica.com/richest-black-south-african-patrice-motsepe/
	
	• YouTube
	
	   o Section 2.4 Research variables: dependent, independent, control, extraneous & moderator https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K4sObJbN4JU
	
	   o Section 2.5.2 Relationships or causes: How ice cream kills! Correlation vs causation https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VMUQSMFGBDo

2.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 2 Work-related personality research	Explain work-related personality research approaches in respect of personality factors as predictor variables and work performance as a dependent variable. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The advantages and disadvantages of work-related personality research are explained in detail. (2) The theoretical approaches used to identify personality variables in work-related personality research are explained and critically evaluated. (3) The integrated models used to explain the variables involved in work-related personality assessment and research are illustrated and explained in detail. (4) Reflection on future trends and needs in work-related personality research is provided.

2.4 WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH APPROACHES

The aim of this section is to describe theoretical approaches used in identifying personality or individual difference factors for work-related personality research. Personality or individual difference factors are variables in work-related personality research. Remember that a variable is a characteristic that can vary or change in interaction with other variables or situations. For example, variations in age, levels of education and anxiety may change job performance, and learning can change according to the different teaching methods used (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality factors, including abilities, are predominantly used as independent or predictor variables, which influence the dependent or outcome variable such as measures or criteria for work performance. Statistically the aim in work-related personality research is to determine whether there is a significant relationship between personality and work performance. The main purpose is to determine whether the degree of variance in work performance is explained by personality. This implies that personality is used as a predictor of successful work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following approaches are used in work-related personality research:

2.4.1 Classical personality approach

Personality measurements use concepts like specific traits and behaviours from one or more of the classical approaches as independent or predictor variables. The aim is to find the relationship with work-related dependent variables, for example training success and work performance ratings (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In summary, the classical personality approach entails the following:

• Unconscious motives and drives, and also ego defence mechanisms may cause and influence work behaviours.

- Observable behaviours resulting from learning and reward processes determine the type of work behaviour.

- Unique life experiences and ways to find meaning in life are strong determinants of work motivation and work performance.

- Certain inherited and acquired personality traits and types influence work performance.

- General and specific ways of processing information, thinking and problem-solving influence how employees perform in work situations.

- Biological attributes and evolutionary behaviours may combine with acquired traits and behaviours to influence adaptation to work and work performance.

- Certain psychological and social behaviours influence work behaviours, especially the types of attachments or interactions employees demonstrate at work.

- Certain behaviours, traits, needs, values, attitudes and work skills influence the work ethic and work commitment that are developed during the lifespan of an employee.

- Cultural differences and values may also determine how employees will view work and work performance, also in the context of other individuals, groups and spiritual matters.

- The holistic, integrative or contextual nature of human behaviour and the individual employee in relation to other individuals, groups and the external environment also influence work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In practice

In the practice of work-related personality research, the researcher will decide to use an assessment technique such as a personality questionnaire to measure the selected variables and compare them with scores on work performance measures. These include supervisory ratings of employee work performance, training success and sales volumes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality factors as variables can be defined and measured according to various dimensions in terms of the classical personality approach. Here are some examples:

- **Single or multiple traits:** This dimension entails measuring only one specific personality trait, for example self-monitoring, self-efficacy, locus of control or multiple traits in a trait system such as the 3, 5 or 16 traits theories.

- **Cognitive and biologically based traits**: This dimension is applied when work-related traits are measured using a cognitive approach in terms of how people think and perceive things, problem-solving and learning styles, etc. On the other hand, some personality traits (such as introversion and sensation-seeking) have been verified to have a genetic, biological or physiological basis, for example.

- **Normal and abnormal traits**: Personality assessment techniques, such as the occupational personality questionnaire (OPQ) are used to measure normal personality traits or behaviour, which we demonstrate in our personal and work lives. Sometimes, however, we need to use more

clinically oriented assessment techniques to assess the intensity and frequency of certain abnormal or disorganised behaviour. These are used to measure depression, psychotism, anxiety-based behaviour, hypochondria, phobias and so on.

- **Dynamic versus stylistic traits**: When we try to assess so-called dynamic traits or behaviour, we try to determine possible deep-seated needs, fears and conflicts. These are not easily determined by objective questionnaires; their assessment requires skilled psychologists and in-depth interviewing and other observation techniques (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.4.2 Occupational or organisational psychology approaches

These approaches make use of work-related factors as independent variables at individual, group or organisational level. Work-related variables are identified and compared with personality factors. An example of this is developing job descriptions, after which personality tests are selected to determine the relationship or fit between the job descriptions and the work-related variables. This could help human resources management in functions like selection, training, performance appraisal and promotion (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Individual, group or organisational variables can be measured in various ways, for example by questionnaires, self-report techniques or interviews. These measures can be a single criterion, or combined or aggregate measures. The variables can be used within one organisation or between organisations. In the latter case, various organisations are analysed and compared for the applicability of the work-related measures of work-related variables and the personality variables (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.4.3 Approaches using work-specific individual differences

These approaches develop and apply work-related measures to find variables based on individual differences. These variables are predictors of specific work behaviours, for example absenteeism, withdrawal behaviours and work-related stress. They could also be used for selection within the organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

There are different types of measures of individual differences, including the following:

- **Narrow versus wide measures:** These measures are used to predict specific work behaviour, such as absenteeism, and its link with behaviours and various facets of behaviours, for example productivity and job satisfaction.

- **Single versus multiple traits:** Sometimes one specific trait or behaviour, such as anxiety or the Protestant work ethic, is measured. At other times a single test is used to measure multiple traits. For example, the NEO personality questionnaire is used to measure five important personality factors.

- **Self-report versus behavioural measures:** These include personality questionnaires or the application of behavioural instruments such as biodata, observing behaviour, taking physiological measures and using behaviour simulations in assessment centres.

- **Attitudinal versus attributional measures:** These include surveying attitudes to, perceptions of and beliefs about the working environment, measuring employees' beliefs about their attributes

and gauging their contribution to the causes and outcomes of work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.4.4 Person-work environment fit and misfit approaches

In these approaches the personality traits or characteristics of people and the characteristics of work environments are considered to find the desired fit or undesired misfit. In the context of human resources management, most practices are directed towards finding the best fit between employees and their work environments (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Examples of these practices are selection, promotion and career development assessments.

Measures of occupational fit or misfit are varied and can emphasise either the individual or the job. Another variation is to measure fit in a subjective, impressionistic manner in terms of how employees think they fit. Otherwise it could be measured more concretely on the basis of observed behaviours. Methods of measuring fit are also based on similarity or dissimilarity between people, or on complementary fit. Complementary fit emphasises that people differ, but that their different attributes allow them to complement one another (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

This approach gives rise to promising results in career choice applications and measures of stress and health.

2.4.5 Longitudinal work-related personality approaches

This type of research approach allows researchers to establish the real cause-and-effect relationship in work-related variables in individuals, organisations and work behaviour over longer periods. It is also used to determine how change over time influences the links between variables and the prediction of work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The value of the longitudinal research approach includes the following:

- Longitudinal research is arguably the most effective research, but it is also very expensive. It is very difficult to sustain and control all variables and changes over time. This type of research can have various forms.

- Longitudinal studies can be executed over short, medium and long periods. However, it is not always clear whether a research project should be classified as short-term, medium-term or long-term research.

- Research in and between organisations is possible. However, research in organisations can restrict the volume of variables involved, while research between organisations suffers loss of validity because it is difficult to control all variables.

- Retrospective studies entail getting data from historical or archival sources, but control is difficult and many influencing factors may be unknown or necessary data may not be available. In comparison, prospective research makes it possible to plan well, obtain all the necessary data and have good control; analysis of data can be postponed until all data has been captured.

Longitudinal research is arguably the best way to determine consistent patterns of work-related personality relationships, and to sort out issues regarding relationships and causes. However, problems in longitudinal research are ample. They include losing contact with original participants,

not having all the necessary data available, difficulties in controlling changes, loss of research personnel and high costs (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Longitudinal approaches are important because they verify the assumption that personality traits are consistent over time. They also verify that many personality factors are consistently related to occupational behaviours like position, promotion and salary.

2.4.6 Biographical or case study research approaches

Biographical or case study research approaches are research studies conducted using profiles of outstanding individuals, groups or organisations to examine work success variables. In a social context, and even a work context, it is possible that many South Africans would use Nelson Mandela as a role model (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Note that there are variations in the application of this approach:

- **Individual versus group studies:** The latter refers to the analysis of business groups or families in business. It also refers to analysing the attributes of training institutions or work organisations where these outstanding individuals work and study. In this regard entrepreneurial profiles are often constructed from psychological attributes, successful work behaviour, attributes from a person's background, their business environment and the organisation they work in.

- **Monetary versus other success criteria:** It is not always easy to decide which criteria to use to define excellence in a specific case or situation.

- **Impressionistic versus scholarly:** This means that successful entrepreneurs are often profiled in a vague, romantic and subjective way, while other criteria could be more concrete and objective in referring to specific successful behaviours and outcomes.

This approach is attractive because biographers often present successful individuals in a subjective, intuitive and idealistic way that reflects dreamlike desires. Research findings often include only the profiles of a few people; sometimes only one person's profile is used to measure personality and work success variables (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Activity 1

Instructions: Open the link and consider in which variation of biographical/case study research approach you think "10 lessons from the richest black South African – Patrice Motsepe" falls. http://buzzsouthafrica.com/richest-black-south-african-patrice-motsepe/

For detailed feedback, click on **Discussions** in the navigation bar of myUnisa. Open **Forum 6 Activity 1,** click on the relevant topic **Activity 1 – Biographical/case study research** and read the detailed feedback. To comment on the feedback, click on **Reply** at the bottom of the page and post your views by clicking on **Publish** at the bottom of the page or **Cancel** if you do not wish to post.

2.5 TYPES OF WORK PERFORMANCE VARIABLES IN WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH

This section deals with work performance factors, which are used mostly as dependent variables in work-related personality research. The changes in the nature of work and the progression in

personality research require ongoing revision or adaptation of variables to measure work performance in order to determine its relationship with personality. Although in this section we discuss primarily work performance factors, we also consider the other variables used in work-related personality research, for example the independent and moderator variables. The latter involve various types of influences in the interaction between employee, work, organisation and environment, which may moderate, mediate or intervene in the relationship between personality and work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

It is important that you have a clear grasp of what these research variables and concepts mean, and in which contexts they are used in work-related personality research.

Instructions: Open the following YouTube link https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K4sObJbN4JU for a general explanation of what constitutes a variable before we discuss these in the sections that follow.

2.5.1 Independent variables

As demonstrated in the YouTube video, independent variables refer to influencing or predictor variables. The predictors or independent variables obtained from personality theory and research concepts in work-related personality research are mostly scores on self-report questionnaires. However, personality type or individual difference measures can also be obtained from intelligence and ability tests, biodata measures, physiological measures, expert classifications or ratings in behaviour observation, like interviews, and measures to indicate positions or roles in organisations, etc. (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Predictor variables do not have meaning in and as of themselves, nor are they the trait or behaviour – they only represent what they measure. They represent internal traits, states and behaviours as respondents report them honestly and according to their self-knowledge, or as others see and evaluate the respondents. Predictor variables can never exactly correspond to the underlying trait, because respondents may try to control or manage what others think about them; for example, respondents may give socially desirable answers. As a result, predictor variables will have some reliability and validity problems. We will therefore never succeed in obtaining perfect correlation between a predictor variable and an underlying trait (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Nevertheless, as you know by now, psychological assessment has developed its own psychometric and other rules for scientific measurement. Best practices provide a body of evidence that many psychological measures are reliable and valid (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Examples of independent variables in the study of demographic factors and work performance may include age, gender and work experience.

2.5.2 Dependent variables

Variables that are influenced by independent variables are called dependent or outcome variables. Dependent or outcome variables in research and assessment refer to traits, states, behaviour and other measurable concepts. They are used to represent the quantity and quality levels of work behaviour and organisational performance called work performance factors (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The main objective is to define valid and reliable work performance factors, measure them accurately and find their relationship with measures for personality or individual differences, in order to predict

occupational behaviours successfully. In other words, the aim is to explain the impact of personality on work and to give an idea of how much variance in work behaviour can be explained by personality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.5.3 Moderator variables

The moderator variables refer to mediating variables. As you now know, a moderator or intervening variable serves as a "go-between" or mediator between other variables. It confounds the relationship, correlation or variation between other variables. An example could be that personality factors may moderate the interaction between ability and work performance. Another example is that age and gender may confound the relationship between personality factors such as ability and work performance. Like the independent and dependent variables, the moderator variables should also be identified, conceptualised and measured as accurately as possible (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Although certain types of concepts may traditionally be used more as independent, dependent or moderator variables, the role of a research variable will depend on the research problem, the questions and the related stated hypotheses. Thus you may find personality variables as dependent variables, and work performance variables as independent variables, as in "the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism". Age, which is used mostly as a moderator variable, may be used as an independent variable, for example in "a study of age differences as a predictor of work performance" (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.6   NATURE OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES IN WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH

The following is a description of the nature of the relationships that may be found between variables.

2.6.1 Correlation

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2012) refer to correlations as relationships between variables such as age, work performance and gender. For example, the relationship between age and work performance can be described as a correlation. Correlations are an estimate of the extent to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in another.

A positive correlation reflects a direct relationship where an increase in one variable corresponds to an increase in another. A negative correlation would mean that two variables are indirectly or inversely related where the increase in one variable is associated with a decrease in another (Welman et al, 2012). A correlation therefore refers to the strength and direction of a relationship between variables. It is a statistical indication, ranging between

Perfect inverse relationship	-1.00
Perfect direct relationship	+1.00
No relationship	0

Instruction: Open the article "Vocational identity trajectories: differences in personality and development of well-being". See table 1 on page 5 of the article. Consider which variables indicate positive relationships and which variables indicate negative relationships.

2.6.2   Relationship or cause?

Instructions: Follow the YouTube link "How ice cream kills" to gain an understanding of correlation vs causation: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VMUQSMFGBDo

In the previous section you saw that a correlation or relationship means that there is either a positive or negative change between two variables; however, one does not necessarily cause the other. Welman et al (2012) note that to imply a causal relationship between two variables, one variable needs to be regarded as a direct cause of another and no other variable. A causal relationship between two variables can imply a correlational relationship, but a correlational relationship does not necessarily indicate a causal relationship between them.

It is only when all influencing factors have been isolated and relationships have been verified and confirmed by a body of research that causality (for example that negative feedback leads to job dissatisfaction) can be explained (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.7   FACTORS INFLUENCING WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH

We have already indicated that many factors, controlled or uncontrolled, may influence the results of research into the relationship between personality or individual differences and work behaviour. In this section we briefly highlight these influences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- the way in which research variables, such as independent, dependent and moderator variables, are conceptualised

- the manner in which research variables are measured with well-designed or selected measures, for example personality tests and work performance measures; whether these techniques measure what they are supposed to and whether measures have construct validity

- whether well-designed or selected measures are used to measure variables, for example whether the researcher uses personality tests and work performance measures which will provide more or less similar, consistent or reliable results in various situations

- the execution of faulty research processes, for example comparing research groups which are not necessarily comparable, incorrect statistical analyses and not controlling confounding variables; examples include studying job satisfaction in the light of personality, but using different levels of jobs, and comparing personality constructs that were measured using different techniques

- the way in which the relationship or causal patterns between personality and work performance are interpreted: the interpretation will determine the assumptions made in the literature and in applying these findings in practices such as selection, promotion assessment and research

2.8   MEASURING WORK FACTORS IN WORK-RELATED RESEARCH

There are many ways to measure work performance factors. However, the same rules for scientific measurement should also apply here. Many problems in applying work-related criteria to personality assessment are the result of vague and inaccurate work performance criteria, and the way these criteria are conceptualised and measured (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Performance measures or ratings should be executed shortly after the actual job behaviour has taken place. Sometimes a specific aspect of job performance is measured, for example satisfaction with salary. In other instances, overall work performance may be measured, for example when general

work satisfaction, which includes many aspects of job performance and the organisation, is measured (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Work performance measures should be as close as possible to the organisational goals at three levels:

- Behaviours refer to actual observed or measured work behaviours, for example volume and accuracy in completing a task or product.

- Results refer to the effectiveness or quality of the work behaviours involved in completed work, for example indicators by objective measures of absence and work speed.

- Organisational effectiveness may include measuring all employees' behaviour and results as well as of business success, for example whether business goals relating to budgets, sales or profit have been achieved.

Work performance criteria can be classified into hard and soft data, which can be measured as explained (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

SOFT CRITERIA
- Work habits
- Work climate
- Attitudes/feelings
- Skills
- Initiative
- Development/advancement

HARD CRITERIA
- Output
- Costs
- Time
- Quality
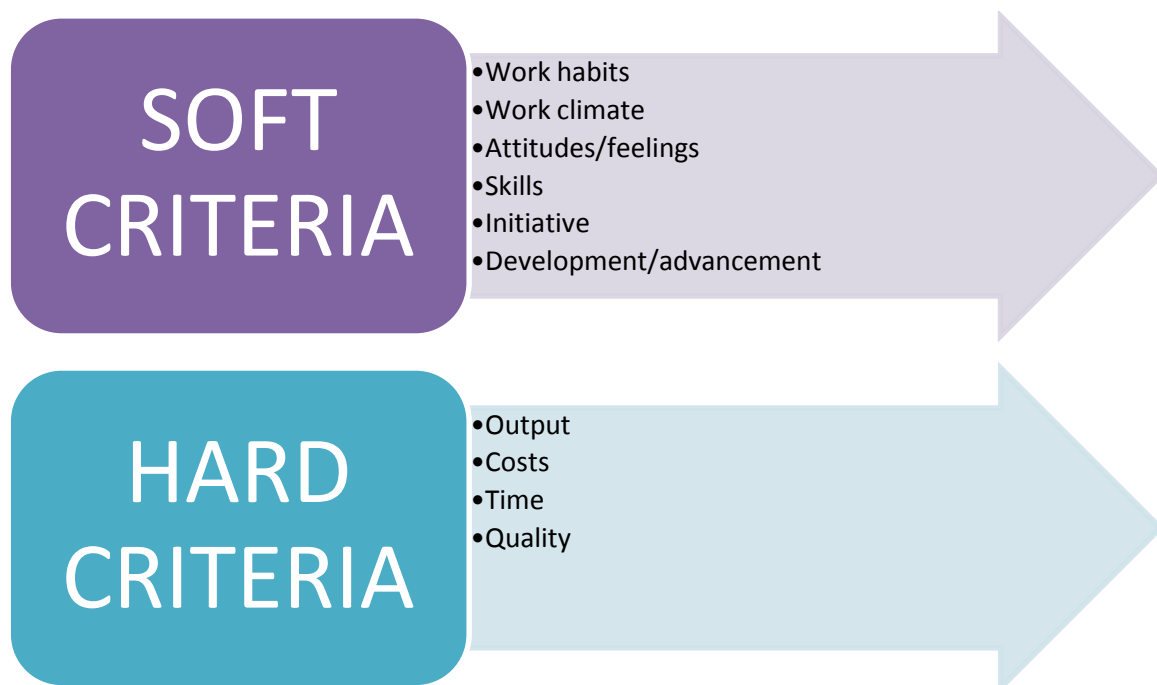
Figure 6: Hard and soft work performance criteria

A single method or a combination of methods could use hard and soft criteria to measure work performance factors:

- Personnel and organisational records could show the incidence of illness, lateness, absence, accidents and work stoppages, the amount of profit generated, the extent of turnover, the duration of employment and the number of complaints from clients.

- Specific inventories could be used to measure certain types of job performance or behaviours.

- Supervisory ratings on specific or general aspects of work performance, for example general work performance and promotability, could be examined.

- Various types of performance appraisal, for example by management and colleagues, could be used.

- Profits or income and other organisational success criteria could be investigated.

- Productivity volumes in organisations could be studied.

Behavioural observations and ratings, for example of leadership behaviour, could be scrutinised.

You may obtain examples of many other work performance measures by using your knowledge and experience, talking to employed persons or experts in organisations, or reading expert sources on the topic.

2.9   INTEGRATED WORK-RELATED PERSONALITY RESEARCH MODELS

The approaches to the study of relationships between personality and work-related behaviour have advantages in and of themselves and in combination with other approaches. They are also applied in research and assessment. Literature indicates that with the use of improved research models and techniques, and more accurate assessment of personality and work performance variables, personality measures have become useful predictors of specific job-related criteria, yielding significant correlations of at least 0,20 and explaining at least 15% to 30% variance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following research models are efforts to integrate approaches and to specify certain personality and other factors that can be used in work-related personality research and in specific assessment applications, for example in assessment for selection.

2.9.1 A multifactor research model

A multifactor work-related personality research model illustrates the complex possibilities in the relationships between personality or individual differences and work-related variables (Furnham, 1995, 1997, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).
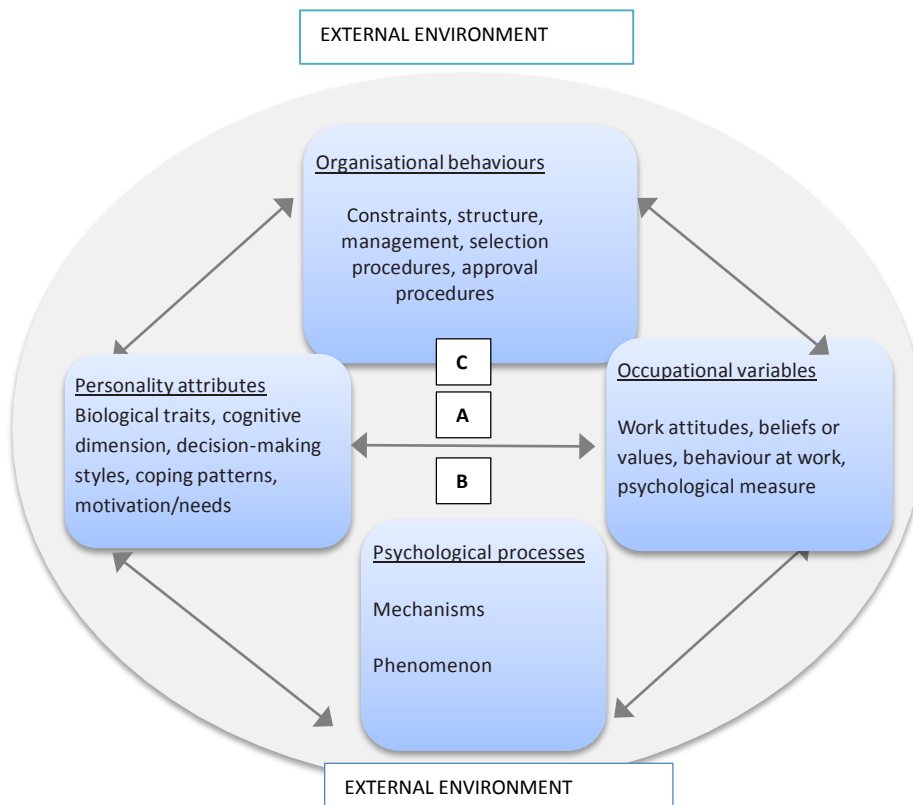
Figure 7: TII5A model for work-related personality research

Furnham's multifactored research model explains the interaction between personality and work behaviour according to four paths. See figure 7.

1. Firstly, the relationship between personality factors and work or organisational variables is not direct and can be influenced by many other factors (illustrated in figure 7 by line A). Line A indicates a two-way relationship between personality and work. Personality or work factors can have mutual or interactional influence; personality may influence work behaviours or create the predisposition for them. But work variables may in turn influence the expression or functioning of personality through the process of socialisation in organisations. This relationship between personality factors and work-related behaviours is indirect and multicausal. This makes the exact prediction of work-related personality behaviours extremely difficult.

2. Block B illustrates the possible mechanisms, processes or phenomena according to which work-related personality behaviour can be explained, measured and studied, i.e. the nature of relationships between variables, factors influencing work-related personality research and measuring work factors. As we have discussed in the previous sections, these concepts are sometimes very complex or very simplistic, yet they enable the researcher to relate the concepts of locus of control, self-efficacy, introversion, extroversion and conscientiousness or a whole system of traits to certain occupational behaviours.

3. The relationship between personality and work variables is further influenced by organisational behaviours (block C) like certain structures, selection and other assessment procedures, informal and formal ways of doing things, rules and reward systems. All these factors mediate the contract or relationship between employees and the organisation and its expectations. For some employees it may be the ideal person-job fit, while others may experience misfit, incongruence or dissatisfaction because their own profile and that of the organisation do not fit.

4. A fourth path we want to add is the influence of the broader environment on personality and organisational or work performance. Individual differences stem from employee history (we will discuss some of these concepts in the following learning unit). Changes in surrounding environments, for example political, economic and work technology, impact on employee personality and related behaviours. An example of these spill-over effects is the work-home context in which family responsibilities have been shown to have work-related consequences, such as absenteeism and turnover. Environmental demands may lead to products and employees being less efficient, job losses and health problems.

2.9.2 An assessment research model

Furnham (1997) developed an assessment and research model to predict work behaviours (see figure 8). The model in figure 8 is derived from figure 7, which represents a specification and simplification of the human factors used to predict occupational behaviour. The model illustrates the various personality and other individual difference factors commonly used in various types of assessment to predict occupational or work behaviour.

In this model personality is central. Together with personality traits, ability, intelligence, motivation and biographical factors, personality consists of various dimensions. The bidirectional arrows indicate the reciprocal influence of all these factors and show that each factor and a combination of factors can influence work behaviour. A possible missing indication, which we have added, is that the

consequences of occupational behaviour may have a feedback influence on the expression or functioning of personality and related factors, and also on performance behaviour.

The basic assumption of this model is that the work behaviour of an individual employee can be predicted from the linear addition of one or more factors, like personality (e.g. introversion), ability (e.g. spatial ability), temporal states (e.g. mood) and measures of situational or environmental influences (e.g. noise or temperature). All these predictor variables will be used in terms of their importance for the work performance behaviour variables that are being predicted, for example performance ratings. Obviously this assumption requires the predictor variables, such as personality, and dependent variables, such as absenteeism, to be defined correctly and measured as accurately as possible.

We believe that figure 8 in fact illustrates most of the personality or individual differences used in assessment for personnel selection in order to predict occupational behaviour.
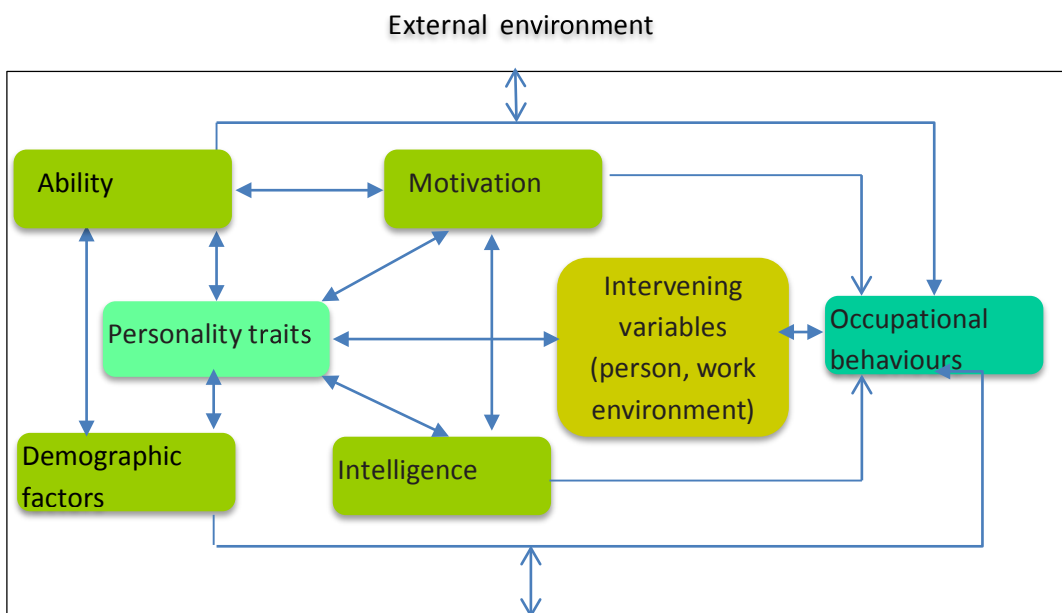
Figure 8: Assessment and research model

2.9.3 The use of these models in research

We know from research that personality factors, as illustrated in figure 8, are valid predictors of work performance. Furnham (1997) suggests that the following patterns of relationship or correlations may be possible findings of research into the relationship between personality and work behaviour:

- A positive linear relationship indicates that the stronger the personality trait, such as ability and conscientiousness, the greater or the stronger the work behaviour or occupational success.

- Plateauing means that if the personality trait, such as ability, cannot develop any further, no improvement in work behaviour will take place. In assessment practice this means knowing what point in the results of the personality tests should be used as a cut-off point to select only employees who can still develop their abilities and work behaviour.

- Exponential indicates that people with very strong personality attributes will manifest a similarly strong increase in occupational performance – much stronger than employees with moderate ability.

- Curvilinear means that there is an optimal relationship between personality and expected work performance; if the relationship is unbalanced, unwanted work behaviour may be the result.

- Negatively linear describes a relationship in which a strong personality trait may manifest the opposite in work behaviour, such as very poor work performance. This may indicate that a person finds job tasks too easy or that other factors influence the work behaviour negatively.

- An asymptotic correlation indicates that low ability will result in successful work performance, which in time may lead to the belief that ability cannot be linked to this work performance.

- No relationship means that the level of work performance is not caused by the expected personality trait, but is influenced by other factors.

- Ability-specific/personality-specific correlation indicates that only a specific level of a personality trait is required for successful job performance.

- Biomodality refers to a situation where two levels of ability, for example moderate to high and moderate to low, are acceptable for successful job performance. This situation may occur when applicants from different populations are considered or when products of different quality are aimed at different markets.

These possible outcomes are related to the nature or direction of correlation or causality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011), in other words how personality and work behaviour influence each other. Correlation between variables does not necessarily explain causal patterns. These research findings could be interpreted as follows:

- There may be no relationship between personality and work performance measures.

- Variables are too subtle or unstable to measure or other strong influences cancel out the possible relationship.

- Personality, perhaps with other influences, in fact determines or causes work performance.

- Work performance or the organisational structures and culture may cause or determine personality. For example, a person who works in a high-security job environment may evolve personality traits and behaviours characterised by suspicion and a strong sense of accuracy.

- There is a two-way, mutual determination or causal pattern between personality and work behaviour: one variable may be more dominant, but both have impact. An example may be a person with very extroverted personality traits who follows a career as an actor in the entertainment industry.

- The relationship between personality and work performance may be mixed or multifaceted, and may involve various types of interaction in different situations.

- Both personality and work performance are caused by other variables, which also influence the type of relationship between personality and work performance.

2.10   ETHICS@WORK

Unisa has a policy on research ethics which you can view under **Additional Resources** for your own self-development. In this document Unisa promotes integrity in research. While you now know what work-related personality research entails, it is always important to conduct research in an ethical manner and with integrity.

Item 6.2.7 in the Unisa research policy states as follows: *"Researchers have a responsibility towards those involved in or affected by their work. They should make reasonable efforts to anticipate and to guard against the possibility of their research having undesirable or harmful consequences. They should take reasonable corrective steps when they come across misuse or misrepresentation of their research. They must be prepared to take responsibility and to be held accountable for all aspects and consequences of their research activities."*

2.11 ENRICH YOUR LEARNING

These practical exercises are not compulsory but have been designed to enrich your learning. Now that you have completed learning unit 2, you are familiar with work-related personality research. Do you have a burning research question in your mind that you would like to research? If so, write down your research question based on what you have just learnt. Consider the following:

- Is it a relationship or causation you are interested in? Explain.
- What are your variables?
- Which variables are independent and which are dependent? Explain.

For detailed feedback, click on **Discussions** in the navigation bar on myUnisa. Open **Forum 7 learning unit 2 feedback discussions,** click on the relevant topic **Research question** and read the detailed feedback. To comment on the feedback, click on **Reply** at the bottom of the page and post your views by clicking on **Publish** at the bottom of the page or **Cancel** if you do not wish to post.

2.12   CONCLUSION

Work-related personality research has entrenched various applications of personality assessment in the work context. It has shown that personality assessment is a significant predictor of work

performance. Current emphasis on improved analyses of the theoretical or measurement constructs for personality and work performance factors, more accurate assessment techniques and better research procedures have led to a renewed interest in the place of personality research and assessment in the work life. It has also led to an increase in positive results in the relationship or correlations between personality factors and work performance factors (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

2.13 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Under the **Self-assessment** tab on myUnisa, select **LU 2 Self-assessment** and answer the five questions by consulting your e-reserve article "The relationship between personality traits and work performance of call centre agents" or link to the Unisa institutional repository http://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/1853

You do not have to read the whole dissertation for this exercise.

Individualised feedback will be provided on submission of the assessment.

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Variable	Research
Research paradigms	Research model
Dependent	Independent
Moderator	Correlation
Criteria	Relationship

LEARNING UNIT 3   BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS AND WORK PERFORMANCE

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this learning unit is to explain the concept of biographical data and the different types of biographical factors. A second aim is to create an awareness of the importance of considering biographical differences between employees, and the possible influence of these factors on understanding human and work performance. The psychologist in the work context should understand and know the role that biographical factors may have in the relationship between personality factors and work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In applied psychology, as in industrial and organisational psychology, the question is often asked whether biographical factors are a better predictor of work performance or whether personality factors are the better predictor. Another question is how biographical factors influence the relationship between personality factors and work performance. Psychologists who work with employees should have the ability to use biographical information to assess possible differences between applicants regarding their past with a view to predicting work performance. In this learning unit we inform you about these questions and requirements, and supplement other learning units on the relationship between personality and work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 3.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 3 - Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	No additional resources for this learning unit

3.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 3 Biographical factors and work performance	Explain what personality and individual differences are with reference to biographical factors, their influence on work performance and their role in work-related personality research. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) Biographical and demographic factors are explained. (2) A developmental model or approach is presented to indicate how biographical factors influence human functioning. (3) The various aspects of biographical factors are described. (4) The practical use of biographical factors in research and assessment is illustrated. (5) The various types of biographical factors influencing the relationship between personality and work performance are explained.

3.4 NATURE OF BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS

Biographical factors refer to certain facts about a person's social status, life history and environmental experiences. These facts include age, gender, disability, language grouping, income, marital status,

educational level or qualifications, type of work, work history or experience, nationality, religious affiliation and race or ethnic group (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Foxcroft and Roodt (2015) state that people function in several contexts concurrently: in the biological context, which is a person's physical body structures and functions, and in an intrapsychic context, which is a person's abilities, emotions and personal dispositions. Biological and intrapsychic processes are regarded as interdependent components of an individual. However, because people do not live in a vacuum, we also need to consider their social context, which refers to aspects of the environment in which we all live.

The concept of demographic factors refers more specifically to a person's status pertaining to geographical location factors, for example urban or rural origin, ethnic or race group, and factors related to birth, death and marriage (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Items in application forms or questionnaires may focus on biographical factors like the following:

- social orientation
- economic stability
- work ethics
- interpersonal confidence
- parental relationships and control
- various types of interests
- intellectual orientation (e.g. reading material)
- types of activities enjoyed
- academic or study attitude
- religious activity
- sibling or child rivalry
- disabilities

Some items in biographical factors represent "hard" items that are concrete and factual data which can easily be verified for correctness, such as age, gender and qualifications. "Soft" items involve more abstract data like value judgements, aspirations, motivations, attitudes and expectations. The data obtained from questions about how a person would act in situations to determine assertiveness or social orientation could be called "soft" data (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Note: For practical reasons, we use only the concept of biographical factors from now on to refer to biographical and demographic data.

3.5 VALUE OF BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN WORK PERFORMANCE

Figure 9 indicates the factors involved in the relationship between personality and behaviour in organisational or work performance.
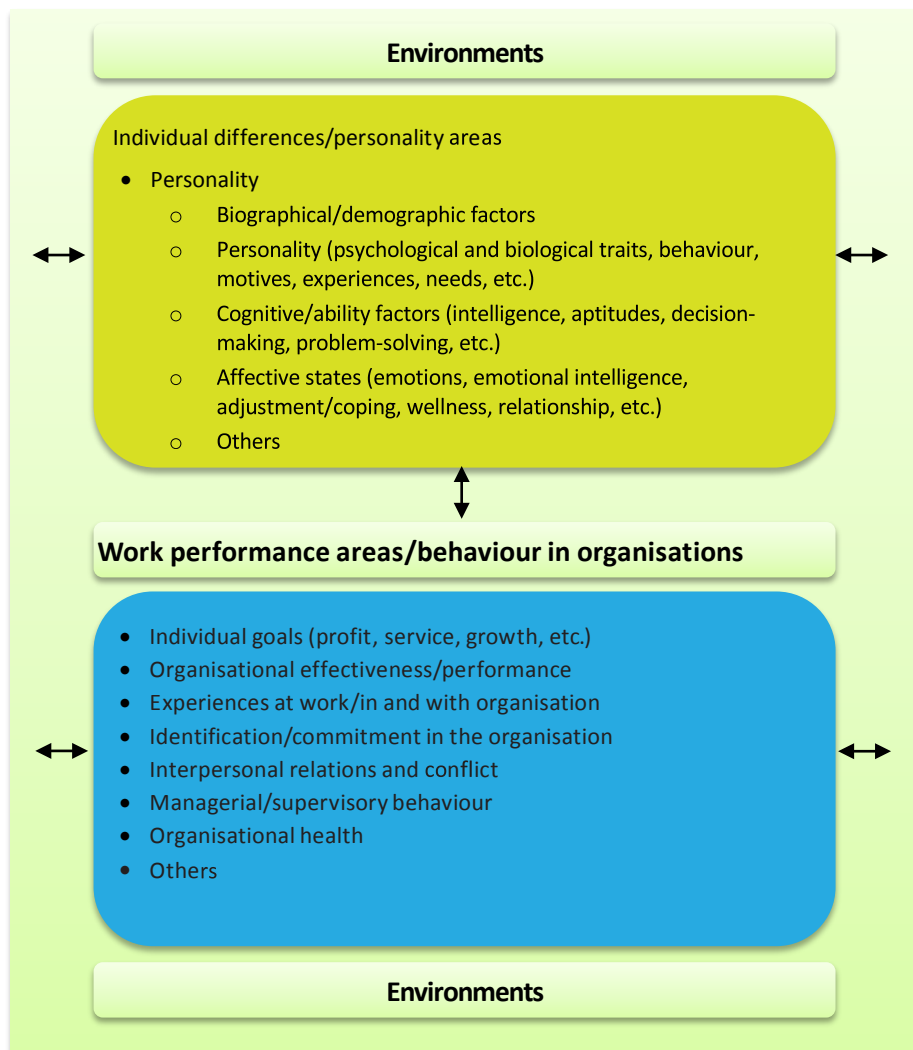
Figure 9: Individual differences and organisational or work performance factors

Note the interaction between biographical factors as part of individual differences and work performance.

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) explain that biographical factors provide an alternative assessment to ability and personality tests for predicting a variety of work-related criteria, such as the following:

• general work performance

• period of employment

• sales success

• training proficiency

• supervisory ratings

- absenteeism

- accidents

- employee dishonesty

- other negative behaviours

Previous research findings concluded that only biographical factors and peer evaluations in performance appraisals have evidence of validity that is equal to or better than validity found with tests, especially personality tests (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Current research such as a meta-analysis conducted by Morris, Daisley, Wheeler and Boyer (2015) suggests that a number of factors need to be taken into account when considering the validity of personality tests. Examples of these factors are features of the assessments that could enhance validity, such as the content of assessments, standardisation of data collection and the processes of integrating the final product into a report.

We need to keep all of this in mind when we use biographical factors to determine or predict human development and performance in specific contexts like work performance. Some biographical factor items may be related to assessment of personality, because a person's capability and readiness for a certain job situation, or whether a person will be able to adapt to and cope in situations can be deduced. However, predictions made with biographical factors are not as effective as those made with ability tests, assessment centres, job knowledge and work samples (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.6 FACTORS DETERMINING BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Biographical factors may, in some instances, be similar to all people or groups, but are mostly unique to each person. This is due to the fact that each person's specific circumstances, perceptions and experiences in life differ.

There are social and environmental factors that may directly or indirectly influence the development of biographical factors and the functioning of human behaviour in general, and more specifically in career and work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.6.1 Social factors determining biographical data

The following factors determine biographical data:

- cultural values

- habits

- myths and rituals

- social roles and expectations

- leadership styles

- interpersonal relationships

- communication patterns

- family influences

- economic conditions (e.g. poverty, prosperity, unemployment, war and peace)

- political ideologies

- social constructions in racism, gender and career inequalities, and other forms of intolerance and discrimination

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) state that these factors can be very influential, not only in shaping biographic details or personality, but also in career and job opportunities and performance. The factors can be changed by forced or unforced cultural changes, transitions in other or new social roles, increased expectations and changing perceptions of historical events.

Social factors include the influence of historical and life events, cultural aspects, opportunities, personality, ageing, development and ways of coping with life's problems. In this respect the time in history and the types of opportunities people of different groups have will be influenced in different ways – as will their lives and coping skills.

Human development regarding biographical factors is influenced by many more factors than only the interaction between development and history (Baltes, 1987). There are three broad historical factors which interact to influence development:

- Normative age-graded influences bring about the usual biological and social changes that take place at certain ages. These include going to school, puberty, menopause, marriage and certain physical changes owing to ageing.
- Normative history-graded influences concern historical events and traumas such as war, natural disasters and other events which influence all or many people at the same time to more or less the same degree.
- Non-normative influences refer to events experienced by certain people only or experienced in different ways by different people, such as first loves, a first job, job losses, divorce, illness, promotion, moving house and death in the family.

Personal circumstances and demographic variables, such as age, gender, race and social class, determine how these factors affect each individual. In terms of the South African context, the emphasis is on the effect of historical, sociopolitical and other factors on things such as self-esteem, racism and local knowledge.

3.6.2 Environmental factors determining biological data

The interaction between biographical factors and environment is best explained by Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems model of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). This model views development as a dynamic process in which the individual and the environment have a mutual and reciprocal influence on development. This model explains the multiple environmental and external influences, and also the circular influence between person and environment, as follows:

- The first level of influence, the microsystem, is the person and their own functioning in the living environment, which consists of those people and organisations with whom the most intimate and frequent contact occurs, for example parents, family and peers. The individual is seriously

influenced by, but in terms of personality and frame of reference, also influences and restructures this immediate environment to an important degree. People also create new sources of influence for themselves and others.

- The second level of influence, or mesosystem, is created by the interactions between elements of the microsystem. For example, schools, churches, employers and neighbours sometimes exclude certain people because of their language or ethnic group. These interactions will have serious consequences in more than one domain of development and human functioning.

- The exosystem involves elements outside the individual's immediate contacts that may still influence him or her. These may be members of the extended family, friends, social clubs, professional organisations, a family member's workplace or institutions in the community, such as health facilities.

- The fourth system, the macrosystem, represents a fluid type of influence in that it focuses on specific cultural and societal values, habits and laws, and socioeconomic and political systems. These influences may be the most powerful in human development, because they often regulate exactly how the individual or group may or must live. Examples of these influences are education, finances, housing, career life and employment policies when actions exclude certain people from participating.

A final system, the chronosystem, extends the environment into a third dimension. Traditionally the passage of time was treated as synonymous with chronological age. However, further research seems to indicate that time is not only an attribute of aging but also a property of the surrounding environment over the life course, but across historical time. The chronosystem encompasses change not only in the characteristics of a person, but also the environment in which that person lives. Examples of these influences are students who, through being deprived of proper schooling, find themselves disadvantaged in the university system where their peers from affluent areas who were not deprived of proper schooling are at an advantage.

3.7 BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF WORK PERFORMANCE

As we have mentioned, various types of biographical factors can be identified. In the following sections some of these factors and their influence on work performance are considered. The rationale for using biographical data is that past events and behaviours can predict future events and behaviour (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013).

In general, it seems that biographical factors have better predictive validity for clerical and sales jobs than for managerial and other high-level or more complex jobs. Many findings and applications also use biographical factors in combination to enhance their predictive efficiency. For example, age, education and period of employment in combination may yield higher correlations with performance criteria than only one of these factors (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.7.1 Age as a predictor of work performance

Age is one of the biographical factors used most in assessment and research to explain psychological differences. It is also used to predict work performance outcomes, for example number of sales and productivity (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In an effort to improve the predictive efficiency of biographic factors, age is also often used in combination with other variables, for example with gender, marital status, period of employment and type of employment. Combinations of biographical factors are mostly considered in the selection and promotion of employees (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Age and age-related factors can be used in various ways to predict performance, focusing on

- age groups, for example 18 to 20 and 21 to 22

- birth order, for example firstborn

- seniority and experience index, for example years in a job and post level

In the work context, age has significant predictive value for training success, high work performance, sales success, withdrawal and success in types of jobs. With regard to absenteeism and turnover, for example, older or more senior employees tend to be less absent and will stay in jobs for longer, which could indicate more commitment and a better developed sense of responsibility (Anthun & Innstrand, 2016).

Past research such as by Ledimo and Matjie (2011) and present research, as you have seen, seems to indicate the following:

- **Turnover**: Age relates significantly to period of employment; that is, the older employees get, the less they will change jobs. Thus personnel turnover may be less for older employees. This may be due to the fact that older employees have fewer job opportunities. They also have more family or financial responsibilities, and they want to protect their accumulated benefits such as pension, salary and medical benefits in a workplace. A downside to these age-turnover tendencies is that older employees may enjoy less job satisfaction because they get fewer promotion and development opportunities and do the same work for longer periods (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- **Absenteeism:** With regard to withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism, it seems as if older employees have higher rates of unavoidable absenteeism. For example, older people may be absent owing to health problems and longer recovery periods. Younger employees tend to be more absent for avoidable reasons, like attending social and cultural activities.

- **Productivity:** It is often believed that older employees are less productive because of health-related problems, loss of capabilities, knowledge and skills, and low motivation because of many years of service. Quite a lot of South African research indicates that these perceptions are untrue – many older employees in many types of jobs are as productive as younger employees in the sense that they keep up their skills and knowledge, and can cope with the physical demands of their work. If their job competencies do decrease, they compensate for this with their greater experience and wisdom.

- **Job satisfaction**: Research findings about job satisfaction are not definitive. Older employees generally experience increased job satisfaction from the age of 40, and are even satisfied with their jobs up to the age of 60. Research findings seem to be contaminated by comparisons of employees from dissimilar occupations, for example professional and non-professional occupations. Economic insecurity experienced by older employees and the fact that companies may neglect older employees may also contribute to lower job satisfaction scores.

3.7.2 Gender as a predictor of work performance

Some research findings suggest that perceptions of work and work performance are in fact different for men and women (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

More recently, a major influx of women employees at all levels and in all types of work has created more opportunities for women to develop in work tasks and career competencies. Moerdyk et al (2015) indicate that through the current political environment of South Africa, women have plenty of opportunities to move into leadership positions; however, the fact that women, who make up 54% of the South African population, are still not represented well at more senior and managerial job levels still raises questions about unfair labour practices (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It appears as though women have made clear gains in terms of quantity of employment over recent years, but the quality of these positions seems unclear (Kabeer, 2016).

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to major criticism levelled against many career development theories and career guidance practices because they fail to explain and facilitate career development for women. In many walks of life male and female perceptions of gender roles have changed, and labour and human resources policies and practices which emphasise equal opportunities in work life have been adopted.

Some differences are reported between men and women in predicting work performance based on problem-solving skills, sociability, motivation, learning ability and drive, but these differences are not always consistent. However, it is reported that women may have less authority and fewer aspirations, which can hamper their success.

The following are some gender differences that play a role in the prediction of work performance:

- Fontana (2000) asserts that women may behave more maturely at work than most of their male counterparts because they have more emotional intelligence. Moerdyk et al (2015), on the other hand, comment that women are perceived as being too emotional to handle high-level positions.

- According to most research findings, men's work performance exceeds women's work performance. This is mainly the finding of research emphasising male expectations to achieve in male-related tasks and jobs. Research and theory also make a distinction between males and females in work-related issues, for example occupational interests, types of jobs, preferred rewards, need for job satisfaction and occupational values (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Some research results favour women because they show that women are more satisfied or more achievement-oriented than men in the same jobs. Women who demonstrate a greater predisposition for transformational leadership, where women balance a degree of ladylikeness,

gentleness and community orientation, are being noticed in organisations as successful and earmarked for promotional positions (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

- An important factor about gender is marital status. Research indicates that married employees have greater family and financial responsibilities, and as a result they also display a better work ethic and higher levels of job satisfaction. Their levels of absenteeism and turnover are also lower. Recent research has indicated that there is a shift away from gender stereotypes where men are participating more fully in family roles as caretakers of children, home and aging parents.

- Perceptions of withdrawal behaviour are that women are more absent than men owing to family responsibilities. Research suggests more lateness, absenteeism and turnover for women if they have no or little support from family or other community members to help with childcare and other family responsibilities. Women may change jobs more easily if the circumstances in a new job allow them to meet the demands and requirements of home and family life and responsibilities.

- Research results suggest that if influencing factors like age, educational level, post level and organisational level are controlled, women tend to emphasise job outcomes. These outcomes are, for example, pleasant work relationships and working conditions. Findings also suggest that women may have a tendency to utilise good relationships and teamwork, empathy, participation or collaboration to achieve task success.

Job satisfaction cannot be coupled definitively with gender. Job satisfaction factors seem to vary according to personal circumstances and job attitudes. For example, working mothers prefer flexible schedules, part-time work and the ability to attend to family matters at work by telecommunicating (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Moerdyk et al (2015) explain that personalities are driven by opportunity, which means we develop characteristics required to fill our roles, meet our goals and overcome challenges presented along the way. Currently we are seeing greater assertiveness in women leaders. As both men and women take advantage of increased opportunities to participate in once stereotyped roles, we could see many of the gender predictions of work performance fading.

3.7.3 Types and levels of jobs as predictors of work performance

Job level and type of job are often used to predict successful work performance, or to distinguish between successful and unsuccessful work performance. Examples are research engineers, oil industry researchers, pharmaceutical industry researchers, bus drivers and police officials.

Biographical information has been used to assess work performance in various types of jobs, like clerical, skilled and unskilled jobs.

Furnham (1995) reports on a study by Walther on clerical employees. In the study the following attributes are demonstrated by above-average or successful clerical employees:

- prefer to work closely with supervisors

- considerate of supervisory requirements

- prefer variety and dislike routine tasks

- conscientious, want to do things well according to set standards

- sociable and like to work with people

- steer clear of aggressive behaviour

- enjoy tasks which influence other people through social relationships

These attributes clearly differentiate between successful and unsuccessful clerical employees.

Some studies examine and compare employees in sales and managerial jobs using various biographical factors (Furnham, 1995). These biographical factors include success as parents, adjustment, general health, financial responsibility, vocational satisfaction, school achievement and higher education achievement. For sales consultants, financial responsibility and early family responsibility have been found to be powerful predictors of sales success.

3.7.4 Education or training level as a predictor of work performance

Generally job-related qualifications and training are expected to enhance job performance. Higher levels of academic education should be related to higher productivity and work performance. These assumptions are verified by research on job and career success (Furnham, 1995). However, educational achievement does not necessarily relate to personal success.

Literature suggests that job success ascribed to academic or educational achievement may also be influenced by other personality factors. In one study, personality traits are measured by a personality questionnaire. The creative researcher, for example, has been found to be ambitious, enduring, seeking definiteness, dominant, a leader, aggressive, independent, unsupportive and not submissive.

In comparison, effective teachers are liberal, sociable, leaders, extroverted, non-anxious, objective, supportive, non-authoritarian, non-defensive, intelligent and aesthetically sensitive (Rushton, Murray & Paunonen in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

3.7.5 Work experience as a predictor of work performance

Work experience as an age-related variable is not necessarily an effective predictor of job and career success. Hunter and Hunter (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) write that experience does not predict work performance.

Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) assert that work experience has very little predictive validity for productivity, supervisory jobs and selling tasks. It is also possible that not all specific work-related experiences will ensure successful work performance. This finding suggests that when tasks are very difficult and complex, very specific task-related experience and training may be useful in predicting work performance.

Often, in selection, promotion and personnel cuts, senior applicants will get the benefit; however, indications are that seniority status may have little to do with successful work performance (Furnham, 1995).

Years of service or seniority are often regarded as qualifying work experience. Senior employees in an organisation may be in a job or position for a long time, and may have good experience and feelings of loyalty towards their own and the company's interests. These attributes may relate to fewer absences, good productivity and high job satisfaction.

3.7.6 Group membership as a predictor of work performance

Group membership includes various types of variables, for example sociocultural and related aspects like race or ethnic groups, religion and minority and majority groups. Like genetic factors, group membership can explain uniqueness and similarities. It can also explain the way in which different life roles are expressed and lived out by people through their personality and behaviour.

In a group context, as in work organisations and countries, culture is important. Culture can be defined as the collective norms, values, beliefs, thinking and behaviours based on past events which characterise the unique or distinctive ways in which people do things. It may influence personality and behaviours. Culture will be influenced by many factors – and biographical factors are important here (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In general, biographical factors have been applied with more or less equal success in different countries to predict work success. Cascio used biographical information of minority and majority group members to predict job turnover, while Nevo used it to predict job success for both men and women in the Israeli army (Furnham, 1995). In the latter study, the biographical information used were the fathers' educational and occupational levels, the mothers' age, the intensity of athletic activities and sound school learning attitudes.

3.8 APPLICATION OF BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

Industrial psychologists and other experts in human resources management and assessment should be able to use biographical information in certain decisions, for example in research, selection, promotion and training (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

As we have mentioned, biographical factors are a viable alternative in combination with ability and personality testing, and many research findings support this assumption. In fact, in human resources assessment practices, biographical information is obtained by means of application forms, questionnaires, interviews and reference checking. These always form part of assessment batteries, for example ability and personality tests, work samples and assessment centres (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

As in all forms of scientific assessment, users of biographical information should adhere to good practice requirements and principles of psychological assessment. These include constructing biographical questionnaires according to acceptable standards, and ensuring good reliability and validity. The same ethical and legal requirements also apply when we use biographical information to select employees and decide about their occupational life.

Biodata is used in the following ways in psychological assessment practice (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

• to obtain information for psychological research

• to determine occupational capability in order to predict work performance

- to develop a shortlist of potential candidates for employment, selection, promotion, training, etc.

- in conjunction with other types of assessment techniques, for example as part of a selection battery consisting of ability and personality measures

- to verify information (e.g. qualifications and work experience) or data obtained from other techniques (e.g. psychological tests)

Data can be obtained through application forms, biographical questionnaires, interviews, records and references. Biographical items (excluding job capabilities) may also play a role in determining the personal adjustment or suitability of people to cope in certain work situations. These attributes of employees can be demonstrated in biographical data concerning work history, but can also be measured by other personality measures and the history of an employee.

Application forms are often constructed for specific use in an organisation. Biographical questionnaires are designed by researchers to obtain only that biographical information which is required in a specific research design (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Biographical questionnaires can appear in a number of formats in organisations:

- Application blanks are the most widely used format used to sample past and present behaviour; however, these could contain legally indefensible questions such as questions not directly related to the job or questions that constitute an invasion of privacy (Cascio & Aguinis, 2013).

- In an open format, applicants simply answer questions, respond to statements or provide information. Assessors then analyse the information or "score" the completed biographical items according to certain weighted norms or other guidelines. Many work organisations use their own application forms that they have designed themselves.

- The weighted application blank (WAB) is used mostly as a rapid screening device (Cascio & Aguinis, 2013) and has items which are weighted using a numerical value, or a scale is allocated and indicated as such in the questionnaire. The respondents choose their answers according to this scale (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Biographical information blanks (BIBs) are closely related to WABs, but they are in multiple-choice format covering aspects of an individual's life experiences, hobbies, health and social relations, present values, interests, opinions and preferences (Cascio & Aguinis, 2013).

3.9 CONCLUSION

In this learning unit we indicated that individuals do indeed differ with regard to various biographical factors which shape how they develop and behave in various life roles. Examples are the differences between the sexes, in age, education, post level and socioeconomic factors, and in work perceptions and experiences. In most areas of biographical information more specific and repeatable research on differences between individuals, and in and between groups and organisations, is still needed. This research will have to verify and increase the existing evidence that biographical factors are predictors of work performance.

3.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Biographical	Moderating
Confounding	Ecological systems
Gender	Age
Group affiliation	Education level
Post level	Period of employment
Socioeconomic status	

LEARNING UNIT 4:   COGNITIVE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND WORK PERFORMANCE
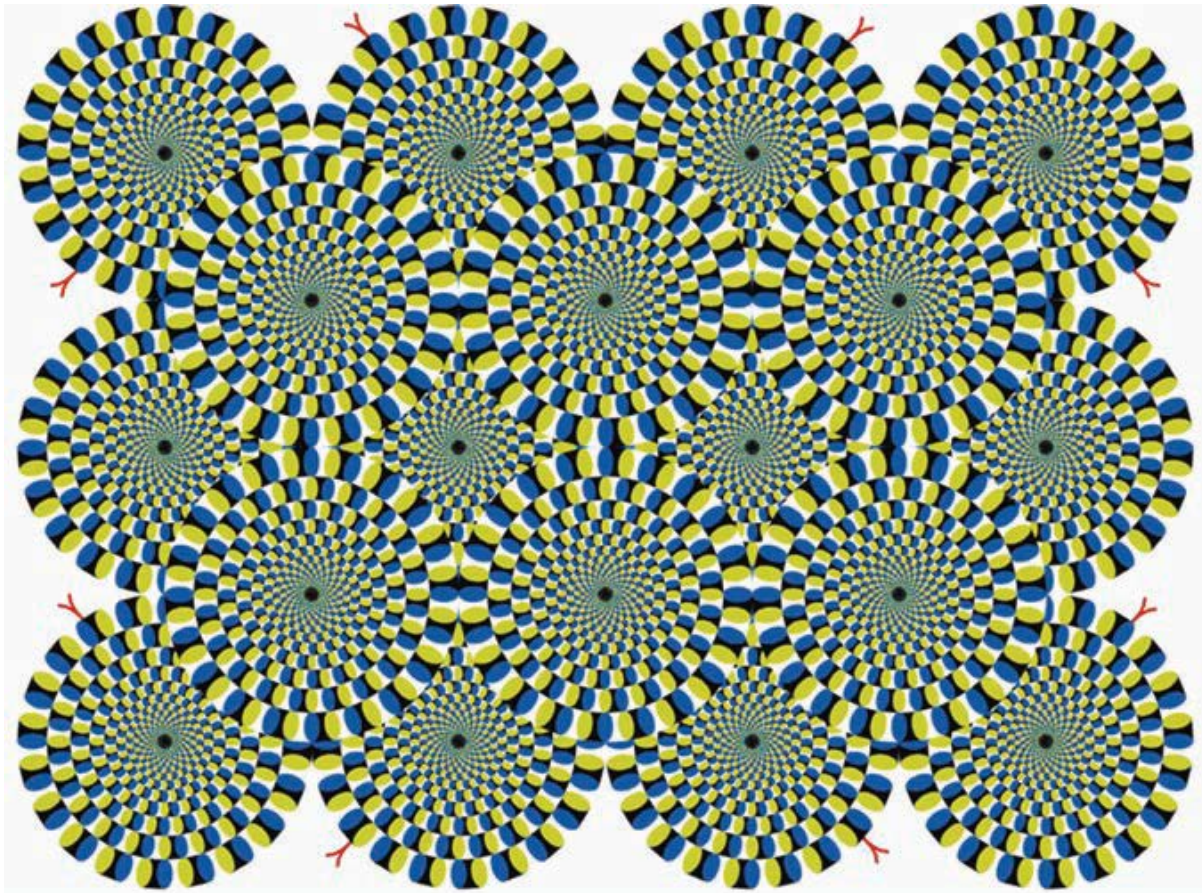
4.1 INTRODUCTION

In learning unit 4 we explore the impact of cognitive processes on work performance. The measurement of cognitive factors is arguably one of the major practices illustrating the existence and manifestation of individual differences and their influence on work performance. A major part of the practice of psychometric testing worldwide includes assessment of cognitive processes, especially assessment of intelligence and aptitudes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The influence of individual differences on work performance relating to cognitive behaviour will become instantly clear if you consider your own situation. Just think how your general and work behaviour is influenced by your cognitive processes and cognitive behaviour nearly every moment of the day! No matter if you are studying or working: you have to pay attention to various things – sometimes even to more than one thing at a time. For example, you have to obtain information and understand the verbal, visual and auditory instructions in job tasks, learn and remember or recall things, analyse data and solve problems in order to function successfully. The purpose of this learning unit is therefore to enable you to conceptualise cognitive processes, and to comprehend the influences of cognitive individual differences in the requirements or tasks of work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 4.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 4 – Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	Section 4.5.2 Memory - Harvard Medical School suggests some of the following to keep your memory sharp at any age. Follow the link http://www.health.harvard.edu/healthbeat/7-ways-to-keep-your-memory-sharp-at-any-age for a detailed description. 4.8 Ethics@Work • Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 • Employment Equity Act as amended 2014 • HPCSA form 207 - List of tests classified as psychological tests

4.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 4 Cognitive individual differences and work performance	Explain the role of cognitive personality factors or individual differences, such as learning, decision-making, problem-solving and intelligence, in work performance. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The nature of different cognitive processes is explained in detail. (2) The influence of individual differences in cognitive processing on work behaviour is illustrated. (3) Research findings about the role of cognitive personality factors in work performance are critically evaluated. (4) The concept of intelligence is explained, and different approaches to the study of intelligence are discussed and compared.

4.4 COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

To understand the role of cognitive processes in work performance it is important to describe cognitive psychology (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Corr (2010) notes that attempts to integrate individual differences and cognition pose some problems. In defining cognition, the author states that generally

what is meant by cognition is the capacity to know and to have knowledge, which encompass the structures and processes that support knowing/knowledge.

DuBrin (2000) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) describes cognitive psychology as the movement that studies how people's perception of events that influence their actions affects their behaviour. Cognitive psychology refers to all processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered and used.

Corr (2010) provides a different way of thinking about individual differences. He states that these differences should not be seen as separate faculties of mind such as traits, but rather as a reflection on fundamental brain-behaviour systems with the following characteristics:

- They show (systematic) variation in the population.
- They have pervasive effects on cognition, emotion and behaviour.
- They show stability over time.

According to this formulation, any and all of these characteristics are implicated in important individual differences.

Cognition entails many processes: sensory registration, perception, decision-making, appraisal, learning, memory, language, perceptual organisations and many others (Corr, 2010).

The discipline of cognitive psychology is about the science of mental life. It has a strong influence on psychology and personality study, and has contributed to the scientific understanding of the human mind in all its complexity and significance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Therefore, cognitive psychology is the discipline or area in psychology that studies the influence of cognition on behaviour – as we will explain in the following sections of this learning unit.

4.5 COGNITIVE PROCESSES

Cognitive processes refer to all the processes people use to obtain knowledge or to become conscious of the environment they function in. Individuals differ not only in acquiring information or knowledge, but also in how they process and use the acquired knowledge. You may recognise this in how different employees complete the same task. They process the instructions and complete the task differently because they differ in many ways in their cognitive functioning, their innate attributes, potential, and their acquired cognitive skills (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Cognition can be divided into three main components or operations:

- basic cognitive operations or information processing stages, like sensation, perception, attention and memory
- representation and organisation of knowledge stages, like categorisation and visual images
- more complex cognitive processes such as language, problem-solving and decision-making

The following section deals with certain cognitive processes involved in obtaining, processing and using cognitive knowledge and skills.

4.5.1 Attention

Understanding individual differences and attention poses a number of challenges, according to Eysenck et al (2010), as there are difficulties in conceptualising and measuring individual differences and attention as multidimensional constructs. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to attention as the process of selecting only certain stimuli in order to concentrate or focus on cognitive processes. In this learning unit we will consider two broad classes of theories that have developed to explain attention, namely filter theories and capacity theories.

Filter theories postulate that a bottleneck occurs in the flow of information. This bottleneck is called selectivity and occurs to prevent information overload.

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) point out that theorists differ about the moment when selectivity takes place or when the application of attention takes place. In figure 10 the areas of selection as proposed by Broadbent, Treisman, and Deutsch and Deutsch are compared. You will notice that this is the same model used to explain how memory works. The following is a description of the bottleneck according to different theories:
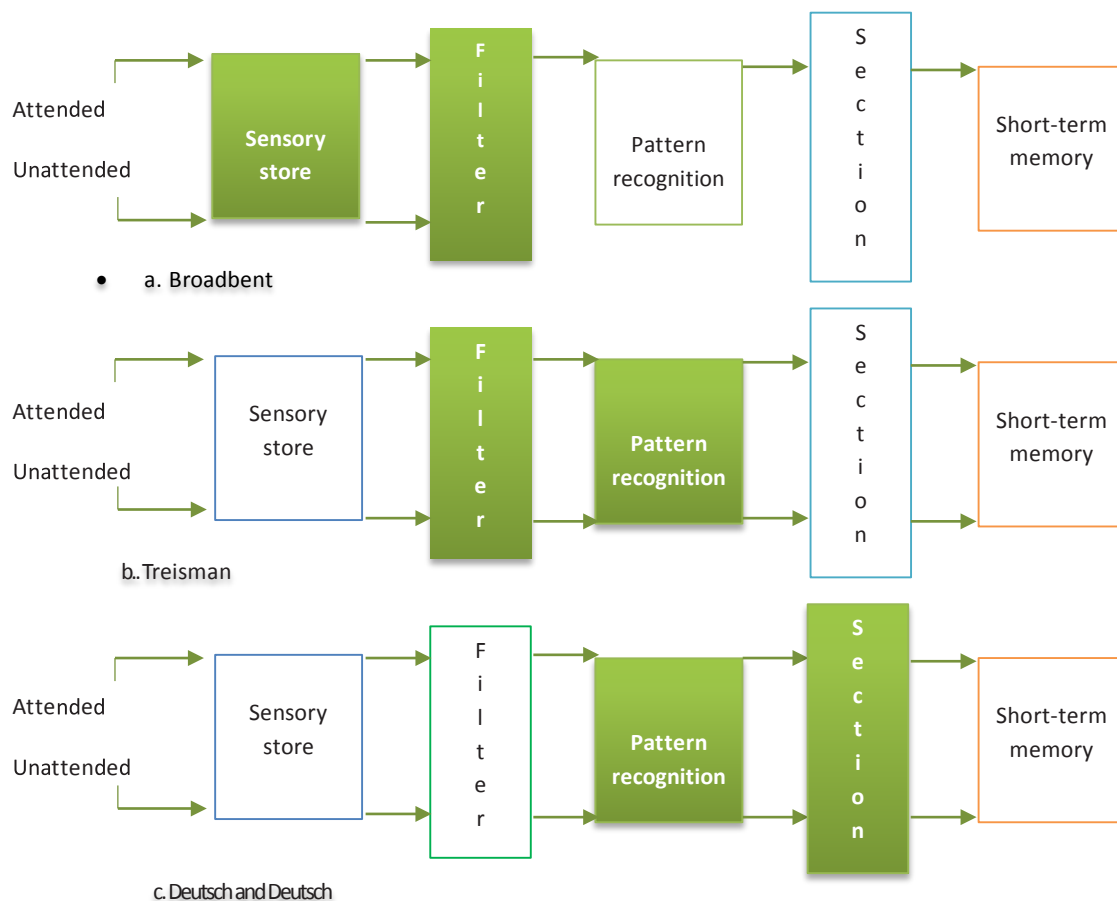
Figure 10: Comparison of three models of attention (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011)

- The bottleneck occurs at the perception or pattern recognition stage, and that attention is represented by a filtering process which determines what information should be recognised (Broadbent, 1958).

- The filter attenuates the unattended message, but does not completely block it out. It allows for tasks to be executed without complete attention selectivity. For example, in understanding language, the occasional recognition of words can happen in an unattended channel (Treisman, 1960).

- The bottleneck occurs after pattern recognition. This implies that the problem is not one of perception, but rather one of selection into memory after perception has occurred (Deutsch & Deutsch, 1963, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Capacity theories assume that there is a general limit on a person's capacity to perform mental work (Reed, 2004; Kahneman, 1973, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). A person has considerable control over how this limited capacity can be allocated to different activities. Interference occurs when the demands of two or more activities exceed available capacity. An example is the use of cellphones by motorists while they are driving, which is prohibited mostly because of the driver's divided attention. The stimulatory effects of some telephone conversations may even lead to information and emotional overload. You may already have observed how some drivers' ability to drive is affected when using a cellphone. You can also make this type of observation in other situations, for example at work where employees often do not work effectively because of divided attention.

The effect of attention on the workplace is further emphasised because employees have different capacities for paying attention for shorter or longer periods. It is important to provide optimal conditions in the workplace and work design in order to accommodate most or specific employees and their attention capabilities (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The self-regulatory mechanisms of attention are important for work performance and will be different for different employees. In this sense attention can be viewed as a process of self-consciousness, self-attention and self-monitoring in that the cognitive skills of attention are focused on specific tasks or on goal achievement. Goals have the function of focusing and directing attention to specific elements of task execution. Targeted attention can be on both short-term and long-term goals, for example career and life goals. Individual differences affect the focus of attention on goal achievement, because employees have different attention orientations. For example, attention may be aimed at action or behaviour such as doing tasks. It may be more inward-oriented when the person needs to take some time to think about tasks (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4.5.2 Memory and forgetting

Memory refers to the storage of information from where it is continuously recalled on demand. Examples are performing daily activities because we automatically have the stored knowledge available, or thinking about a specific event that happened ten years ago. Another important advantage of memory and recall of information is that it enables us to plan for the future (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Stages or components in the memory process (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013):

- sensory register

- short-term memory

- long-term memory

Each of these stages forms part of the memory process; the main difference between them is the duration of each. The sensory register is the first step in the memory process and lasts only a few milliseconds. It involves becoming aware of stimuli which demand storing or recalling information. The second stage is short-term retention or recall, and lasts only a few seconds. Long-term retention is the final stage in memory and can last a lifetime (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Memory consists of short-term memory (STM) and long-term memory (LTM). STM is limited in both the amount of information or capacity that it can hold, and in the length of time or duration for which it can hold the information. The limited duration of STM is illustrated by how quickly we forget a telephone number if we do not repeat it to ourselves or make up a verbal song, for instance. LTM does not have this problem in that it has no limitation on the amount of information it can hold, and forgetting occurs very slowly, if at all (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Information in the STM is transferred to the LTM through certain processes that a person uses to facilitate the acquisition of knowledge:

• Rehearsal is the repetition of information aloud or silently, over and over until it is learnt.

• Coding is the attempt to place the information that should be remembered in the context of additional, easily retrievable information such as a mnemonic phrase or sentence. It is the association of facts with visual images.

• Imaging refers to creating visual images to remember verbal information.

 According to Guthrie's theory, all forgetting involves the blocking out of old learning by forming new learning (Hergenhahn & Olsen, 2005). Information in STM is lost rapidly unless the information is rehearsed (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).
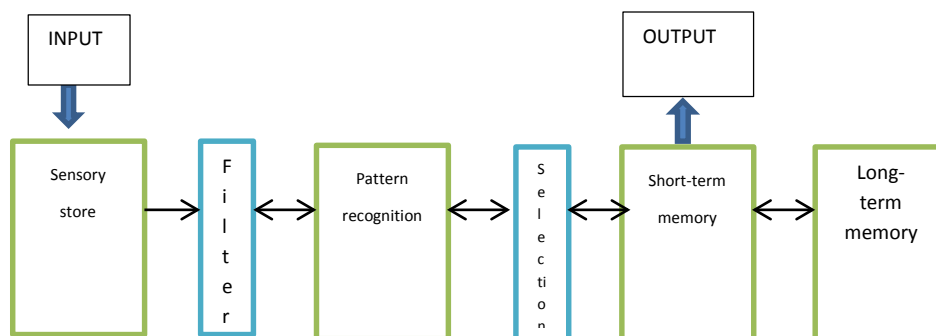
Figure 11: Stages of an information processing model (Reed, 2004)

As indicated in figure 11, the sensory store receives information through the five senses and stores it briefly in its original sensory form. The sensory store extends the amount of time that a person has to recognise a pattern. The information in the sensory store is lost at the end of this time unless it can be identified during the pattern recognition stage. Most of the patterns that people encounter are familiar and when they recognise a familiar pattern, individuals use the information they stored previously in memory through visual, auditory, smell, taste and feeling format. If the pattern does not match the description of a familiar pattern, the observer may want to store the new description in memory if it is important (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

People differ enormously in their memory abilities. One of the interesting claims about individual variation in memory is that it is attributable to practising memory. Some people are able to remember facts, episodes, dates, times, places and names much better, while others may be able to remember other types of information better. The individual differences in people's ability to recall past events or use their LTM are evident throughout life. Some people are simply better able to recall details and events than other people (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following are concepts and techniques that individuals may use to preserve memory (DuBrin, 2002, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

• Use it or lose it. Continuously learn new things and try to remember new information.

• Be well organised. By organising your environment carefully, you can counteract some memory loss.

• Exercise regularly. This not only stimulates muscle and physical development, but also mental ability.

• Use memory improvement techniques. Make visual associations between new ideas and familiar objects, and rehearse new material.

Harvard Medical School suggests some of the following to keep your memory sharp at any age. Follow the link http://www.health.harvard.edu/healthbeat/7-ways-to-keep-your-memory-sharp-at-any-age for a detailed description.

• Keep learning: A higher level of education is associated with better mental functioning at any age.
• Use all your senses. The more senses you use, the more your brain is involved.
• Believe in yourself. Do not get caught in the myths regarding memory and aging.
• Economise your brain use. Take advantage of calendars and planners to remember important things and let a planner do the rest.
• Repeat what you want to know. Write it down, speak to yourself – anything that you can use to help you remember.
• Space it out. Timing is essential; repeating does not mean cramming.
• Make a mnemonic. This is a creative way to remember lists.

4.5.3 Learning

Learning is a term or concept with many meanings. However, it should be indicative of the relatively permanent changes that take place in an individual as a result of specific experiences. A learner is an active, continuously productive person who develops over time in knowledge, skill and motivation with the goal of accomplishing some set of desired learning outcomes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Bergh and Geldenhuys (2013), Furnham (1997) and Ledimo and Matjie (2011) identify the two dimensions of learning: active-reflective learning and abstract-concrete learning. In terms of the active-reflective learning dimension, the individuals' processing of information may range from direct participation or experimentation to detached observation. The abstract-concrete dimensions imply that individuals' learning styles may range from dealing with concrete or tangible objects to dealing with abstract or theoretical concepts.

Using the learning dimensions, Kolb (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) distinguishes between four types of learners. These types of learners gather and process information differently:

- Divergers mostly use reflection on different experiences and they use various approaches. Their strengths are that they are imaginative and understand people; however, they are often poor decision-makers or have problems selecting between many alternatives.

- Assimilators develop a theoretical framework from their reflection. Their strengths include their ability to create or build theory through inductive reasoning; however, they are poor in applying ideas.

- Convergers would like to test theory in practice. They are strong, deductive thinkers, which explain why they are good at applying ideas. However, they tend to be rather unemotional and may not be good at working with people.

- Accommodators use the results of the testing phase in learning as feedback for new learning. These learners are willing to take risks and try new things in different situations.

These learning types are valuable in different types of work and learning tasks, for designing training courses with different types of learning material, instruction and assessment methods and for trainers of learners and supervisors who manage people. Individual differences in learning can be related to one another by tailoring a set of instructional goals, methods and materials to individuals or to homogeneous groups according to their learning aptitudes (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The difference between adult learners and less experienced learners is often ignored in training and task design, and in the assessment of learning performance. Adult learners are often more ready and willing to learn, may have higher self-esteem and will be more skilled at integrating information. However, they may also be more critical. These attributes necessitate an approach in which adult learners are given more say in the planning and assessment of learning (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

According to Ledimo and Matjie (2011), personality types also lead to individual differences in learning. Identified differences between introverts and extroverts as personality types in learning performance are as follows:

- Introverts may value rewards less than extroverts, whose performance is enhanced by rewards.

- The work performance of introverts more easily becomes impaired than that of extroverts.

- Distraction influences the learning of introverts more than that of extroverts.

- Introverts are less effective than extroverts in situations where learning is tested on the basis of participants' responses.

- Introverts usually take longer to retrieve information from long-term memory storage (in other words, to remember).

- Introverts are more critical of their responses when assessed than extroverts.

- Introverts have less effective memory or retention in short-term intervals, but do better than extroverts during long-term retention intervals.

4.5.4 Decision-making

Decision-making is the process of identifying a problem, generating and evaluating alternative solutions and choosing, implementing and following up on the best alternative. People's ability to think or reason and their ability to put their thinking in language are distinct hallmarks of the human mind. Both these skills precede and accompany decision-making (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Decision-making, as a process in problem-solving, is an important skill in everyday life and work life. It plays a role in all choices and problems, from the smallest to the largest. And yet, decisions are often such automatic responses or habits that people are so used to that they no longer regard them as decisions! However, when you analyse people's daily activities you will become aware of a number of basic cognitive skills people use, such as observation, attention, memory, analysis, reasoning and integrating (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

One reason why decisions can be difficult is that alternatives usually have many attributes (Reed, 2004). If one of the attributes of an alternative is not very attractive, the decision-maker has to decide whether to eliminate that alternative or to continue considering it because its other attributes may be very attractive.

When we are faced with complicated decision-making, we simplify the task by relying on heuristics. Heuristics are decision-making strategies that are available and known to lead to the desired outcomes. It is a set of practical rules or strategies that are "logical" and likely to produce the correct solution to a problem. In many cases these "shortcuts" yield very close approximations to the optimal answer; however, they may sometimes lead to predictable biases and inconsistencies (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following three principles apply to heuristics:

- The availability heuristic refers to people's tendency to base their judgement on pieces of information or techniques that are readily available, even though they might not be accurate.

- The representativeness heuristic refers to people's tendency to perceive other people and information in stereotypical ways if they appear to be representatives of the category to which they belong.

- When people make estimates, they often start by guessing a first approximation (an anchor) and then make adjustments to it on the basis of additional information. This strategy is called the anchoring and adjustment heuristic.

The following is a brief discussion on thinking and problem-solving. Although the concepts of decision-making and problem-solving are dealt with separately, the cognitive activities of thinking, problem-solving and decision-making are intertwined and interdependent.

4.5.5 Problem-solving

Problem-solving, thinking and reasoning are intertwined in that modes of thinking are used to analyse and integrate data to find a solution to a problem. The typical problem-solving sequence may be familiar to you: you define the problem, plan a strategy for solving it, carry out the strategy and evaluate the effectiveness of your solution (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Bergh and Geldenhuys (2013) and Ledimo and Matjie (2011) suggest that solutions to problems can be found by chance, by trial and error, or mechanically. However, problem-solving can also be a reactive thinking process. The stages in creative problem-solving or creative acts are usually as follows:

- **Preparation or recognition:** During this stage you become aware that you have a creative idea as a solution to a problem, and start collecting and processing information to solve the problem. You try to make sense of the problem and you may try to solve it a few times.

- **Incubation:** This takes place when you put the idea or problem aside because at first you did not succeed in solving it. You no longer concentrate on the problem, but subconsciously your mind may still be occupied with it.

- **Illumination**: You sometimes get the solution to the problem with a sudden burst of insight called the "Aha experience".

- **Verification:** Sometimes these "Aha experiences" turn out not to be the correct solutions. You therefore have to verify the information to determine whether you have an appropriate solution; in other words, you put the solution to the test.

Trial and error strategies are relatively inefficient random or chance searches for solutions. When trial and error searches become systematic rather than random, the strategy is called an algorithm. An algorithm is a method that always produces a solution to a problem, for example following a fixed method or specific steps in a meeting will produce a solution (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

There are two types of problem-solving approaches, namely means-end analyses and analogies. In means-end analyses, the problem-solver divides the problem into a number of smaller problems (or tasks). You first determine what "ends" you want to achieve and then what "means" you will use to achieve those ends. If you lose your manual for a training course, you may decide to borrow one from a colleague. You can divide the problem into several subtasks, such as making a list of colleagues who may have the manual, contacting those people and fetching the manual. The second problem-solving approach is the use of analogies, which are more or less similar to metaphors. The problem-solver uses a solution to an earlier problem to help solve a new one. Like the means-end approach, an analogy usually (but not always) produces a correct solution (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Different types of problems demand different problem-solving and decision-making skills. Logical thinking is not a scientific method in itself, but logic should be part of all scientific thinking and reasoning. It allows for alternatives to be derived logically, and for the systematic and realistic interpretation of information related to the alternatives for decision-making and problem-solving (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Deduction and induction are modes of logical thinking and reasoning:

- Deduction or syllogistic reasoning involves arriving at a specific conclusion from two general principles or premises, followed by a third statement which is the logical deduction made from the first two statements. For example, fair salaries promote happiness at work, therefore the organisation pays high salaries, therefore employees are satisfied with the workplace (deductive statement). Deductive thinking applies mainly when alternatives are generated.
- Induction is a process of deducing general rules from specific principles (the latter being accepted as existing truths). For example, employees are happy because the organisation pays high wages,

therefore wages affect happiness at work. Inductive reasoning usually applies when several alternatives are assessed, because we generalise from specific information.

Both deductive and inductive reasoning may still produce unrealistic or unreasonable conclusions, especially if they are biased by hidden agendas, prejudices, opinions and emotions. For deduction and induction to be accurate, the informative statements or data should be correct. In our previous examples, the first two statements are not necessarily correct (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

A part of logical thinking, we think, is what Kellogg (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) terms "direct and indirect thinking". Direct thinking processes are goal-oriented and rational. An individual should find a problem-solving sequence that leads to achievement of the goal in the shortest time and as directly as possible. In contrast to this, undirected thinking refers to unorganised thinking processes without concern for any goal or purpose, for example idealising and daydreaming. Indirect thinking may play a role in creative thinking initially, when any idea is considered and may be helpful in solving poorly defined problems.

Problem-solving requires creative thinking. Creativity is the ability to perceive original, new and significant relationships between existing ideas and phenomena in order to transform them into useful and functional methods and techniques for problem-solving (Quinn in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It involves finding a solution to an open-ended task in a way that is both unusual and useful. Creative thinking leads not only to new ideas, knowledge and products, but also to new challenges.

Furnham (1997) distinguishes between lateral and vertical thinking: the former refers to thinking that is innovative, risky and out of the ordinary, while the latter refers to thinking that is rigid, selective and only prepared to consider what is known.

Another distinction in thinking that is used in assessing creativity is the distinction between convergent and divergent thinking. Convergent thinking entails the application of existing knowledge and rules of logic to narrow down the range of potential solutions and to focus on a single correct answer. It may be much like deductive reasoning. Although this thinking is productive in many situations, it does not appear to foster true creativity. In contrast, divergent thinking moves outward from conventional knowledge into unexplored paths and unconventional solutions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4.5.6 Intelligence

There are many general and specific definitions of intelligence, some of which are based on expert opinions or people's personal theories. In laymen's terms, intelligence is defined as past good or poor performance, abstract thinking, the capacity to solve practical problems, the capacity to learn, logical thinking, verbal ability and social competency. However, these general definitions may lead to misconceptions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

According to the more scientific approaches, general intelligence is the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge and adapt to one's environment. Intelligence is further regarded as a multiple or complex concept involving not only mental or cognitive processes, but also non-cognitive factors like personality, emotions and motivation. Intelligence is the global or aggregate ability of people to act purposefully, to think rationally and to adapt and cope efficiently in their environment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Howard Gardner developed a theory of multiple intelligences and argues that individuals possess the following eight, relatively independent, types of intelligence to varying degrees (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

- Linguistic intelligence enables people to communicate through language.

- Logical-mathematical intelligence enables individuals to see relationships between objects and solve problems (as in calculus and statistics).

- Musical intelligence gives people the capacity to create and understand meanings from sound.

- Spatial intelligence enables people to perceive and manipulate images in the brain, and to recreate them from memory, as in graphic design.

- Bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence enables people to use their body and perceptual and motor systems to dance and play sports.

- Intrapersonal intelligence enables people to distinguish between their own feelings and acquire accurate self-knowledge.

- Interpersonal intelligence makes it possible for individuals to recognise and distinguish between the feelings, motives and intentions of others.

- Naturalist intelligence enables individuals to differentiate between, classify and use various features of the physical external environment.

In cognitive psychology, it is often believed that the so-called g-factors (general factors) can explain almost all types of intellectual behaviours, for example as found in the requirements of most jobs. Multiple intelligence theory also seems to explain why certain people are better at certain intellectual tasks than at other tasks, or why they are better at those tasks than other people.

Differences in intelligence between individuals will occur, depending on the type and quality of influence during maturation and personality development. It also depends on how each individual has learnt to adapt to and in various environments. Intelligence in individuals will change during physical, social and psychological development. During childhood and adulthood, people are typically and progressively able to move through phases which are characterised by certain types of thinking processes, usually developing from concrete to more abstract thinking (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4.5.7 Aptitude

Many jobs and tasks may require very specific abilities, groups of abilities or aptitude factors. An aptitude can be defined as knowledge, skills and possible innate potential developed through education and experience (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

For purposes of psychometric assessment in the selection of employees, the primary mental abilities are used in the construction of many aptitude tests and jobs. The following are the seven aptitude types used in aptitude tests to analyse the presence of these aptitudes in the requirements for successful job execution (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

- Spatial visualisation (S) means the ability to identify proportions in shapes, and to form and handle visual-spatial images.
- Numerical ability (N) refers to the operation of numerical functions.
- Perceptual speed (P) refers to the ability to identify and perceive visual detail rapidly and accurately.
- Verbal comprehension (V) involves the ability to understand spoken and written language (words and sentences) in context.
- Word fluency (W) is the ability to use language and words rapidly and flexibly (in speech and writing).
- Memory (M) is the ability to store and productively retrieve information, for example words, figures and symbols.
- Reasoning (R) refers to the ability to think logically, and to solve problems through planning and the use of principles.

Test items are correlated to ensure that they measure the same or approximately the same intellectual contents. Thus vocabulary, word fluency, spelling, reading comprehension and so on may be interrelated to form the factor "verbal ability as aptitude". The group factor of aptitude may be more or less similar to the idea of the G-factor.

When aptitude profiles are compared, it is assumed that everyone being assessed has more or less the same level of experience with regard to different aptitudes. This is not necessarily true; we know in the South African context alone that people's backgrounds do differ and that need to be taken into consideration (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2015).

4.6 COGNITIVE STYLES

Cognitive styles can be viewed as behaviours that link personality and intelligence. They describe how people use or exploit their intelligence. You are certainly familiar with expressions like "use your intuition" or "think with your head, not with your heart".

Cognitive styles refer specifically to thinking styles influenced by personality, which may impact on intellectual and other behaviour. They are used to describe a more general thinking style, for example to think more globally or in a gestalt manner about information, or to be more detail oriented (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

From your previous studies you may remember Bergh and Geldenhuys (2013) mention that older people's cognitive styles are often associated with wisdom and expertise. Reference was made to the analytical and pragmatic cognitive styles in terms of people such as Bill Gates. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to the specific cognitive styles as suggested by Fontana (2000).

More specific cognitive styles are suggested in concepts like the following (Fontana, 2000):

- Authoritarianism is characterised by intolerance, rigidity and ambiguity.

- Dogmatism is recognised by authoritarian and intolerant attitudes, and rigid ideas and ways of doing things.

- Cognitive differentiation includes two aspects, namely field dependence and field independence, which explain the degree to which a person can work without or with the structure or clues of the visual field. This aspect is deemed important in the selection of aeroplane pilots.

- A reflective-impulsive cognitive style characterises a person who is thoughtful and carefully considers all aspects before acting. The impulsive person shows little impulse control and often acts before having considered the consequences.

- Focusing-scanning is a style in which a person applying focusing uses all available information to come to conclusions of forms (a gestalt picture) before acting, while a person applying scanning only uses certain, often incomplete, information to draw conclusions. Sometimes these conclusions are premature and inaccurate, and information and decisions may have to be revised. The focusing type may take too long to act.

- Proactive-reactive may be a learnt way to think and act. Proactive people will look ahead and project possible events to plan an action or make a decision. Reactive people often wait until events happen before they take action.

- Optimism-pessimism is a style in which the optimist has an internal disposition to act in a positive manner, showing positive affective states and seeing challenges through; the pessimist may have negative affectivity, and often seems less resourceful and not ready to face challenges.

4.7 COGNITIVE PROCESSES AS PREDICTORS OF WORK PERFORMANCE

Foxcroft and Roodt (2015) note that a clear movement can be traced throughout history in the use of cognitive ability assessments which show the efficiency of ability-personality measures, such as measures of intelligence and various aptitude measures, to predict effective work performance in a wide range of jobs and training. There have been some exciting new developments in the use of computerised adaptive testing where diagnostic assessment can be linked to remedial instruction in areas where lower performance levels are indicated. However, whether intelligence is influenced by a single general factor or multiple factors remains controversial. On the social front there is active ongoing debate on cognitive ability assessment, the interpretation of test scores and particularly the differences between groups.

Here in South Africa Foxcroft and Roodt (2015) caution that we are adapting to an integration of different cultures. Guidelines on equity and affirmative action have been introduced into legislation which affects the use of psychological assessment. This may signal a movement away from assessment as well as possible legal cases about the fairness of measures for various groups.

The aforementioned by no means suggests that we should ignore the measurement of cognitive processes as predictors of work performance, as research continues to address the challenges we face. Research into the following is ongoing:

- How we define intelligence through the different theories of intelligence that have been developed over the decades, together with the many different approaches to the measurement of intelligence. Each theory contributes to our own general understanding of intelligence in its own way.

- Dynamic assessment is a specific approach to assessment which incorporates training in the assessment process in an attempt to not only evaluate the current level of cognitive ability and performance, but also the potential future level of work performance.
- Emotional intelligence measures have been reported as predicting work performance just as well as or better than a combination of cognitive ability and personality.
- It is important to remember that an intelligence score is a theoretical concept and cannot reflect intelligence in all its diversity. Not recognising this has resulted in the core controversies of using the cognitive processes of intelligence as predictors of work performance. This has led to numerous research studies on individual differences and cultural diversity, especially in South Africa's multicultural society.

4.8 ETHICS@WORK

In learning unit 4 we conceptualised cognitive processes in individuals and how they may be measured. In the South African context, we need to consider the impact of psychometric testing in the organisation and on the industrial and organisational psychologist in their professional capacity. Under **Additional Resources** you will find pdf documents on the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 and its amendment of 2014, which explicitly state in section 8 that only those tests that are indicated on Form 207 of the HPCSA are classified as psychological tests and may be used in South Africa.

When considering the ethical implications of using psychometric assessment in South Africa, we also need to ensure that

- the test is valid for the purposes for which it is being used
- appropriate norms are consulted
- where tests that have been developed in other countries are concerned, appropriate research studies need to be undertaken to investigate whether the tests are culturally biased and special care should be taken when interpreting the results of these tests

4.9 ENRICH YOUR LEARNING

In his book *The head and heart of leadership*, Hugo Misselhorn uses thinking tools and interactive tools, as he defines them, in joint problem-solving analysis in organisations. In considering cognitive individual differences and work performance, he acknowledges that, among other things, there is no universal solution to all situations, but that problem-solving takes place in the context of the organisation and the community. We therefore need to consider individuals' cognitive individual differences not only in what we see on the outside, but also on the inside of people – below the surface – as Misselhorn mentions within the context of the environment.

Should you be interested in learning more about this approach, you can find the book at http://www.reachpublishers.co.za/reach_web_012.htm

4.10 CONCLUSION

The area of cognitive processes remains an important individual difference factor, and has proven valuable in the study of personality development and other psychological processes. The use of psychometric cognitive measures to select, place and promote employees in jobs is an acceptable and

widely used practice. Ability measures to differentiate between employees for specific jobs and tasks, and also to predict work and training success, have achieved acceptance because of scientific proof of strong or significant positive correlations between cognitive ability factors and work performance criteria. At the same time, cognitive individual differences and their measurement with regard to intelligence, in particular, remain a contentious issue in the theory and practice of psychology (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

4.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Cognitive psychology	Cognitive processes
Attention	Cognitive behaviour
Memory	Forgetting
Information processing	Learning
Thinking	Decision-making
Creativity	Problem-solving
Abilities	Aptitudes
Cognitive styles	

LEARNING UNIT 5   EMOTIONS, PERSONALITY AND WORK PERFORMANCE
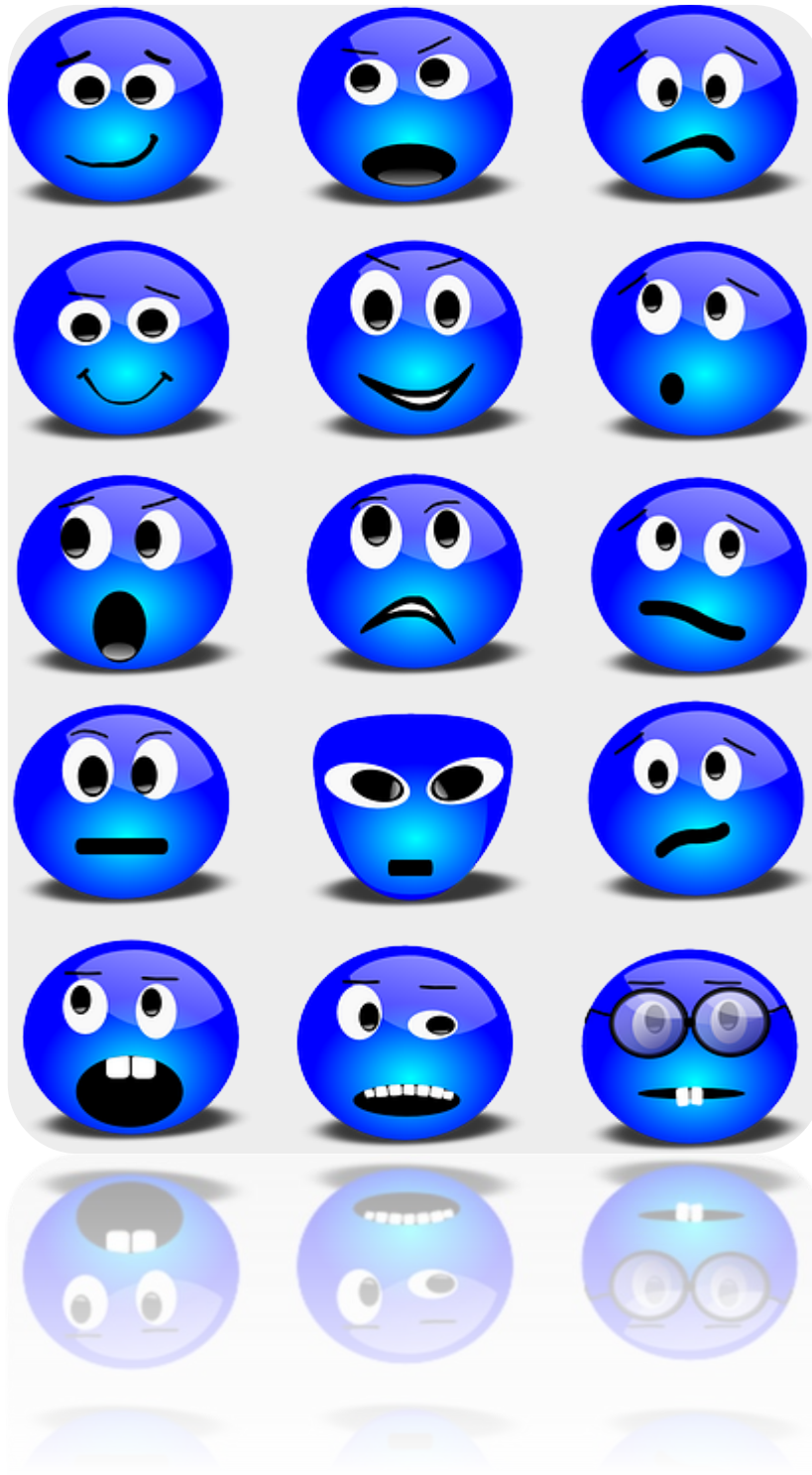
5.1 INTRODUCTION

"Anyone can become angry - that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way - this is not easy" – Aristotle (Goleman, 1995).

You will recognise the importance of emotions in your own life, because people often relate their physical and psychological wellbeing and how they cope and perform to how they feel. You should be familiar with your own actions when you are down, negative or have the blues compared to when you are on a high or feeling well, positive and in control. Although many work organisations do consider the quality of work life or occupational wellbeing in the workplace, many "bad workplaces and work" still do injustice to the emotional needs of employees – even in the modern world of work and employment relations. Things like poor work design, poor management, work overload and underload, stress and burnout, violations of employer-employee psychological contracts, job insecurity, downsizing and discrimination based on gender, age, remuneration and minority groups are prevalent in many workplaces (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The aim of this learning unit is to give you an understanding of an important aspect of subjective wellbeing or happiness in the workplace. This entails an understanding of affective states (such as affective dispositions, and positive and negative emotions and moods), how these affective states are connected to personality and their impact on work performance. Subjective wellbeing entails employees' cognitive and affective self-evaluations of their life in general and their work life, and includes elements like positive and negative emotions and satisfaction with life in general and with work experiences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Employees differ in their emotional expression, because emotional development and the expression of emotions are linked to personality differences, personality development, personality and psychological adjustment and emotional events and how they are appraised. We consider the influence of positive and negative emotions on work performance, and determine whether emotional intelligence or emotional control influence work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 5.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 5 – Additional resources
Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The ***Additional Resources*** *option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	E-reserve • Bauer, T., & Erdogan, E. (2012). *An introduction to organizational behavior*. Retrieved from http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/an-introduction-to-organizational-behavior-v1.0/ Screencast • Section 5.6 - SCLU5 The emotion-generating process Enrich your learning Should you be interested in the topic of emotional intelligence, you can connect with Six Seconds Network at http://www.6seconds.org/

5.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 5 Emotions, personality and work performance	Discuss individual differences with regard to theory and research on emotion. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The various concepts related to emotions are differentiated in detail. (2) The emotion-arousing processes and their influence on work performance are described. (3) The role of emotions in personality, motivation and psychological wellbeing is critically discussed.

5.4 EMOTIONS, MOOD AND AFFECTIVE DISPOSITIONS

Concepts for emotions or affectivity (e.g. joy, pleasure, anger, fear, panic, sadness, shame, surprise and contempt) refer to expressions that may include physical reactions, physiological arousal and psychological behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The root of the word "emotion" comes from the French term meaning "to stir up", according to Bauer and Erdogan (2012). A formal definition of emotion is a short intense feeling resulting from some event. Not everyone reacts to the same situation the same way. A manager may, for example, speak in a certain way which would make one employee feel angry, another sad or another even motivated. Bauer and Erdogan (2012) note that emotions can influence whether a person resigns from their job, is receptive to advice or how they perform individually on a team.

According to Ledimo and Matjie (2011), emotions have three characteristics: they can be passive (beyond personal control), intentional (expressed on purpose) and subjective (come from inner experiences). Emotions are often organised in a hierarchy, for example

• generic concepts like sadness, pain, fear and anxiety

• according to intensity, for example sadness, having the blues, depression and hopelessness

• indicating bipolarity, such as manic depressive

• with regard to the nature of emotional activation, for example positive versus negative and aroused versus unaroused

The three types of emotional concepts can be differentiated in the following ways:

• Affective states (affectivity) refer to the type of disposition in experiencing and expressing emotions, and arguably refer to the more stable dispositions imbedded in personality, or they may represent independent emotion or affect traits.

• Emotions (emotionality) are often viewed as shorter-term expressions associated with certain stimuli or situations, for example fear when frightened or joy when seeing a good friend.

- Mood refers to feelings over shorter and longer periods, for example experiencing feelings of both depression and excitement within an hour or over a week, a month or longer. Moods may be the result of neurological and environmental factors.

The concepts of emotions (or emotionality), affect (or affectivity, affective states, affective dispositions) and mood are often used interchangeably, but they have different connotations, especially with regard to the consistency and the time-based nature of emotional expressions. The concepts of emotionality, affectivity, mood and personality are also sometimes used interchangeably, but there is a clear difference between the emotional concepts and the concept of personality.

5.5 TYPES OF EMOTIONS

5.5.1 Positive emotions

Positive emotions, such as love, joy and surprise, are a reaction to desired events. In the workplace this could mean achieving a goal. Individuals experiencing positive emotions could feel peaceful and content, fulfilled and satisfied. Bauer and Erdogan (2012) state that research has shown that positive feelings at work dispose a person to optimism and could make challenges seem more achievable. Being positive could lead to an upward spiral where a person's good mood could bring about positive outcomes, reinforcing the good mood and triggering upward spirals towards emotional wellbeing.

5.5.2 Negative emotions

These include anger, fear and sadness which could result from undesired events (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). In the workplace this could mean not having your ideas heard, unpleasant interactions with co-workers, customers and superiors, etc. Negative emotions play a role in the conflict process; those who manage their negative emotions find themselves in fewer conflicts.

The side effects of negative emotions at work are clear but according to Bauer and Erdogan (2012), negative emotions could have positive affects. For example, jealousy over another department's success could lead to other departments working harder to compete with their perceived rivals. Negative emotions can inspire a change around for an organisation by changing the status quo.

Bauer and Erdogan (2012) emphasise that the key is to promote positive emotions at work and to manage negative emotions. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) note that what is important to realise is that each type of positive or negative emotion may have levels of intensity, which could be determined by previous experiences with these emotions and the importance and proximity of the emotion-arousing event. In interventions in emotions or in facilitating emotions to cause behaviour change, it is important to assess the frequency and especially the intensity levels of expressed emotions accurately.

5.5.3 Emotional contagion

Both positive and negative emotions can be contagious but negative emotions last longer (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Research indicates that emotions are contagious where team members would affect one another even after accounting for team performance. One explanation for negative emotions to

linger is the stronger connection to the fight or flight situations people experience. Anger, suspicion and fear urge us to take action immediately. Unpleasant messages stick around to make sure we get the message.

People differ in their susceptibility to emotional contagion. Bauer and Erdogan (2012) suggest that an interplay between perceiving and regulating emotions results in becoming infected with positive and negative moods. Negative emotions can be transferred; for example, you help a customer in a good mood and in return the customer shouts at you, leaving you in a bad mood for the rest of the day. This negative spillover of a negative emotion could spill over to your interactions with customers for the rest of the day.

5.6 THE EMOTION-GENERATING PROCESS

Instruction: Please see the screencast **SCLU5 The emotion-generating process** for clarification of this section.

Emotions are antecedents of various perceptions or stimuli and actions and reactions from our environment, either internal or external. Emotional or affective arousal in general and specific emotions have the function of preparing or motivating people to react emotionally, interpersonally and cognitively in certain ways. In all these contexts (e.g. work and employee relationships) events and situations have certain values, functions and meanings for people. This explains why emotions are mostly part of employee perceptions and attitudes that influence work motivation, job satisfaction and the resultant work behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Emotions and the generation of emotions are more than just feelings of pleasure or pain – there is an emotional process that is very similar to the S-O-R principles of learning (i.e. the individual or organism has an influence on the stimulus and the consequences of this interaction process). Personality dispositions, including affective states, influence the emotion-generating process. In other words, they may influence the events, how events are appraised and also the consequences or the types of emotional reactions and emotional regulation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).
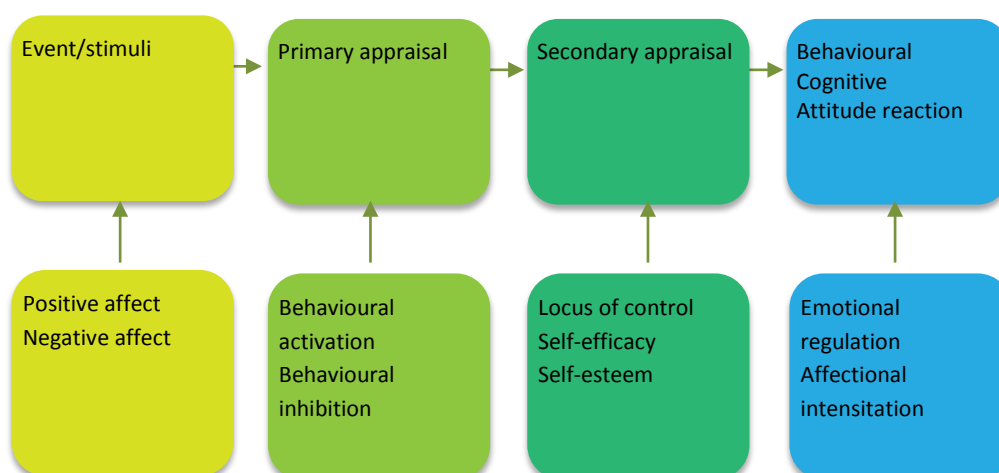
Figure 12: The emotion-generating process of Weiss and Kurek (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011)

5.6.1 Emotion-arousing events

According to Weiss and Kurek in Ledimo and Matjie (2011), events have an important role in the generation and intensity of emotions, but affective states imbedded in personality may influence the events (e.g. people with negative affective states may eventually find themselves in negative situations or with other people with similar types of emotional expressions). The importance, proximity and familiarity of events to people and people's emotional coping resources further determine the type and intensity of emotional expression. Not all events culminate in emotional responses because people may be used to certain emotions and may have learnt to control or internalise them.

5.6.2 Primary appraisal

Primary appraisal is usually seen as an assessment of "relevant concern", in other words, whether the event (e.g. task) is relevant to a person's goals and values. As a result of the primary appraisal process, both the direction and intensity of possible emotion responses are determined. If it is relevant and beneficial to a person's goal and wellbeing, the valence of the emotion will be positive. If the valence obstructs the achievement of the goal, the emotion will be negative, while the importance of the goal will determine the intensity of the emotion. Weiss and Kurek in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) assert that events which facilitate the achievement of important goals result mostly in the expression of strong and positive emotions.

5.6.3 Secondary appraisal

Where primary appraisal determines the valence and intensity, the secondary appraisal process determines the specific or distinct emotional responses necessary or experienced in situations. Events are now evaluated in relation to several attributes, for example the causes, a person's responsibility, coping resources and the stability or modifiability of events.

This all falls under cognitive appraisal, which entails perceiving and evaluating the possible emotion-arousing events. It mediates the generation, intensity and control of emotional responses. Two types of appraisal in emotion generation are proposed, namely primary and secondary appraisal (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.6.4 Action tendencies of emotions

The action tendencies of emotions include action readiness, autonomic arousal and cognitive activity changes. The emotional appraisal process and the intensity of expressed emotions are also influenced by personality coping resources like locus of control, self-efficacy and the level of self-esteem (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Action readiness indicates a person's preparedness to react in certain ways, or their inability to react, depending on the stimuli or situation and the person's reaction repertoire (how a person's acquired emotional reactions or affective dispositions are imbedded in personality).

- The autonomic arousal process means that some positive and negative emotions are repeated, or have become "independent" and manifest because a person has been "conditioned" or has

learnt to react in certain ways in certain situations. In some situations, expressed emotions may include different emotions, but a person may have an emotional episode when experiencing a flow of emotions (the emotions may be related to the same underlying event and may extend over longer periods).

- Cognitive activity changes refer to how a person's thought processes about the event and the consequences of emotional expression influence the generation of emotions and the intensity and expression of emotions in a particular situation.

5.6.5 Emotional regulation and control

Emotional regulation refers to the emotional control people may have acquired over certain emotions and the influence of situations. Here the norms of social and cultural contexts are applicable (e.g. marriage, families, ethnic groups, task groups and organisations). This may also explain why people's emotional expressions are in some instances more or less spontaneous or dramatic and intense. Evidence suggests that the emotional reaction of people from different cultures may differ, but these differences should be analysed carefully (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.6.6 Emotional intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence implies emotional control or regulation for the effective use of cognitive and other abilities. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand your own feelings, to have empathy for others and to regulate your own emotions to ensure quality of life. There are four building blocks involved in developing a high level of emotional intelligence (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

Relationship management - help others manage their emotions

Social awareness - ability to understand how others feel

Self-management - ability to direct own emotions in a positive way

Self-awareness - ability to accurately perceive, display and evaluate appropriate emotions
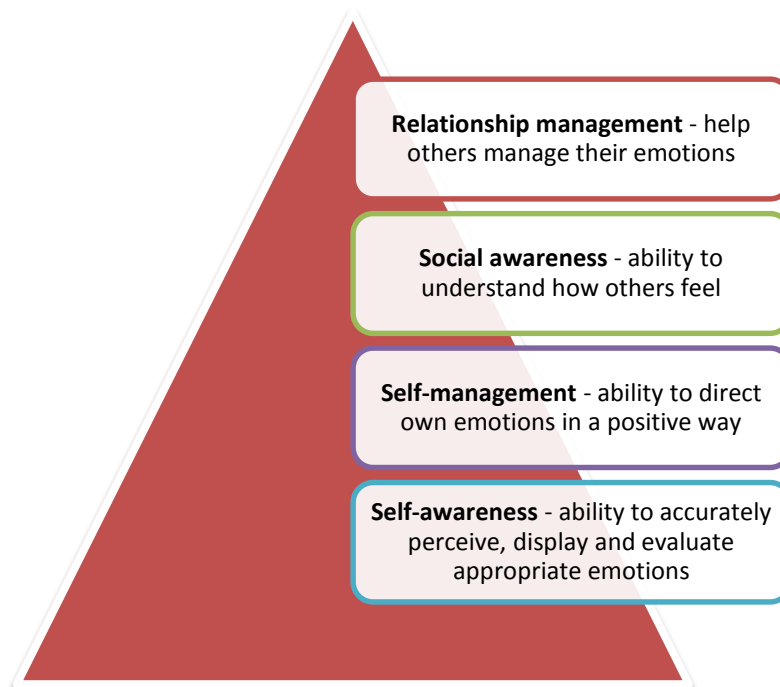
Figure 13: Emotional intelligence

In the workplace employees with high emotional intelligence have been found to have higher self-efficacy. These employees would cope better with adversity, perceive situations as challenges rather than threats and have a higher level of job satisfaction (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

5.6.7 Emotional reactions

These refer to all positive and negative emotional reactions which are the outcomes of the emotion-generating process, and will serve as feedback for the other emotion-generating components. Emotional and cognitive behaviours can refer to many positive and negative reactions, which may enhance or inhibit work performance; the ways in which people are prepared to express their emotions, which may serve as a filter or regulatory mechanism before emotions are really expressed; and more serious emotional reactions, which may relate to psychological maladjustment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

By now you should know that behaviours which are based on perceptions, like attitudes and beliefs, have three interactive components: cognitive, emotional and action. Research shows that emotions influence beliefs. According to this assumption, emotions determine what a person thinks, and what a person thinks is regarded as the truth. This is why attitudes, perceptions and beliefs are the basis for measures of job satisfaction, organisational climate, culture, trust and integrity (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONS AND PERSONALITY

Many definitions of personality clearly include an emotional component. One such definition sees personality as a person's characteristic thought patterns, emotions and behaviour. These patterns may also include the hidden or overt psychological mechanisms (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality is seen as the dynamic organisation of psychological and physical systems within the individual that determine a person's unique or characteristic behaviour and thought. Emotional aspects are implied.

In these and other definitions it becomes clear that personality denotes the integrated person and their more or less enduring patterns of attributes and behaviour over time and situations. In contrast, emotions may be part of personality dimensions, but they refer only to specific behavioural expressions that result from certain stimuli or in certain situations (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.7.1 Emotions imbedded in personality traits or emotion traits

According to dimensional or trait perspectives, personality structure consists of personality traits. Traits are concepts used to denote psychological qualities or characteristics which are not observable like physical characteristics, but which are observed in related behaviours. Personality traits are arguably the core of personality because traits represent the more or less consistent pattern of attributes and behaviour observed as a person's personality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

As indicated in table 3, which summarises the five main personality traits, affectivity or emotionality is related to personality structure or traits. For example, some sub-facets of the five main personality factors clearly involve emotional contents like irritability, security and emotionality in the factor "emotional stability".

Table 3: Emotional sub-facets according to the five factor model

Extroversion	Emotional stability	Conscientiousness	Openness to experience	Agreeableness
Sociability, warmth **Unrestraint, activity seeking** **Assertiveness** **Activity-adventurousness** **Positive emotions**	Irritability Security Emotionality Hostility Anger Impulsiveness Depressive Self-consciousness	Competence Orderliness Decisiveness consistency Reliability, industriousness Achievement-oriented	Imaginative Values-driven Imagination - creativity Perceptiveness Feelings	Agreeableness Warmth-affection Gentleness Generosity Modest-humility Trust Compliance

Source: Ledimo and Matjie (2011)

5.7.2 Emotions are determined by developmental factors

The origin and development of affective states or emotions form part of personality development and are influenced by a combination of biological and environmental factors. Emotions, like personality traits, may have biological and acquired origins, and influence mental or cognitive (and even physical) performance, because there is a close link between the various aspects of the human psyche. More consistent or typical emotional reactions in individuals are demonstrated once a person has learnt to express emotions in certain ways (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.7.3 Role of emotions in psychological adjustment

Emotions and affective states indicate the level of subjective wellbeing or happiness which people experience, and are closely related to psychological adjustment and maladjustment. Emotional instability is part of the diagnostic criteria of many psychological disorders, the best examples of which may be anxiety-based disorders, mood disorders (e.g. bipolar disorder), personality disorders, psycho-physiological disorders and stress-related disorders. In the work context, work-related emotional dysfunctions can manifest in feelings of dissatisfaction, fear, anxiety and depression (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONS, PERSONALITY AND WORK PERFORMANCE

We have already referred to emotions as an energiser of human behaviour. For example, positive and negative emotions can direct the way people use their cognitive skills when making decisions.

5.8.1 Individual differences in emotional expression

Supported by the fact that personality and emotions are related in some way, and verified by findings about the work-relatedness of the personality trait "emotional stability", it is clear that emotions play an important role in work motivation, work attitudes and work behaviour, which in turn influence work performance. With regard to the stability of positive affectivity research, findings indicate that stability correlations in young adults, which range from 0,30 to 0,70, compare to stronger correlations for adults, which range from 0,60 to 0,80 (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It seems that positive affectivity stabilises with age – much the same pattern as found in personality trait and ability (or intellectual trait) development. Similarly, affective consistency has been found between cultures or across various situations and contexts. However, all these findings do not exclude the fact that in and between individuals there will be differences and variability in positive and negative emotionality, that is, some people are just more emotionally stable than others. This may be attributed to many factors such as genetics, evolutionary behaviours, neurological influences, acquired behaviours and situational and demographic influences. Other factors that play a major role in the differences between individual emotional expressions are demographic factors, emotional arousal, emotionality, affectivity, emotional expression and emotional regulation. At work, these include life and job satisfaction, leadership, organisational and citizenship behaviour, workplace deviance and violence, voluntary work behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, burnout and happiness (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.8.2 Impact of emotion-arousing events on work performance

In this section, we discuss the link between personality and emotions in the emotion-eliciting process, including its influence on events, appraisals, emotional expressions and performance outcomes. Various other studies have illustrated that differences in the intensity of positive and negative effects are related to the type of stimulus or event and have different effects on work performance. There are various reasons why people react differently to stimuli (either negative or positive), and the same applies to work-related arousal events or stimuli. Positive and negative effects are separate phenomena and correlate differently with personality traits and behaviours in certain situations. It was found, for example, that extroversion predicted positive emotional events across a four-year period (but not negative events), while neuroticism or emotional stability predicted negative events across a four-year period (but not positive events). Research indicates that childhood assessments of emotional stability predict the occurrence of stressful life events for adults when they are 30 and 40 years old (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.8.3 Impact of cognitive emotional appraisal on work performance

Nearly all research on appraisal processes indicates that different performance standards and goals in job expectations (emotion-arousing work events) will determine the intensity of the emotion-generating processes, that is, the intensity which generates the emotions and emotional control. Note, however, that this research also shows that it is not the appraisal process as such, but individual differences in the source or origin of the appraisal process that are more important in the affect or emotion-generating process. This refers to differences in needs (e.g. achievement versus social affiliation needs), work values (how success and failure are defined), job goal structures and appraisal tendencies (e.g. valuing job tasks as "must do", "want to do" or "nice to do" obligations). These

differences may even be imbedded in personality and may lead to very different perceptions of work events and emotional reactions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Appraisal may also be related to subjective wellbeing or happiness, depending on employees' cognitive judgements or conscious evaluations of satisfaction with their lives in general or their jobs; maybe appraisal is not related to positive or negative emotions. This may include appraisal, attribution aspects and personal accountability aspects (e.g. being personally responsible, experiencing guilt feelings or delegating responsibility to external events). The concept of cognitive judgements entails the idea that individuals each have a set of core self-concept personality variables or core self-evaluations which are important for work performance. Researchers assert that positive dispositions and attribution styles (explaining the causes of events) like self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, hardiness and emotional stability – and also negative personality dispositions like learned helplessness – are important predictors of work performance, because these variables are related to affective states like happiness and measures of wellbeing (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.8.4 Impact of emotional regulation on work performance

Events that evoke emotion, appraisal processes and emotional reactions influence work competencies and effective work performance in the workplace. In addition, individual differences or personality factors in emotion or affect regulation also influence work competencies and effective work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Efforts by employees to control emotional arousal and the expression of emotions in the workplace put additional demands on cognitive and other work competencies or resources. Examples are the disruptive impact which negative emotions and affective states may have on attentional and learning processes in the workplace. Related to emotion regulation are findings which suggest the importance of cognitive or thinking interference (such as interfering positive and negative thoughts) in the emotion process and its influence on work behaviour during work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). For example, employees may daydream about winning and spending money, holidays and other desirable things, or they may repeatedly be devising solutions to "bad" situations (money or relationship problems, or how to finish late work assignments). However, the fact that positive emotionality (effective emotional regulation) brings experiences of success and rewards in physical, cognitive and social endeavours, and contributes to wellbeing, broadens and builds people's skills and coping resources in these areas.

5.8.5 Impact of emotional reactions on work performance

How we normally react or respond to stimuli affects our work performance. If we consider the body of literature on psychological disorders and work dysfunctions, and the role of personality and emotionality (or affectivity) in these psychological adjustment problems, the implications for work behaviour are self-evident (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Managers may demonstrate certain neurotic tendencies (paranoia, compulsiveness, histrionic behaviour, depression and schizoid tendencies). The symptoms and work behaviours resulting from these neurotic tendencies have an influence on the organisational culture and on many processes, procedures and behaviours in the organisation, and may also influence individual employees and customers. Emotions result in behavioural consequences which influence employee and organisational functioning in many ways (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Research indicates emotional stability (together with conscientiousness) as a good predictor of work performance across many jobs. Employees that are emotionally stable are motivated and want to achieve or accomplish something. However, employees who have low emotional stability are less motivated and achievement oriented, because they evaluate themselves as unworthy, worry about things, fear failure and are dissatisfied with themselves, their lives and their work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

These findings suggest that when "happy" employees are selected because "a happy employee is a productive employee", the employers should carefully consider which affective states are related to which jobs or tasks, work performance or productivity, and situational influences.

5.9 FACILITATING EFFECTIVE EMOTIVE WORK RESPONSES

Many specific sources, strategies and methods can be used to facilitate emotional expression in individuals, groups and organisations. Here we will touch on a few aspects only.

5.9.1 Change from negative to positive emotions

An important question is whether change from negative to positive emotions is possible. Research asserts that all people are able to experience positive affectivity. For some, the outcome of prosperous environmental circumstances and growth opportunities has a larger measure of positive affective states and happiness. For others, "bad" life experiences during their life history cultivate the seeds for negative affectivity and unhappiness (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). However, we must remember that in human history, during traumatic circumstances, there are many examples of people who succeed in developing the courage and skills to live a meaningful life. On the other hand, there are also those who we think "have everything", yet their lives seem to be endless misery from birth to death. In terms of possible influences on happiness, most people return to their former and most stable state of happiness, especially after major life events and even more so after more short-term emotional events. Research indicates that long-term stability correlations, also for positive affectivity, are more or less in the range of 0,60 to 0,80, although some substantial changes also take place in affective stability (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) suggest three principles of change intervention for facilitating positive affectivity as the following:

• Short-term mood or positive affect is best enhanced if people are outward-focused and actively involved, for example in socialising and interpersonal relationships, exercise and other physical activities. Generally, people with high positive affectivity tend to be more active in social, mental and physical activities.

• Positive emotion and happiness are best enhanced by the experiences and processes of pursuing meaningful goals, and not necessarily by only achieving goals. Emphasis is placed on the concept of flow, which explains the phenomenon that people who enjoy what they are doing in play and work situations perform optimally, because they are intrinsically and subjectively motivated to face challenges and achieve goals.

- Effective facilitation of positive affectivity is best achieved if the underlying nature of affective states is clearly assessed and understood. Human emotions are determined by biological and psychological rhythms which are mostly acknowledged, but also ignored, by society and individuals themselves. All people have natural cycles of happiness and enthusiasm, and unhappiness and reduced energy. Research indicates that many people suffer from sleep deprivation, which leads to reduced levels of alertness and positive affect.

These principles have implications for policies, strategies and methods of management, job design and work execution. They should be considered in efforts to promote occupational health, happiness and positive affectivity in employees.

5.9.2 Recognising and developing your own strengths

Recognising and expressing your own and other people's emotions have long been regarded as skills or competencies necessary to function in various life roles (interpersonal relationships, employee relations, managerial tasks and in executing work tasks). We believe that the origin of emotional expression could be a function firstly of the child-raising practices of parents and other educational influences during the early childhood phases of personality development (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Emotional expression is also emphasised or de-emphasised in the values, norms and etiquette of society, cultures and specific groups. A second source of emotional expression may be in more formal training courses and in the work context where emotional expression may be emphasised in certain ways. An example is in therapy and counselling where expression is often encouraged, and in jobs and businesses where emotional involvement other than rendering a service is discouraged.

In general, one such acquired belief about emotional expression (mostly misguided, but often firmly applied) can be found in the distinctions made between the emotional expression of males and females. Clichés or stereotypes such as "tigers don't cry" and "think with your head, not your heart" are used to illustrate that emotional expression by males is often discouraged or frowned upon (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). If emotional expression by men is encouraged, it often manifests in emotions characterised by power, domination, authority and aggression. Men often find it quite difficult to use or talk about their emotions, and to be less rational or intellectual. In contrast, the same educational practices and influences emphasise more emotional expression in women, but with the emphasis on a "softer" touch, being more understanding, less strict and that it is "okay for women to cry"! This has led to the belief that women are better at using their feelings or intuition to understand things and even to predict events (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Strangely, in some contexts, and contrary to what has been taught, women are also sometimes blamed for being too "emotional" and expressions like "your tears will not solve anything" are sometimes heard.

5.9.3 Obtaining self-knowledge and job knowledge

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) think a starting point for employees is to have self-knowledge, that is, knowledge of their own personality and how to use their strengths and weaknesses. In positive affective terms, employees should be empowered to exercise more self-control, to use their internal resources for positive self-development and to improve their own occupational wellbeing and happiness. These objectives can be achieved through honest and timely feedback on work

performance and development needs, and also through feedback on the results obtained from purposeful psychological assessment.

Thorough job knowledge or knowledge about the job description is also necessary so that employees can match their own competencies with the job requirements. Employees should be informed about or empowered in aspects of their personality and other personal attributes involved in successful job and task execution (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Self-knowledge will be achieved if employees are in jobs that fit their attributes, if they are specifically trained for their job and if they get job-related performance feedback. Employees can develop sensitivity to their own attributes through psychological assessment and feedback on the meaning of assessment findings with a view to effective functioning and development, for example before selection or promotion into jobs and in career counselling. Recognition and acknowledgement by employees of possible gaps in their worker profile and steps for self-development already have an emotional component. Not being informed about job requirements or non-existent job descriptions could lead to low morale and feelings of uncertainty and uselessness. Employees may feel that they do not have a psychological contract with the employer (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The identification of possible negative emotional expression and its consequences is also important to diagnose and manage possible emotional work dysfunctions like fear, anxiety, frustration, aggression and depression. Employees could also be aware of their styles of work commitment (e.g. being very driven in work – the so-called type A personality) and should understand the arousal effects of emotions in certain needs, attitudes and work motivation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.9.4 Assertiveness training

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) believe that the emphasis in emotional expression should be on the assertive use of men and women's own emotionality; thus assertiveness training programmes should be offered as part of other training programmes to develop interpersonal skills, emotional intelligence and interviewing and counselling skills. Assertiveness is not aggressiveness. It contains a measure of empathy and self-efficacy or self-belief – being in touch with your own and other people's feelings. It involves being able to express emotion, understanding the meaning of emotional and other communications and reacting appropriately to emotional responses. At individual, group and organisational level, assertiveness training should be directed at employee relations, gender relations, conflict resolution, task instruction, performance feedback and supervisory tasks.

5.9.5 Mentoring, counselling and consulting skills

Some forms of therapeutic and counselling training and practices can be used in many situations. In interactional therapy, for example, the Rogerian concept of empathy is utilised to train learners to facilitate the recognition of underlying meanings of communication (e.g. emotions) and to respond appropriately to this communication. In other therapy and counselling approaches and techniques, including stress management techniques, many types of relaxation techniques are used to enable people to experience the difference between stress (negative emotions) or feelings of distress, and positive or good feelings. This implies a strategy to encourage employees to increase pleasant activities in their private and work lives, for example not to work overtime but to work "smartly" or

efficiently, and to use opportunities to socialise and relax at work and in non-work activities (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In the work context interpersonal skills (including recognising and exploring emotions; listening and responding skills) are used in many general and specific skills training programmes (e.g. interviewing, management, leadership, conflict management, negotiation, and stress and trauma management training). Honest performance feedback to employees should cover all aspects of job execution and its related competencies, and should indicate training needs in emotional sensitivity if applicable (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The effectiveness of counselling and therapy approaches in an organisation would be determined by the organisation itself. Schreuder and Coetzee (2016) caution that there is no single strategy that would work each time and a combination of strategies may be required at any given time. We can, however, keep Averill's general guidelines in mind (Snyders & Lopez, 2002, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

• Encourage willingness to acquire specialised knowledge in a specific field or fields.

• Facilitate a desire or motivation to be innovative and to be willing to take risks.

• Promote the use of the imagination to discover new approaches, products and uses.

• Promote self-assessment or monitoring in the sense that employees will be able to evaluate their own efforts in performance and creativity.

• Use older employees better, because it is often age that brings wisdom and an appreciation for life, people and things that are less materialistic and may be viewed more subjectively.

Averill reminds us that there may be many individual differences in emotional creativity, as in other areas. These differences are often fostered by norms for emotional expression in different cultures, education and experience in the various professions, the arts and the sciences, and job execution.

These types of approaches may cultivate the development and use of certain temporary emotional states in certain circumstances, which elicit certain emotional and other responses – all of which the individual understands and controls in the creative use of emotions to promote performance behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.9.6 Facilitating emotional intelligence

Many specific training programmes are aimed at developing emotional intelligence, the use of emotions to facilitate the effective (or productive) and creative use of emotions in cognitive task execution and in achieving personal and group goals. A prerequisite for this should be adequate cognitive skills for job execution and an analysis of work-related emotions for specific jobs (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The appropriate use of emotional skills to promote effective and creative work performance can be achieved through some of these techniques, for example assertiveness training with the emphasis on emotional control and realistic emotional expressions, and specific courses in creativity. In exploring emotional intelligence and promoting emotions in the work context as a skill, we should rethink our thought processes on emotions. In fact, we should not only rethink our thought processes, but also at least be prepared to revise our thinking and feelings about emotional creativity.

Obviously, in designing creative strategies to promote emotional skills for effective and creative intellectual use, we should exercise intellectual and emotional control and creativity – being too lenient will be destructive (e.g. if we allow unabated aggression, fear or elation) and being too limiting will only encourage stagnation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.9.7 Facilitating emotional expression in groups

In task and management teams the execution of group tasks is determined mostly by group processes and dynamics like interpersonal relations, coalitions and subtle agendas, often with underlying unexpressed emotions. Mount, Barrick and Stewart in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) found a strong to moderate relationship between job performance in teams and the personality factors (which have emotional components) of agreeableness, emotional stability, extroversion, openness and conscientiousness. For individual group members, the factors of emotional stability and extroversion also impact on their contributions in the team. These findings suggest the importance of bringing together group members whose personality traits supplement one another and combining them based on team roles, for example task execution, maintenance of social roles in the group and sensitivity to relationships and emotional issues.

Strangely, in many groups the free expression and exploration of emotions are prohibited by group norms. In some forms of team or group facilitation, group members are encouraged to address emotional issues as a prerequisite for personal and group development, but also before business tasks can be executed productively. Fortunately, some groups' decision-making techniques (such as brainstorming) encourage creativity because the norm specifies the unopposed expression of any idea without any evaluation or criticism. The same principle applies when employees are allowed to air their ideas, suggestions, feelings and perceptions concerning issues in the workplace.

5.9.8 Happiness through job design

It is well known that job design, the nature of a job and how employees are actively involved in and execute their job tasks are important in how people perceive their jobs. It follows that the level of employee effectiveness and job satisfaction is a component of happiness. Job design can follow many routes. The job characteristics model (JCM) by Hackman and Oldham (1996) reflects the importance of subjective experiences of work.
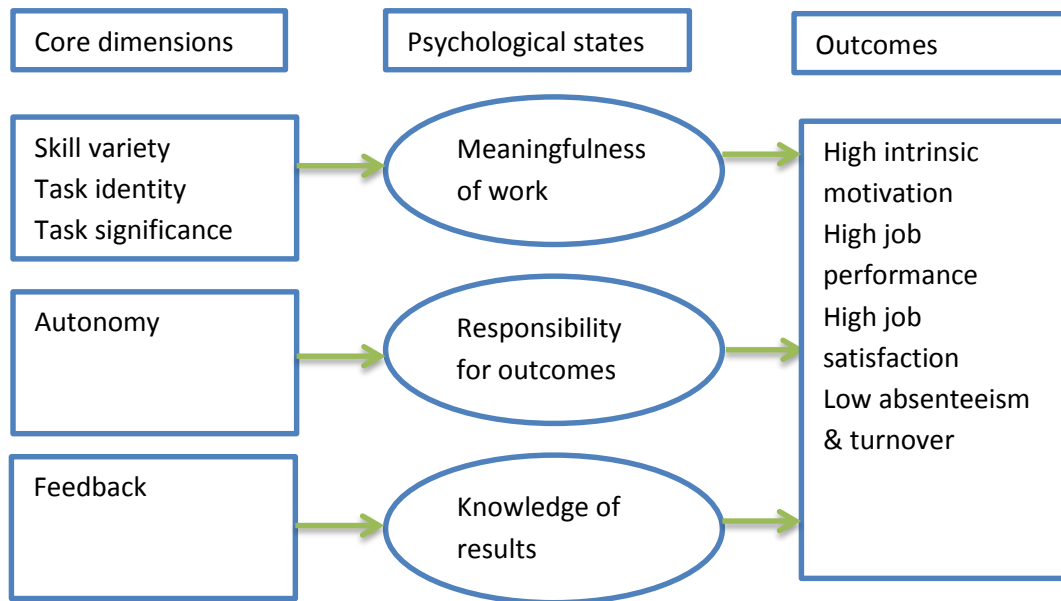
Figure 14: Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model

According to this model, a job with the necessary (or core) job dimensions or meaningful contents elicits certain core subjective or psychological experiences in the employee, which result in certain personal and work outcomes. In both the critical psychological states (or experiences) and the outcomes, emotional contents are clearly evident. We believe that effective job design and management should provide healthy work environments and high-quality work tasks which provide employees with the necessary autonomy and work motivation to achieve personal and organisational goals, resulting in positive feelings, job satisfaction, achievement of goals and occupational wellbeing. According to Lucas and Diener in Ledimo and Matjie (2011), effective job design for happy employees includes elements like social contact between employees, honest feedback on performance, less structured and routine jobs which allow for personal goal-setting, more responsibility and creativity, sufficient challenging tasks and realistic accountability for the quality of task execution (e.g. errors).

5.10 ENRICH YOUR LEARNING

If you are interested in the topic of emotional intelligence, connect with Six Seconds Network at http://www.6seconds.org/ who market themselves as "a global network supporting people to create positive change - everywhere, all the time". They teach the skills of "emotional intelligence to fill the 'missing link' needed for people to become more aware, intentional, and purposeful so individuals, teams, organizations, families, schools and communities flourish". This is a non-compulsory exercise.

5.11 CONCLUSION

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) state that most research findings indicate the work-related relevance and importance of emotions or affective states as part of personality and as a contributing factor in work

performance, subjective wellbeing and psychological health. Emotionally secure employees should be more emotionally intelligent; in other words, positive affective states, moods and emotions will supplement and not disrupt work performance or productivity and work relations. In contrast, there is general consensus that negative emotion impairs work performance in most work-related competencies (i.e. cognitive, social and psychological adjustment).

However, as in work-related personality research, assessment of and research into the relationship between affective states and work performance, researchers should be clear and specific about the variables being measured. This may include the specific conceptualisation of the meaning of emotionality or affective dispositions in comparison to personality (emotions, moods and affective dispositions, and other influences in the emotion-eliciting process). An issue here is how stable affective dispositions are over time and situations. Current evidence indicates that in comparison with personality, emotional dispositions are rather fluid and transient (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

It seems that we will not solve knowledge gaps by summarily referring to emotional or affective dispositions as emotional traits and creating new measures for these without first knowing the emotional content in existing personality trait taxonomies. In work-related research on emotionality, the specification of work performance criteria is just as important. In all these issues more research is necessary into the relationship between personality and affectivity. This may include the role of emotionality in other personality traits and dispositions, and the impact of individual emotional differences on the various components of the emotion-generating process (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

More research is also necessary into the promotion of positive affectivity and emotional skills in employees and management for improved work performance and occupational health. An increased emphasis on emotionality as a necessary work-related human factor should be considered in employing and developing employees, because all the domains in the complexities of the human psyche should be acknowledged. Even more research is necessary to prove the hypothesis that selecting and developing happy employees will ensure consistent effective work performance and productivity (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

5.12 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Personality	Emotions
Affectivity	Positive effectivity
Negative effectivity	Mood
Disposition	Emotional intelligence
Happiness	Subjective wellbeing
Emotion-generating	Emotion-arousing event
Emotion action tendencies	Cognitive appraisal
Emotional regulation	Emotional response/reaction

LEARNING UNIT 6 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, WORK MOTIVATION AND WORK PERFORMANCE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is "a power that strengthens behaviour, gives route to behaviour, and triggers the tendency to continue" (Moerdyk et al, 2015).

Motivation is one of the most researched topics in the workplace (Moerdyk et al, 2015). Studies seem to indicate that 42% of men and 43% of women in South African companies are dissatisfied in their jobs. Job dissatisfaction results in wasted time during working hours, low retention rates and an unwillingness to go that extra mile. Moerdyk et al (2015) point out that taking these statistics into consideration, it would seem that job satisfaction and motivation are important issues in South African companies.

The aim of this learning unit is to help you understand what factors (including personality factors) drive and direct or motivate human behaviour in general, but specifically in work performance, and

how differences in personality and other personal factors may influence work motivation and job satisfaction.

Motivation (also referred to as human dynamics) is a concept which denotes all factors that arouse and direct behaviour in a certain way. In this sense motivation can actually be seen as the pursuit of goals because it includes the content, structure, processes and characteristics involved in establishing, planning, pursuing, achieving and even revising goals. We think the difference between this module and other modules in which you have studied work motivation concepts and theories is our emphasis on how individual difference factors influence work motivation and job satisfaction, and the use of this knowledge in applying motivation-enhancing strategies (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Although work motivation and job satisfaction are closely related to the work performance outcomes, the two concepts are different. Remember that work motivation refers to internal or external activator factors which serve as input to energise certain outcomes (i.e. work performance or productive work behaviour and job satisfaction). Job satisfaction, referring to attitudes of satisfaction towards the workplace, can also be an input factor during the work process for work motivation and effective work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 6.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 6 – Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	E-reserve • Bauer, T., & Erdogan, E. (2012). *An introduction to organizational behavior.* Retrieved from http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/an-introduction-to-organizational-behavior-v1.0/ Screencast o Section 6.7.7.1 SCLU6 value orientations

6.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 6 Individual differences, work motivation and work performance	Discuss individual differences with regard to theory and research on work motivation and apply principles pertaining to individual differences in an organisational context. *Assessment criteria* (1) The concepts of motivation and work satisfaction as used in various theoretical approaches are explained. (2) The concepts of work motivation and work satisfaction are critically discussed in the light of practical motivational and work satisfaction enhancement strategies. (3) Research on the role of individual differences in work motivation and work satisfaction is described.

6.4 CONCEPTS IN WORK MOTIVATION

The phenomenon of motivation in human behaviour and in personality functioning is one of the generally accepted ideas in psychology. One of the main dimensions of this is that people are always striving towards something, but they also want to have some form of homeostasis or balance in their lives. Related to this, and verified by a body of research, is the acceptance that individuals differ in the causes or determinants of their motivated behaviour, for example why they perform well in their jobs and why they feel happy and experience job satisfaction. We have mentioned that motivation is explained either by internal factors or factors directly related to the person, or external factors related to a person's learning experiences or environmental influences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The various motivational concepts have prompted employers to use certain strategies to encourage employees to meet at least the demands of their job descriptions in order to achieve expected individual and organisational goals and standards of performance, to excel and be creative in delivering work, or to attain high productivity levels. These strategies are aimed at addressing certain behaviours, needs, values and attitudes in employees, and some even succeed in differentiating between employees. However, in many organisations the outcomes of well-meant motivation enhancement strategies and techniques are unsuccessful, because they do not address relevant psychological aspects in employees. More often than not they result in general rewards for all employees without differentiating between differences in employee performance levels (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Content and process theories

Different things motivate different people in different situations, and content theories try to explain specific needs that motivate employees (Moerdyk et al, 2015). Content theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and strengths and what sustains, directs and stops behaviour with the intention to look at what motivates an individual. Process theories, on the other hand, concentrate on behaviour (Moerdyk et al, 2015). These theories describe how behaviour is sustained, directed and stopped.

In conclusion, remember that many motivational concepts and assumptions derive from personality theories (which you studied previously), while others derive from other psychological theories and very specific motivational theories. Some of the latter are very specific work motivational theories. Our discussion in this learning unit is based on concepts and not on detailed motivational theories (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.5 LOOKING INTO MOTIVATION FROM A PERSONALITY PERSPECTIVE

Personality traits may include orientations like interests and values, and the intrinsic personality dispositions that we mention later. Some of the known trait classifications may be part of personality dispositions. These concepts all refer to intrinsic attributes or behavioural patterns that may direct and sustain a person's behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 4: Personality factors as measured by Cattell's 16PF

FACTORS	low scores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	high scores
A	reserved											outgoing
B	less intelligent											more intelligent
C	affected by feelings											emotionally stable
E	submissive											dominant
F	serious											happy-go-lucky
G	expedient											conscientious
H	timid											venturesome
I	tough-minded											sensitive
L	trusting											suspicious
M	practical											imaginative
N	forthright											shrewd
O	self-assured											apprehensiveness
Q1	conservative											experimenting
Q2	group-dependent											self-sufficient
Q3	uncontrolled											controlled
Q4	relaxed											tense

6.5.1 Personality traits and types

There are numerous examples of trait classifications applicable to specific areas, and the motivational content from trait descriptions in these classifications is evident. Examples are trait classifications for managerial posts, entrepreneurship, effective customer service behaviour, effective organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational effectiveness. Cooper and Robertson in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) describe 16 customer service orientation personality behaviours, which are measured by their customer service inventory (CSI).

You will remember from your previous studies that some personality theories use personality traits or other concepts to explain motivation. Sometimes they use the same concepts to explain personality structure, development and psychological adjustment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Motivation is described according to dynamic traits (referred to as ergs, derived from a unit of energy or work, and sentiments), which are embedded in certain personality traits. Ergs are genetically determined (much like biological drives or instincts) and provide the energy for all behaviour. Eleven erg traits are identified: gregariousness, sex, self-assertion, curiosity, protection, security, anger, self-submission, hunger, appeal and disgust. As you know, genetic factors are responsible for important unique factors in each person, and it stands to reason that individuals will differ in these innate erg traits. Sentiments, on the other hand, refer to acquired dynamic motivational tendencies, such as interests, preferences, work ethics and attitudes. Through learning and developmental processes, sentiments can be unlearnt or changed – which explains why people differ in these motivating factors, for example why you prefer your current job, or why you are not a sports fan but prefer to attend music festivals (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Thus the effort to achieve certain goals in life or in other areas is a more or less stable characteristic or behaviour pattern of individuals, or at least of some individuals or some individuals in certain situations. The tendency to achieve or to be motivated to achieve could be an enduring pattern or drive throughout a person's lifespan, or could be aroused by certain stimuli or in certain circumstances or situations similar to certain events which arouse certain emotional reactions – a process which may also be influenced by personality Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 5: Traits and behaviours for effective customer service performance

social	communicates well	courteous	positive body language
perceptive	responsive	cooperative	tactful
even-tempered	flexible	open	accepting of authority
optimistic	externally rewarded	reliable	competent

These behaviours in Table 5 have been found to predict some customer-related work performance behaviours, although more research is needed to verify their relationship to personality and motivation.

6.5.2 Exemplary personalities

Another application of the trait approach is based on the attributes of exceptional achievers and entrepreneurs. By now you are familiar with the attributes of the type A personality, which is associated with attributes that emphasise strong achievement motivation and achievements, and is at high risk for stress-related diseases and impaired interpersonal relationships (Furnham, 1995). This is in contrast to the type B personality, which may be less focused on achieving, but healthier and relaxed, and may use emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills to better effect. There are many other type classifications, for example the type C personality, which refers to a person who may be more in control of all their resources, for example has strong resiliency in effective emotional, cognitive and behavioural coping skills, and is strong in self-efficacy, personal hardiness and learned resourcefulness. In this manner, the literature provides type classifications with motivation

implications in many areas, including management, leadership, conflict and stress management, learning and group behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Distinctive personality characteristics refer to high achievers who are the most eminent in different walks of life. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to a study by Cox and Simonton which examined documentary material on 100 geniuses to investigate which personality traits predicted their exceptional achievements. The finding was that people with high (but not necessarily the highest) intelligence combined with the greatest degree of persistence will achieve greater eminence than those with the highest degree of intelligence but less persistence.

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to a study by Rathunde and Csikszentmihalyi who studied a group of people that made significant contributions to the natural sciences, the social sciences, the arts, the humanities, business, the media, politics and so on. They found that those individuals were characterised by high levels of motivation, discipline, perseverance, autonomy and self-confidence, and some of them even endured despite negative situations and adverse conditions. These people's perseverance also implies that they score high in other internal activators, such as the intrinsic personality factors which we discussed previously. The high levels of motivation in exceptional achievers distinguish them from very able and talented people who do not achieve the same degree of eminence.

6.5.3 Citizenship behaviour

This concept refers to employee behaviour in the individual towards their own tasks, colleagues and the organisation, which is seen in their morale and commitment to "go the extra mile" (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Bauer and Erdogan (2012) define citizenship behaviour as performance behaviours that are more discretionary and voluntary in contrast to job performance related to duties that an employee performs as per their job description. Recent research seems to indicate that age is correlated with higher levels of citizenship behaviour, such as volunteering and higher compliance with safety rules (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). The concept of citizenship behaviour more or less denotes the same as the concept of pro-social organisational behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) and the concept of soldier effectiveness (Borman, Motowidl, & Hanser, 1983, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011), which denotes the behaviour of employees to promote the wellbeing of the individual, groups and the organisation at large. Although citizenship behaviours correlate with organisational effectiveness, overall employee performance and employee relationships, there is strong support for the idea that personality factors influence this extra motivational tendency. Examples are personality traits of dominance, dependability, adjustment, cooperativeness and internal locus of control, which all show stronger relationships with citizenship behaviour than the expected task performance behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Researchers agree that voluntary or citizenship behaviours have some functional purpose and meaning for employees. These purposes are beneficial if pro-social needs are met, for example when others are helped (altruism), good interpersonal relations are maintained and recognition comes in the form of positive feedback on work performance. Employees who display high citizenship behaviour may also have a very strong positive work ethic, which enhances work and organisational commitment (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.6 NEEDS AS MOTIVATORS

Theorists are not in agreement about the number of needs that exist, nor about the relationships between those needs, but they agree that employees in the workplace are better motivated when their needs are satisfied. The satisfaction of needs is therefore an important part of motivating behaviour in the workplace (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Needs are biologically based or acquired drives or motives, creating or arousing physiological and psychological states of tension which will require the individual to react in certain ways in order to obtain satisfaction or a state of homeostasis. There are many need classifications, but Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory (for job satisfaction), Alderfer's ERG theory, needs and presses according to Murray, and the latent needs described by Jahoda are arguably the classifications used most often in research and practice. Certain types of needs from these classifications (e.g. the need for self-actualisation, esteem, achievement, affiliation and power) are also cited and applied more than many others (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.6.1 Needs according to Maslow

According to Maslow (1972), people have at least five sets of goals called basic needs, which require a progressive or hierarchical order of satisfaction or prepotency. These needs are physiological needs and the needs for safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. Unfulfilled needs are predominant and the next level of needs is not activated or triggered until the predominant needs are satisfied adequately (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The lowest level of needs is the physiological needs, like hunger and survival needs. If these are relatively satisfied, the other lower order needs for safety and security emerge. If safety and security needs are relatively satisfied, the next level of needs for love and affiliation will emerge, followed by self-esteem needs, and lastly the highest level need of self-actualisation. The individual is quite dependent on external factors in the physical, socioeconomic and sociocultural environment for satisfaction of the first four levels of needs – to the extent that they need other people and societal or work structures to help satisfy them. Self-actualisation (which we discuss later as a separate personal disposition) involves what Maslow calls "being needs" and is an internal activator. Being needs include needing and valuing goodness, truth, unity, beauty, elegance, playfulness, awareness of life and meaningfulness (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

What is also important about Maslow's hierarchy of needs is that gratification has an important role to play in motivation (Maslow, 1972). Needs cease to play an active role as soon as they are satisfied. Satisfied needs do not serve as motivators; only the unsatisfied needs serve as motivators, and can even lead to psychological dysfunctions. However, the latter is not necessarily a consequence of a lack of self-actualisation.

6.6.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer (1972) specifies that there are only three types of needs, but they are not necessarily activated in any specific order.

- **Needs for existence**: These needs correspond with Maslow's physiological and safety needs.

- **Needs for relatedness:** These needs correspond with Maslow's social needs to be loved and accepted.

- **Needs for growth:** These needs correspond with the esteem needs (self-respect and approval).

This theory has a "frustration-regression" hypothesis which suggests that individuals might regress to another need should they be frustrated in their attempt to satisfy one need (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). What is important is that we need to recognise the multiple needs that may be driving an individual at any given point in time. For example, a person who may be frustrated by growth opportunities within the organisation may regress to relatedness and start spending time socialising with co-workers.

6.6.3 Needs and presses

Motivation represents the central issue in personality theory and people are motivated by the desire to satisfy tension-provoking drives (needs). The tension is caused by brain processes which energise and organise perceptions, thoughts and actions towards specific or general goals. Murray lists a number of biological needs (e.g. hunger, thirst, sex, oxygen, deprivation, excretion functions and avoidance of pain). Psychological needs derive from people's mental functions.

The expression of needs is quite complex. For example, people differ concerning these needs, depending on their personality type and specific circumstances. Needs can be triggered by internal and external stimuli. They may be directed at one goal or many. More than one need may energise behaviour together. Needs may be quite visible and directed to the environment, or more obscure and directed to inner or personal satisfaction. Needs may even be in opposition. How needs are expressed and satisfied can also be a function of the individual's own perception of needs-activating stimuli or events (beta press) and what the reality or objective situation really is (alpha press). This may explain why some motivated behaviours are appropriate, cause conflict, or are regarded as aggressive or threatening (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.6.4 Vitamin theory

This theory describes nine specific beneficial opportunities which employment provides and which unemployed persons do not get. These are opportunities for control or autonomy and using skills, opportunities to set personal goals and identify tasks through set organisational goals, opportunities for variety in work, clarity of expectations in the work environment and feedback, clarity of work roles, financial rewards, physical security, interpersonal contact and social status or esteem (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Employees with certain personality types or specific needs may prefer and choose job situations which fit these attributes and which will provide the opportunities to satisfy these needs. In workplaces the satisfaction of employee needs is vital. It may result in happy workers who are committed and loyal to their employment and who meet the performance standards. This can be achieved through effective work design which addresses employee needs through continuous managerial or supervision feedback (performance management) and fair reward practices (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.7 CONCEPTS TO ADDRESS EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

The following concepts are intrinsic personality dispositions with a strong cognitive perceptual and appraisal component which employees may use to assess their own work experiences and which employers may use to address employee motivation. They are flow experienced in the workplace, self-actualisation, functional autonomy, emotions, unconscious motivation, expectancy, values, self-efficacy, equity and attribution (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Intrinsic personality dispositions refer to patterns of personal attributes which provide a person with certain resources to behave or act in certain ways, to practise personal control, to have and maintain flexibility or coping resources and to manage challenges meaningfully and productively.

6.7.1 Flow experiences

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) explain the concept of flow as an optimal condition of internal motivation leading to optimal performance. Flow refers to a state of enjoyment of and progress in activities in which the conditions for optimal performance are that

- challenges do not overtax a person's coping resources or capabilities

- progress towards clear goals is rewarded by immediate feedback

Flow experiences thus emphasise not only a person's capabilities, but also the interaction between the person and their environment and the opportunities in that environment (thus the perceived or experienced balance between potential action capabilities and perceived action opportunities). To stay in a flow experience, a person's conscious attention should be stimulated by the set goal or activities which they have chosen out of their own free will and which they control. In this way flow influences motivation to the point where the person's attention is on themselves – the self is therefore organised around set goals. The self is also a growing phenomenon and continuously creates new goals. The importance of flow for intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction is that this state of balanced but optimal functioning is not only about achieving, but also about the authentic enjoyment of the flow process experienced in executing certain activities. This state of enjoying work may have a good or better chance to provide excellent work performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.7.2 Self-actualisation

Self-actualisation, which is the highest need in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, is an intrinsic process by which people express and fulfil their inner self (Maslow, 1970). Maslow views self-actualisation as a motivational state or process in which individuals develop their individuality in a unique way according to their own individual style. It is a growth process in which individuals become what they really are and express the self. Maslow maintains that self-actualisation acquires motivational force only when individuals have relative satisfaction of lower level needs, which have to be satisfied in a specific hierarchical order (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In the work context the self-actualisation need manifests itself by the desire to acquire new skills that would lead to the attainment of an individual's life goals (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

When we think about human motivation, we think that self-actualisation is a process which is never completed, because achievement is not aimed at a specific end; achievement is a process of becoming

and being continuously fulfilled, helping individuals to find inner homeostasis or balance. This balance will be achieved only if and when individuals succeed in accepting and integrating opposing forces or conflicts in themselves and in relation to others and the world (e.g. their strengths and weaknesses, and love versus anger) (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Carl Rogers (1978) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) distinguishes between self-actualisation and the tendency towards actualisation. Actualisation indicates optimal functioning, a rewarding state that the individual reaches through optimal adjustment and growth. However, the tendency towards self-actualisation refers to a dynamic process in which the individual strives for autonomy by actualising a part of the self (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It is the tendency of the individual to maintain and enrich themselves by an active growth process similar to plant life that self-generates despite favourable or unfavourable conditions. Actualisation is not aimed at fulfilling all the individual's potential, but forms the basis of all human motivation that can selectively and constructively provide self-enrichment in diverse forms of life. The need for food, sex, play and exploration of the self and the environment can be behavioural activities in which self-actualisation manifests itself.

6.7.3 Functional autonomy

This concept is in a way self-explanatory: motives become independent and start functioning on their own. This may be a simplistic way to remember this concept, but it reflects exactly what is meant about the change or transformation of motives from their origin and original objectives. Of vital significance in functional autonomy is that motivated behaviour does not require reinforcement from external sources, because motivation comes from within the individual, and is self-creating and self-sustaining (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Functional autonomy further indicates that adult motives also become self-sustaining, because motivated behaviour in childhood is mostly a means to an end in itself. For example, an individual may initially choose a field of study, a job or a subject only as a means to obtain a qualification, to satisfy parental wishes or to work. In the course of time, however, the person becomes so absorbed in the study or job that they want to continue it or build a career on it. The motive for knowledge and development which was initially directed at instrumental purposes (just a qualification, not to disappoint parents or not be unemployed) now becomes a self-propelling tendency or interest (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Functional autonomy is relevant for the performance management of employees in the way jobs are designed to enhance needs for growth, independence or autonomy, and opportunities to be creative and entrepreneurial.

6.7.4 Emotions

Emotions are discussed in detail in learning unit 5. Suffice to say that emotionality or affectivity (as part of personality, as emotional or affective traits, as more enduring affective states in people or as shorter emotional expressions) has motivational value. Positive and negative emotions are internal activators or may be aroused by certain events, and result in emotional reactions or other behaviour aimed at achieving certain goals or satisfying certain needs. Depending on the type of emotion determined by the total emotion-generating process (see learning unit 5), especially the cognitive appraisal of the emotion-generating event and the consequences of emotions (also with regard to

previous experiences and coping resources), emotions may serve to achieve objectives like social support, sympathy or empathy, or they signal submission or aggression (attacking behaviour), avoidance and affiliation. The intensity of emotions influences work performance, because it involves different levels of activation – an element which should be considered in job design and when selecting and placing employees in certain jobs. Severe negative and disorganised emotions (such as anxiety, manic depression, fear and panic) impair personality functioning and are diagnosed as psychological disorders (e.g. anxiety-based disorders). These conditions or symptoms of these emotions can severely impair work performance, in which case they can be classified as work dysfunctions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.7.5 Unconscious motivation

By now you should know that psychoanalysts like Freud emphasise the role of unconscious factors in motivation. The content of the unconscious may include instincts, ideas, memories and emotions of which the individual is unaware, because they are inhibited or repressed in the unconscious. This may occur because some of the contents of the unconscious are not acceptable according to social norms. These stored unconscious contents may cause conflict in the individual, because the unconscious is motivated or energised according to the principle of seeking immediate or impulsive gratification, mostly in the form of pleasurable or even aggressive acts (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The struggle or conflict between satisfying impulsive needs and abiding by societal norms causes anxiety, and consequently the unconscious contents in certain situations or in general may manifest in disguised forms of behaviour such as defence mechanisms, dreams and humour. If the individual cannot exercise impulse control, the unconscious conflicts motivate the direct expression of impulsive pleasurable or unacceptable behaviours and emotions. Individuals also differ in unconscious motivation caused by differences in positive or negative experiences during childhood and the degree to which unconscious contents have been resolved in later years, or the manner in which people have learnt to cope with unconscious impulses and their consequences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.7.6 Expectancy

Bauer and Erdogan (2012) summarise expectancy theory as follows:
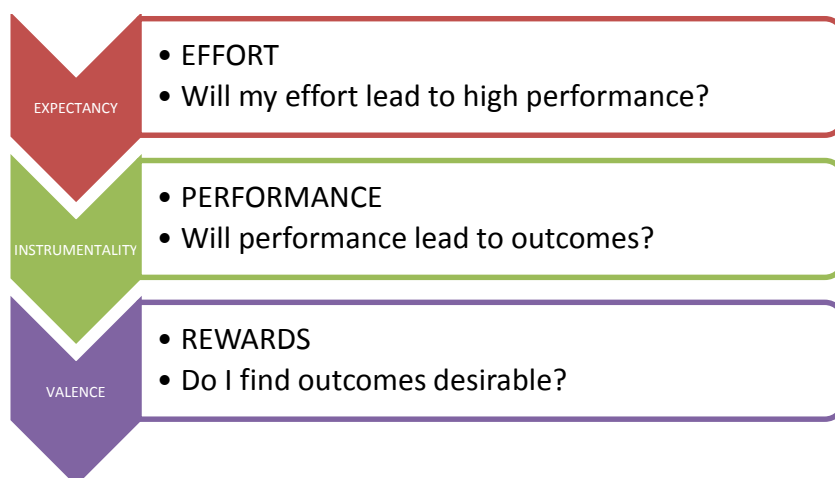
Figure 15: Expectancy theory

Motivation is determined by employees' subjective beliefs or expectancies concerning the outcomes of their behaviour in the pursuit of set goals, which people may consider desirable or undesirable (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). People are rational, logical and cognitively inclined; they think about their work, how they work and what types of rewards will be suitable if they perform at certain levels.

- Expectancy – can I do it? Employees believe or doubt that their efforts will result in reaching the goals and rewards that are attainable.

- Instrumentality - what is in it for me? Employees believe that their effort and performance will be rewarded.

- Valence – how do I feel about the outcomes in question? Employees will make certain efforts if the values of the goals or outcomes are rated as high outcomes.

Bauer and Erdogan (2012) consider how you as a manager could motivate employees by keeping all of this in mind:

- **Influencing expectancy perception:** Employees may not believe their efforts would lead to high performance for a number of reasons. They may not have the skill, they may feel something other than effort predicts performance or they perceive very little connection between effort and performance. To address these as a manager you could train unskilled workers or hire new workers. Create an environment in which employees do not feel restricted and provide positive feedback to those employees whose personality traits, such as low self-esteem, could provide encouragement to them.
- **Influencing instrumentality perceptions:** Show employees that performance is going to be rewarded. Connect reward to performance and make sure this is known. It is important to highlight that performance and not something else is rewarded.
- **Influencing valence:** If rewards are attractive, employees are more likely to be motivated. You need to find out what your employees value.

6.7.7 Values

In contrast to needs, which may be innate and even unconscious, values are stable life goals (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). It is much more likely that employees would accept a job that provides opportunity for value attainment and to remain in situations that satisfy their values (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Values therefore certainly influence behavioural choices and may be the most important indicator of individual differences in people's motivation for action (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Literature indicates that values are characterised by constancy. Values can be inherent in the individual or group, and are not necessarily perceivable, but become perceivable when expressed in explicit behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Several researchers have indicated that values are systematically linked to individual difference factors such as culture of origin, religion, chosen educational discipline, political persuasion, family generations, age, gender, personality and socioeconomic background (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

If people have no values, they cannot plan or take actions with long-term implications. This is especially true for moral values which guide people's choices and actions. Moral values are not always

rational; consider, for example, crime and other negative behaviour. These value deviations may be the result of faulty learning of values, or they may arise because people make errors in applying the correct knowledge, lose focus on what they usually do right or pursue short-term pleasures (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Values develop through the same processes that influence attitude development, including external sociocultural factors and personal experiences that have a psychological effect on the individual.

6.7.7.1 Six value orientations

Instructions: Go to **Additional Resources** and open the screencast **SCLU6 value orientations** for an explanation of this section.

Spranger's six value orientations are intrinsic to every person's personality. They are theoretical, economic, social, power, religious and aesthetic orientations. They are all present in personality and function in relation to one another. However, one value orientation is usually dominant in a person's personality, which explains why a person may be characterised as a social or power type of person. These dominant value orientations in personality influence a person's preferences, motivations, aims and ways of life (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013).

• **Theoretical people**

Theoretical people are intellectual people who value knowledge and seek eternal truths rather than the deeper meaning of things. They tend to generalise and do not notice the particular in the general. This makes them wise rather than clever where the particular is concerned. They value objectivity, which makes true or false the real criterion for truth. Criteria such as beautiful or ugly, holy or unholy, useful or useless are seen as irrelevant because they are subjective. These people see general knowledge as personal knowledge, and can become too theoretical and too involved in their own ideas. The practical aspects of life become of no interest.

• **Economic people**

Economic people are driven by a utility motive which is seldom satisfied because they are constantly striving to produce something visible. They see work and income as synonymous. Both involve utility and sustained yields or products, which are the factors by which economic people renew themselves psychologically. These types of people always have to be involved in economic activities (be it at work, at home, in the environment, in the countryside or in the world) and all their activities should have visible utility value.

Economic people are more in touch with reality than theoretical people in that knowledge is only valued if it has a practical purpose. Beauty is seen in terms of utility value and may be valued only in terms of luxury or economic necessity. Art, for example, is valued for its credit value.

Economic people's basic motive is to maintain themselves, which means that their ego is the most important aspect of life. Other people are seen as the same as producers and consumers, and their value as worthwhile or good people is seen in terms of their diligence, thrift, skill, reliability and orderliness. As such, they deserve credit. Economic people generally value jobs in commerce, manufacturing, banking, manual work, handicraft or farming, because they all involve doing something useful that produces something.

• **Social people**

Social people are selfless people who live through others. They only become a person in their own right by giving and receiving love; and when the need to receive love becomes a need to give love, their true social nature evolves. This can manifest in a philanthropic love for people in general or commitment to an individual – a friend, a lover or a family member.

Social people are not interested in theoretical or objective knowledge of people, but focus on sympathy, empathy and acceptance of the positive and the negative. They can cope with the ugly, the sickly and the formless, and bring transformation with their warmth and inner light.

If involved in economic activity, social people have no concern with acquisitiveness, but only with service to others.

• **Power people**

Power people find meaning in life by experiencing themselves as powerful. Their strongest motive is to confirm this life power by being superior to other people.

The power orientation can also be seen as a political orientation because it manifests itself in the context of organised collective life. In this context power people play a leading role, because they have to be in control. The power orientation is an inner compulsion that the individual has to express. It can be expressed in terms of other value orientations by using theoretical knowledge, economic utility, aesthetic beauty or religious piety as personal characteristics to rise above other people.

Closely related to the power orientation is the economic orientation because consumer goods are utility goods that can be used to influence people. However, power people are not concerned with utility as such (or with being economical or producing something); they would rather use diplomacy or coercion to gain control over material things and, therefore, over people. They are not concerned with understanding people; they only want to get them going. They may be interested in art to give external form to themselves, since it suggests cultural refinement. By becoming, for example, an art collector, they enter a fantasy world in which the power motive manifests in a subtler way. The power orientation can also manifest in social play, by which one person conquers others.

• **Religious people**

All the facets of the religious person's life have a spiritual foundation. These people see nothing as existing in itself, because everything is part of the spiritual, God being the objective correlate. Faith is seen as the highest form of knowledge. Religious people can forsake things and needs, but may see economic activities as service to God and the acquisition of earthly things as gifts from God. Art, music, dance or other aesthetic forms are not appreciated as forms in themselves, but as embodiments of an ideal of something eternal.

The religious value orientation is closest to the social value orientation because it involves love, but God (not a person) is the one ultimate loved. Unity with God prevents the religious person from experiencing loneliness.

If religious people feel that they have power, it is seen as God-given. Another religious person may feel a need to acquire power, to get closer to God who is the highest in the hierarchy of power.

It is seen as the most individualistic of the six value orientations. It is similar to having a sense of fate, and fate is something different for every person.

• **Aesthetic people**

Aesthetic people give form to their inner being through aesthetic experience. They can transform something from any sphere of life (be it intellectual, spiritual, physical or emotional) into an experience of beauty. Through this way of experiencing, they expand their inner being and actualise their core nature. This nature is to create form and harmony according to an inherent will-to-form.

The generally applicable knowledge which theoretical people value does not concern aesthetic people. They do not look at life – they experience life. They do not seek objective truth, but rather experience reality intuitively. These people are open to experience, enjoy the unfamiliar if it is seen as meaningful and do not rely on the conventional. They rather see life as a spectacle of colour, rhythm and movement. The diverse is preferable to the common, and the particular is enjoyed or appreciated for its own sake.

The religious experience of aesthetic people is influenced by the appreciation for valued beauty. They do not seek a religion of denial, of dualities or chaos, but a religion in which God is seen as the highest giver of the harmony of life.

Aesthetic people do not have a power motive in the sense of needing to control other people. However, they may have a feeling of power in that their individuality and way of experiencing is an inner power which they can use to influence people.

In social relations aesthetic people also seek form and harmony. They value spiritual unity with people, rather than looking at them with sympathy or as utility objects.

6.7.7.2 Four cultural values in organisational context

Culture refers to values, beliefs and customs that exist in society, according to Bauer and Erdogan (2012). Thinking about hundreds of different ways in which cultures differ is not practical when considering and trying to understand how culture affects work behaviour. Geert Hofstede, a Dutch social scientist, studied IBM employees in 66 countries and showed four dimensions of national culture that explain an important source of variations in cultures. The four value systems are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity. Research also shows that these variations influence employee job behaviours, attitudes, motivation, wellbeing and leadership, among other things (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Individualism Cultures in which people define themselves as individuals and looser ties with their groups	Collectivism Cultures where people have stronger bonds to their groups and group membership forms a person's self-identity
USA **Australia** **UK** **Canada** **Hungary**	Guatemala Ecuador Indonesia Pakistan China

Lower Power Distance A society that views an unequal distribution of power as relatively unacceptable	High Power Distance A society that views an unequal distribution of power as relatively acceptable
Austria **Denmark** **Israel** **New Zealand**	Malaysia Slovakia Philippines Russia Mexico
Low Uncertainty Avoidance **Cultures in which people are comfortable in unpredictable situations and have high tolerance for ambiguity**	**High Uncertainty Avoidance** Cultures in which people prefer predictable situations and have low tolerance for ambiguity
Denmark **Jamaica** **Singapore** **China** **Sweden**	Belgium El Salvador Greece Guatemala Portugal
Masculinity **Cultures in which people value achievements and competitiveness as well as acquisition of money and other material objects**	**Femininity** Cultures in which people value maintaining good relationships, caring for the weak, and quality of life
Slovakia **Japan** **Hungary** **Austria** **Venezuela**	Norway Netherlands Sweden Costa Rica Chile

Figure 16: Value systems (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012)

• Power distance

Power distance concerns the distribution of power in organisations, which is inevitably unequal because organisations are mostly organised in hierarchies of supervisor-subordinate relationships. Cultural influences determine how these relationships are dealt with in organisations and include values instilled by parent-child and teacher-child relationships, for example the degree of dependence of the child on authority figures or the acceptable degree of equality granted to children by authority figures (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Power distance can be understood in terms of the values of the less powerful members of the organisation. This involves the extent to which they expect and accept that power is unequally distributed, as indicated in table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Low and high power distance value distribution

Low	High
Less centralisation	More centralisation
Flatter organisation pyramids	Tall organisational pyramids
Fewer supervisory personnel	More supervisory personnel
Smaller wage differentials	Large wage differentials
Structure which makes manual and clerical work equal	Structure in which white collar jobs are valued more than blue collar jobs

In most work situations power distance varies between two extremes, namely a large power distance situation and a small power distance situation. Large power distance is characterised by many inequalities and the lower power distance by fewer inequalities (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- **Uncertainty avoidance**

This refers to the extent to which employees feel threatened by ambiguous situations, and how they create beliefs and ways to avoid them (see table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Low and high levels of uncertainty avoidance

Low	High
Less structuring of activities	More structuring organisations
Few written rules	More written rules
More generalists	More specialists
Variability	Standardisation
Greater willingness to take risks	Less willingness to take risks
Less realistic behaviour	More realistic behaviour

- **Individualism versus collectivism**

These value orientations concern the role of the individual versus the role of the group. Individualism characterises societies in which the ties between individuals are loose. Everyone is expected to look after themselves and their immediate family. Families in these societies consist mostly of two parents and children, or one parent and children. This is called the nuclear family. Individuals see themselves as "I" – a personal identity distinct from others' identities – and association with other people is based on their individual characteristics rather than their group membership (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Collectivism characterises societies in which people are integrated into strong in-groups which, throughout their lifetime, protect them in exchange for loyalty. The majority of people live in collectivist societies. Collectivism here does not refer to the influence of the state over individuals in a political sense, but to the influence of the group. Families in these societies include parents, children, grandparents, other relatives and domestic staff. This is called an extended family. The individual's identity is seen in terms of "we" rather than "I" (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 6.3: Low and high individualism-collectivism value orientations

Low	High
Organisation is family	Impersonal organisation
Organisation defends employees' interests	Employees fend for their own interests
Practices are based on loyalty, a sense of duty and group participation	Practices encourage individual initiative

Although individualism and collectivism are established as two different emotional value orientations, they are not incompatible. "I"-focused individualistic identity and "we"-focused collective connectedness can co-exist in one person's sense of identity.

A South African study has shown that value systems influence leadership style. Black and white managers have different ways of enacting leadership: those who are collectivist managers are people-oriented, while individualistic managers are task-oriented (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- **Masculinity versus femininity**

In masculine societies children are socialised towards assertiveness, ambition and competition, and in the work situation results are considered important. Men are not seen as tender and taking care of relationships, but as tough. In feminine societies children are socialised towards modesty and solidarity, and in the work situation social relationships are considered important. Both men and women are seen as being concerned with relationships – similar to the role women are generally associated with, namely that of taking care and being tender (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 6.4: Low and high masculinity and femininity value levels

High	Low
Sex roles are minimised	Sex roles are clearly differentiated
	Organisations may interfere to protect their
Organisations do not interfere in employees' private lives	interests
More women in qualified jobs	Fewer women in qualified jobs
Soft, yielding, intuitive skills are rewarded	Aggression, competition and justice are rewarded
Social roles are rewarded	Work is valued as a central life interest

The distribution of men and women who work is not related to the masculinity or femininity of a country either. In all countries there are ambitious and unambitious men and women (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.7.7.3 Values and the meaning of work

The meaning of work embraces the values that individuals attach to a workplace or to working.

A significant factor in the meaning of work is the value that working as such has for the individual at any given time. This involves the centrality of work as a life interest, that is, the value outcomes or rewards associated with working relative to the outcomes of other life roles (Roberson, 1990, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It has been found that seeing work as a central life interest decreases as the importance of leisure time increases. The majority of individuals, however, value working and would continue working even if they had the means to live comfortably without working for the rest of their lives.

6.7.8 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy, an concept coined by Bandura, refers to the beliefs or the sense of having more or less control over events that affect a person's life. It involves the perception of personal resources (abilities, knowledge, etc.) to use skills effectively. It does not involve judging or appraising a person's own skills as such, but evaluating what they see themselves as capable of doing with their skills (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

People's perception of their self-efficacy influences both the direction and maintenance of goal-directed behaviour. It determines whether the individuals will pursue a particular objective and how much effort will be put into attaining the objective. The higher the perception of self-efficacy, the more likely it is that individuals will be motivated. Research shows that self-efficacy is related to job performance (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

6.7.9 Equity

Equity is determined when an individual compares input:outcome ratio with the input:outcome ratio of a referent (other) (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Perceptions of inequity create tension within an individual and drive them to action that will reduce perceived inequality.

Equity is perceived if the ratio of an individual's inputs to outcomes corresponds to that of other individuals (such as co-workers working on the same job) whom they use as referents for comparison. Inequity is perceived if the outcomes in relation to inputs are either too low or too high in comparison to referents (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

If employees perceive their remuneration as too low in relation to their inputs when compared with co-workers, they may lower their inputs by putting less effort into the work. They may also attempt to change the outcomes by lowering the quality of their work but increasing the quantity. If they are working on a piece-rate basis, this will result in more payment. If they perceive their remuneration as too high for their input in comparison with co-workers, they may increase input by working harder or acquiring new skills (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

To establish equity, individuals may also change their perception of a referent (by reasoning that the referent's job situation excludes favourable benefits) or they may choose other referents (e.g. individuals doing similar work in other organisations).

6.7.10 Attribution

An attribution is the causal explanation we give ourselves for an observable behaviour. If we believe that the behaviour is due to an internal characteristic of the individual, we will be making an internal attribution. An external attribution would mean we believe the observed behaviour is because of a particular situation, also known as a locus of causality (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Research shows that there are three factors that are key to understanding the kind of attribution we make:

- **Consensus:** Do other people behave the same way?
- **Distinctiveness:** Does the person behave the same way across different situations?

- **Consistency:** Does the person behave this way on different occasions in the same situation?

Table 7: Attribution

Consensus	Distinctiveness	Consistency	Type of attribution
High consensus	High distinctiveness	Low consistency	External
Everyone else behaves the same way	This person does not usually behave this way in different situations	This person does not usually behave this way in this situation	
Low consensus	Low distinctiveness	High consistency	Internal
No one else behaves the same way	This person usually behaves this way in different situations	Every time this person is in this situation, they act the same way	

In applying attribution to achievement motivation, it has been found that individuals localise their successes and failures according to a locus of causality and a stability dimension. Stability refers to the consistency of causes over time. Individuals who attribute the outcomes of their achievements to internal factors seek further attributions in either their ability (a stable factor which does not show much variation) or in their effort (an unstable factor which is subject to variation). Individuals with high achievement motivation use these two stability dimensions to explain the outcomes of their behaviour. Individuals with low achievement motivation use ability and effort together with two stability factors associated with an external locus of causality, namely task difficulty and luck. Task difficulty is seen as a stable factor, while luck is seen as an unstable factor (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The implication of attribution theory is that individuals may have a motivational orientation by which they see themselves as responsible for decisions that can affect the outcomes of behaviour, or an orientation by which outcomes are attributed to factors beyond the self, including the possibility of fate.

A motivational orientation may become an attributional style that the individual uses in different situations and over time. For example, an individual may develop a depressive orientation style, which is the tendency to see all negative events as caused by internal and stable factors. The symptoms are similar to the phenomenon of learnt helplessness (including passiveness, negative emotions and learning deficiencies), which is a consequence of learning from experience that personal responses do not affect the outcomes desired (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Self-serving bias also plays a role as our attributions do not always depend on consensus, distinctiveness and consistency. When interpreting our own behaviour there could be a tendency to attribute failure to the situation and success to internal causes (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

6.8 INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL MOTIVATING FACTORS

These are motivating factors or clues from the job or external environment which are supposed to elicit motivated behaviour from the employee.

6.8.1 Reinforcement

Reinforcement in motivation is mostly the application of learning or conditioning principles. In other words, work motivation is the result or process when employee working behaviours are rewarded or reinforced by certain outcomes such as financial rewards, praise or the work performance itself. The latter refers to secondary or respondent reinforcement if the work performance or outcome which follows on the motivated behaviour serves as the new motivational stimuli. This means that positive outcomes will be internalised by the employee, which will result in motivation being a self-propelling force in employees with or without external rewards or reinforcers (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

A further important assumption is reinforcement contingency – that motivation of behaviour will be optimal if the rewards or reinforcers follow immediately after or are contingent on the performance behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.8.2 Goal-setting

Personal or self-chosen goal-setting refers to the intrinsic orientation to be goal directed or have a productive orientation. Personal goals guide employees' appraisal of achievement situations and their work behaviours in progressing towards and reaching expected goals. In other sections of this learning unit, we indicate that self-actualising employees who experience optimal work functioning or flow in their work experiences have intrinsic and personal goals. Ambrose and Kulik (1999, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) and Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck and Alge (1999, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) indicate that goal-setting influences work performance in the following ways:

- Employees with personal goals are committed to their work and face the challenge of achieving these goals. Employee commitment has a stronger relationship with self-chosen goals in comparison with externally generated goals (e.g. goals set by supervisors or the employer, or caused by anger).

- Specific and more difficult goals facilitate better work performance than tasks that are too easy.

- Employees with an intrinsic orientation to change their own goals have strong self-regulatory mechanisms. Strong beliefs about the self or self-efficacy enhance personal goal-setting expectancies and behaviour and the progression towards these goals, because these employees also trust their competencies to achieve self-chosen goals.

- Self-chosen goals are best rewarded if employees receive feedback on the progress towards the goals, whether the goals should be changed and when the goals have been achieved.

6.8.3 Job characteristics

Elsewhere we refer to external activators in motivational behaviour. One such approach is the job characteristics model, in which Hackman and Oldham (1976) postulate that certain core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) elicit certain psychological states (experienced meaningfulness and responsibility, and knowledge of work progress and results) that result in personal and organisational outcomes (higher internal work motivation, high levels of work performance, job satisfaction and low absenteeism and turnover rates). All these job characteristics should provide the employee with a high requirement for growth. This means that

employees who enjoy work optimally are loyal and want to be in the organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.8.4 Job satisfaction and other work-related attitudes

Work-related attitudes, like job satisfaction, organisational and job involvement and work engagement, result from employees' perceptions and cognitive appraisal of work experiences and workplaces. These attitudes also contribute to positive or negative culture and climate in work groups and organisations. Work-related attitudes are influenced by individual differences in cognitive, emotional, behaviour, personality and other biographical factors, and especially in the underlying work values and many different reasons why employees work and how their work experiences satisfy their needs. High levels of job satisfaction and other positive attitudes can be viewed as motivating factors that encourage good work performance. However, high work motivation may also facilitate high levels of job satisfaction (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.8.4.1 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is mostly indicated through self-reports of employees (questionnaires, surveys, interviews and other methods like absence counts, disciplinary cases and turnover) about their judgements, perceptions or attitudes concerning various attributes or dimensions in the workplace – that is, the favourability of the work environment. Remember that work-related attitudes include cognitive and emotional contents which determine employee actions. Job satisfaction is viewed as a rather stable attitude over longer periods because most or many people are generally satisfied with their jobs or careers, may be happy with most aspects of their jobs or are less satisfied when certain situations arise. However, some workplaces are "bad" or cannot sufficiently accommodate all employees' expectations. In addition, some employees may have a personality or affective disposition which renders them dissatisfied or unhappy most of the time (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

An interesting perspective of Miller and Rosse (2002) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) is that high job satisfaction is actually a state of homeostasis. It does not necessarily trigger motivation to change or improve; it only does so when a specific event serves as the trigger for an employee to be unhappy and dissatisfied. In contrast, dissatisfaction (which is unpleasant) is a motivating factor to act or change. Job dissatisfaction plays an important role in employee adaptation to changing circumstances. They often withdraw temporarily or permanently.

6.8.4.2 Job engagement

Job engagement is defined as intense, intrinsically motivated work experiences and commitment characterised by a very positive work-related state of mind, dedication, absorption, vigour or energy and the setting of very specific tasks and outcomes (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Baker, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It is obvious from this description that not all employees necessarily have this intense job engagement, and that it is associated with specific personality attributes, values and needs. Job engagement may be related to organisational commitment and job involvement, because these constructs both refer to a level of identification the employees have with their job or workplace and its objectives.

6.9 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE, WORK MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

Performance is a function of three determinants, namely declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation. Declarative knowledge represents factual knowledge about specific things (or knowing what to do), while procedural knowledge and skill is the degree to which a person is able to perform a task. Motivation is the combined effect of the choice to expend effort in a particular direction, the choice of the level of effort to expend and the choice to persist at that level of effort (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality factors may be an indirect performance determinant because the individual with a certain personality profile (traits, abilities, interests, education and experience) joins an organisation. Certain other determinants can influence performance indirectly. Some of these indirect performance determinants that are provided by the organisation are reward systems, training and management systems (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality can therefore influence performance through its influence on declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation. This means that an employee who has a certain strong personality variable may tend to acquire more of the declarative or procedural knowledge necessary for performance in that dimension (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.9.1 Cognitive ability and work motivation

There is sufficient evidence that general intelligence and many other group and specific cognitive ability factors have a direct or indirect influence on work motivation (e.g. set and chosen goals), which influences job performance across jobs and in many situations (also see learning unit 4). Some approaches hold that cognitive ability influences work motivation directly; that is, goals are chosen and set depending on a person's cognitive skills and these goals then influence work performance. The levels of difficulty of chosen goals may also be influenced by the strengths of and self-efficacy beliefs in cognitive abilities, which all influence job engagement, persistence and ultimately work performance. However, cognitive ability factors could serve mostly as moderating variables to explain the relationship between work motivation and job or task performance (Locke & Latham, 1990, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In this respect, the influence of ability on self-efficacy beliefs in, for example, spatially loaded tasks (such as in air traffic control jobs) has been verified; however, practice, training and experience have a dominant influence.

6.9.2 Personality factors and work motivation

Research supports the notion of motivation as a mediator in the personality-performance relationship. As we mentioned previously, some dissidents criticise the factorial classifications of personality traits. They criticise the overemphasis of personality traits and the lack of attention to other personality concepts. Others criticise research designs and the lack of scrutiny when work performance criteria are used (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Several personality constructs (many of which can be found in the 3-personality trait, 5-personality trait or 16-personality trait classification) have been associated with work motivation, especially goal-striving behaviour. Some of these traits and types are self-esteem, need for achievement, need for independence, need for affiliation, need for power, type A personality, locus of control, self-efficacy,

attention persistence, ambition, initiative and future time receptiveness. Of all these, self-efficacy has been most researched as a personality-related factor which influences goal-choice behaviour – and therefore the relationship between motivation and work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).
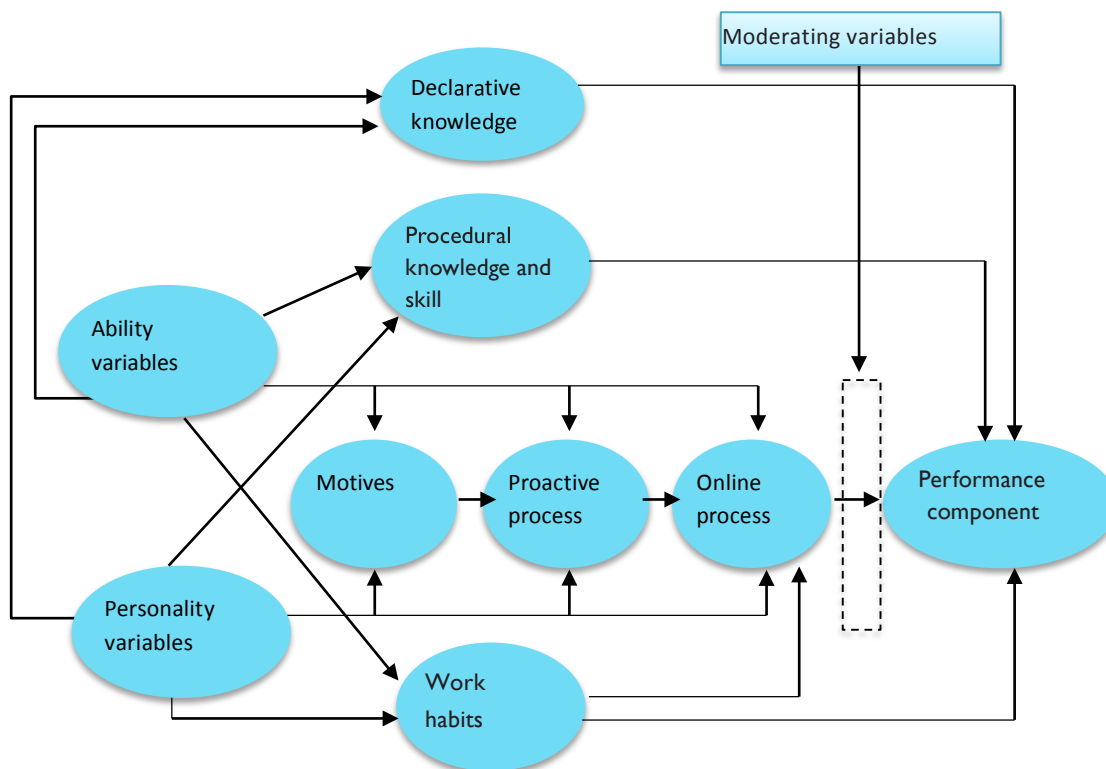
Figure 17: General model of the relationship between personality and work performance

An important finding is that the relationship between motivation and personality is influenced by situational, goal-setting and goal-difficulty variables. For example, it seems as if personal or self-selected goal behaviours predict the relationship between personality and work performance better than externally chosen goals would. Similarly, employee valuation of goals as positive, negative or neutral (or as higher or lower goals) also influence the personality-motivation-work performance relationship (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.9.3 Emotions, work motivation and job satisfaction

We discussed the relationship between individual differences and affect or emotion, and also the role of emotion arousal in motivation. We indicated that extroversion, in particular, has significant links with positive emotions, while high levels of neuroticism (low emotional stability) have a significant relationship with negative emotions. The emphasis here is on specific orientations (interests and values) and temperament factors in personality and motivation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

It seems that the impact of job satisfaction (as an expression of employee attitudes, value reflections and employee-workplace fit with regard to occupational interests) on work motivation may be indirect, but also more direct. Many factors may influence work-related attitudes, for example cognitive appraisal of working conditions, demographic differences between people, personality traits and dispositions, and affective states or emotionality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.9.3.1 Job satisfaction and negative affectivity

Job satisfaction contains an affective reaction to a person's job, which is a pleasurable or joyful emotional state resulting from an appraisal of a person's job. Research indicates a significant relationship between positive affectivity or emotions (e.g. feelings of happiness and joy) and job satisfaction.

6.9.3.2 Performance and job satisfaction

Work-related attitudes are influenced by employee emotions at a certain time and place, and by the positive or negative emotions linked to specific characteristics of the work environment. An employee with a negative mindset may be negative about most things in life. Similarly, an employee who feels angry towards management because their application for leave was refused may at that time rate many work characteristics negatively. Negative or positive judgements are even stronger if previous feelings were similar or if the element being rated has a lot of meaning for the employee. For example, younger employees may rate salary and growth opportunities as more important than older employees would (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.9.3.3 Job satisfaction and positive affectivity

The bulk of research indicates that people with a broad disposition of positive affectivity (long-term nature of emotional life) consistently experience positive emotions or affective states. They experience frequent episodes of pleasure, and are cheerful and happy, enthusiastic, confident, energetic and alert (Watson, 2002, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). These feelings in the work context may lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, because cognitive appraisal of events and conditions in the workplace are also influenced positively. Warr (1994, 1999, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011), who follows a positive psychological approach, views positive emotions and high levels of arousal or stimulation as an important component of healthy work and employee wellbeing. According to him, job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment are reflections of how people feel about their work and in their work.

6.10 MOTIVATION-ENHANCING TECHNIQUES

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) note that theories and associated techniques to enhance employee motivation often have mixed success, the reasons being their inconsistent application by employers, failure to provide for individual differences and their impact on employee motivation and work performance.

The following strategies and methods use assumptions and concepts from the theoretical and research contents:

6.10.1 Job and task design

We referred to the intrinsic nature of job characteristics which should facilitate certain psychological experiences in individuals and result in the desired personal and organisational outcomes. This is possibly the most neglected area in planning and thinking about work organisations, in workplaces, in establishing and implementing person and job specifications, in job descriptions and in the actual design of workplaces and specific job stations. Employers should constantly redesign workplaces to provide for common ergonomic principles or consider the fact that employee competencies entail

physical, physiological, personality, intellectual, emotional, social and moral aspects. Often they make the mistake of ignoring these aspects. The interaction between the employees and their external environments cannot be ignored either. Job design practices should help employees to feel good in the workplace. Their needs and worth as people should be looked after, and they should be given the necessary resources to execute the tasks for which they have been appointed or the job to which they have been promoted (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.1.1   Job enlargement

Job enlargement refers to performing more tasks at the same post level. Employees need a change in routine to reduce repetition and monotony. A job is enlarged by providing a variety of tasks within the job, thereby expanding the job on a horizontal level. For example, a typist's work may be enlarged by alternating typing with administrative tasks. Some workers experience enlargement as satisfying, while others see the additional jobs as merely an increase in the workload which neither add interest nor present a challenge. Enlargement procedures should be revised constantly if job enlargement is to serve as an incentive to motivate employees (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.1.2   Job enrichment

Job enrichment entails giving workers greater responsibility and control over their jobs. Employees need responsibility, independence, autonomy and complexity. A job is enriched by the addition of more complex tasks to expand the job content vertically. Administrative officers' jobs can be enriched by giving them more authority over their work procedures, including planning, executing and evaluating their own work. Accountability is vital; it gives employees self-responsibility that makes them feel they are achieving something worthwhile. Although enrichment reduces absenteeism and turnover, and increases job satisfaction, it does not invariably increase productivity. Some individuals feel that more responsibility should be rewarded with increased benefits, including financial benefits (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In conclusion, you may consider the following points which summarise elements that increase motivation at work through job design or redesign:

- Combine job tasks to enable workers to perform a job in its entirety. This can be done by forming natural work units to allow workers to identify with their work, and by establishing client relationships to allow service and product providers to meet client needs.

- Load jobs vertically to allow greater responsibility and control at work, and open feedback channels to give workers knowledge of their results.

6.10.2 Employee-organisation fit

This refers to various motivational factors which determine whether the employee and the organisation are suitable for each other (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Firstly, it refers to assessment processes to ensure the best fit between the attributes of employees and organisational and job attributes, for example in the selection and promotion of employees.

- An ongoing optimal fit between employees and organisations can be achieved through ongoing organisational diagnosis to assess the organisational climate (e.g. job satisfaction, trust and wellbeing) in order to be aware of employee attitudes and perceptions.

- Training and other development opportunities can be created, and fair and continuous performance management practices applied (e.g. performance appraisal and career development interventions) to provide employees with feedback on their role and performance in the organisation.

An ongoing optimal fit between employees and the workplace enables employees to believe in their self-efficacy; that is, they can use their competencies to contribute to and enjoy the value, benefits and latent benefits of working. An optimal job environment-employee fit also strengthens the social contract between employees and the employer (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.3 Goal-setting

In the organisational context, ideal goal-setting practices mean that management should create an organisational climate that focuses on employees' personal intrinsic motivation and their beliefs about the causes of successful goal attainment. However, in reality goal-setting strategies may often be based on two tenets: allowing for self-chosen goals by employees and for the setting of goals by the employer (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The "self-propelling" employee has the internal motivation to provide self-chosen goals and pursues these goals without being pushed. Flexibility should be allowed in job execution, preferred working methods and work schedules to allow for autonomy, creativity and commitment. This attitude in an organisation is manifested in job designs that have job characteristics which allow autonomy, creativity and growth, in performance management systems that allow participation in setting or discussing organisational goals, in providing feedback on work roles, and in progression and achievement of personal and organisational goals. All organisational and personal goals should be realistic, attainable and of sufficient difficulty to satisfy employees' need for challenges and mastery or to use competencies. Realistic and fair goals obviously also contribute to employees' expectations that their effort will lead to good work performance and rewards. If employees can participate in some way in determining work goals and their consequences, they may also put in more effort to attain these goals. Again, this confirms the social contact between employees and employer (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.4 Various forms of reinforcement

All motivational enhancement strategies are aimed at rewarding or reinforcing productive behaviour of employees in order to maintain acceptable work performance or to improve performance to optimal or excellent levels. Reinforcement, which is based on learning or conditioning principles, may be aimed at work behaviour (in training, execution of tasks or compensation strategies). A continuous performance management system should make provision for adequate feedback and communication about the processes and consequences of task execution and goal achievement (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.4.1 Financial remuneration or compensation

Employee satisfaction may be an important reason for employers to have fair remuneration policies and practices. Even if financial remuneration is in some respects seen as a hygiene factor (see Herzberg's theory on motivators and hygiene factors), experience tells us that fair pay may increase employee work performance and decrease withdrawal behaviour like turnover and absenteeism (and even the occurrence of dishonest work behaviour, such as stealing or doing outside work during working hours). Unfair financial rewards lead mostly to job dissatisfaction and various forms of negative work behaviour, while fair pay addresses employee attributions like expectancies and equity attitudes that certain levels of effort (input) lead to certain performance outcomes and related or deferential compensation. Financial compensation can be in the form of wages and salaries, incentive plans, benefit programmes and other privileges with financial implications (e.g. medical schemes, vehicle allowances and bursary schemes) (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

It is important to remember that money and its advantages have different meanings for different employees, and may also satisfy different needs. Newer forms of financial compensation schemes allow employers to provide rewards which may differentiate between employees, and employees may even have a say in how their reward package should be structured. These schemes are market-related pay packages, broadbanding (where all employees may move along a certain range of remuneration without unnecessary ceilings, except a minimum and maximum) and skills-based, performance-based, competency-based, merit-based and even team-based pay structures (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.4.2 Reinforcement through task design

As mentioned, goals and task design should be realistic and attainable. To make jobs more interesting and to avoid overtaxing mental and psychological resources through boredom, routine or tasks that are too easy or too difficult, tasks can be organised into smaller work execution and time elements.

6.10.4.3 Rewards aimed at higher order needs

Although financial remuneration and some fringe benefits may meet higher order needs such as self-esteem, status and recognition, employers should ensure that existing reward systems take care of these needs. A contribution in this regard is the type of organisational culture which should be based on values like respect for the dignity of each person, recognition of individual differences, and policies and practices based on fair treatment for all employees. Employees and management alike should carry this culture of respect and care into employee relations and daily work behaviours. It should be common practice in performance management for an employee to feel, hear and experience expressions or tokens of appreciation, consideration, care, recognition and valuing as a co-worker who is trying to advance the company's interests (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.4.4 Attitude change

Attitude change can be applicable to individual employees, groups and the organisational climate and culture. Attitude change strategies should be based on thorough diagnoses or assessment and clear communication. If necessary, change interventions should be applied from the top down to the lower levels and should not, as is often the case, only be applied at the lower levels. Change agents should have credibility and strategies should be purposeful (e.g. adding information to change cognitive

dissonance, and training employees in positive thinking and affect to be able to apply effective self-control and emotional intelligence in their jobs) (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

6.10.4.5 Bring back meaning and pride in work

Organisations should develop a programme that not only offers perks in the form of salaries and personal development for workers, but also creates an atmosphere in which meaning can be experienced. This atmosphere can be created when the organisation makes the workers feel that they are a part or co-owners of the meaningful whole and that the organisation is making a meaningful contribution to society.

In conclusion, Ledimo and Matjie (2011) note Lawler and Porter's effort to integrate most or many of the theories and concepts on work motivation and work-related attitudes, like job satisfaction. Some other theories that are similar to this model are more complete, but none explain all the possible interactions between input behaviours, the processes of working and the outputs or consequences (e.g. effective work performance and work-related attitudes, like job satisfaction).
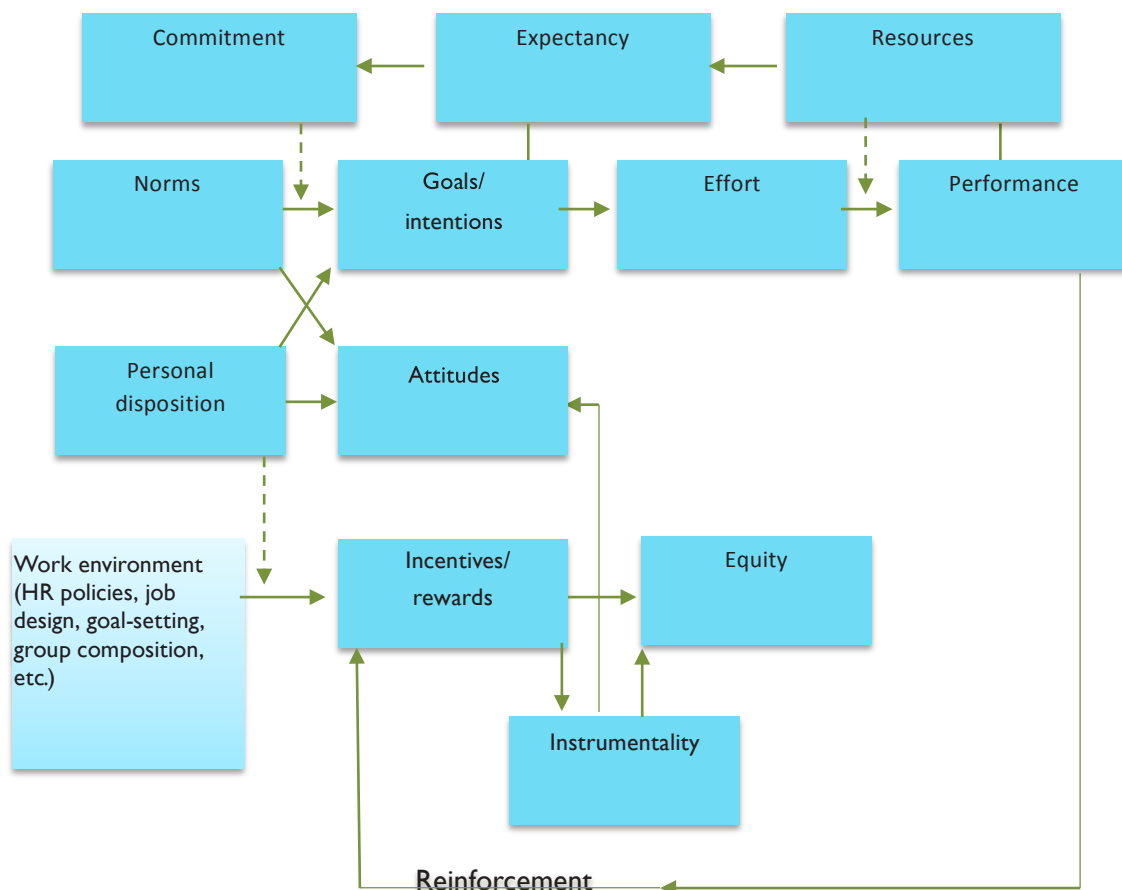
Figure 18: Lawler and Porter's integrative model of work attitude, motivation and performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011)

Other theories and models are sometimes restricted and either more or less useful with regard to certain variables, for certain groups, etc. Thus there is the ongoing challenge to find out more about the many factors which influence work behaviours and how to design workplaces in a way that makes work purposeful, meaningful and less alienating.

6.11 CONCLUSION

The concept of motivation has been fully accepted in psychological theory and research, and in many psychological practices. In the work context too, the recognition of motivation concepts has been accepted in the human resources practices of assessment and research, and in various activities related to employee and organisational performance management (such as selection, promotion, training and development, and in remuneration policies and strategies). Although, through refined theory and research, we have an ever-growing body of knowledge to understand and manage employee work performance, a great deal still has to be done. We still have to refine the meaning and structure of some motivation concepts. We should also have a better understanding of how these broad and specific motivational factors are related to broad and specific personality variables. There is a similar need to have a better understanding of motivational factors in employees in various situations and performance criteria – not only at individual employee level, but also for group and organisational performance. Similar to personality factorial research and applications, our knowledge of work motivation is still heavily coloured by "trait-like" concepts (needs, motives, attitudes, values, emotions, interests), while the underlying processes and concepts from other psychological approaches to motivation are less understood and practised.

6.12 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Work motivation	Content theories
Process theories	Needs
Managerial motivation	Unconscious
Traits	Citizenship behaviour
Personality dispositions	Equity
Self-actualisation	Flow
Self-efficacy	Satisfaction
Job engagement	Emotions
Functional autonomy	Job characteristics
Reinforcement	Goal-setting
Expectancy	

LEARNING UNIT 7   INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this learning unit is to explain the role of personality factors (individual differences) in career development behaviour, such as in choosing or making decisions about occupations and workplaces (organisations). This theme is essential for human resources practitioners because competencies (knowledge, skills and other attributes) for career development and career guidance are considered important, which explains why a discussion of these competencies is included in this and other modules of your degree. Occupational and organisational choice or selection and withdrawal have opposite behaviours, and we therefore also briefly deal with employee withdrawal behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The fundamental purpose of vocational guidance and counselling is to help people make appropriate occupational choices (or decisions) and adjustments in the organisation or other workplaces. Like selection and training, career guidance is aimed at identifying and developing employee attributes for the best person-job fit to enhance work motivation, effective work performance and job satisfaction. Also, opportunities for career development and growth in job competencies to achieve personal and

organisational goals and performance standards are considered a very important organisational factor for work motivation and work-related attitudes like job satisfaction (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 7 - Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	E-reserve • Bauer, T., & Erdogan, E. (2012). *An introduction to organizational behavior*. Retrieved from http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/an-introduction-to-organizational-behavior-v1.0/
	Enrich your learning – for self-development purposes. There is no feedback. Feel free to discuss what you learn with your peers. YouTube o Career development stages https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZxbqtEeEgA4

7.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 7 **Individual differences and occupational choice**	Discuss individual differences, work motivation and work performance in an occupational/organisational work context. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) Principles of individual differences are applied in the context of occupational choice concepts used in various theories in vocational psychology. (2) The individual differences in occupational choice and concepts relating to the person-job fit and expectancy are explained and justified. (3) The individual differences in work performance and career success in various occupations are identified and explained. (4) The various types of career development problems which may arise are indicated. (5) The role of personality in withdrawal behaviours is explained in detail. (6) The advantages of knowledge about the relationship between personality and vocational choice in the work context are described.

7.4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE AND OCCUPATIONAL/CAREER CHOICE

In the organisational context a career or occupation is regarded as a structural sequence of work experiences which promote employee development and advance within an organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). A career is unique to each person and created by particular choices of the individual. In the 21st century workplace a career includes not only an occupation, but also pre-vocational and post-vocational concerns together with an integration of work with a person's other life roles, such as family, community and leisure time. A career can then be viewed as a property of the person rather than the organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

From an individual perspective Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2012) describe a career as significant learnings and experiences through the acquisition of knowledge and skills that reflect a person's vocational life, direction, competencies and accomplishments throughout their forms of employment. People therefore match their careers with personal aims, life purpose and competencies (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012). It is clear that a career is not a biographical succession of work experiences, but rather the collected learning and skills enrichment from the accumulated experiences constituting a career.

7.4.1 Individual differences and career development in the workplace

The rationale for career development is the effective nurturing of talent, specific company knowledge and the successive deployment of workforce capabilities to enhance work performance within the organisation.

Career development involves a person's career choices throughout a person's career lifespan, a lifelong process and evolution of a person's identity with regard to work, the transition, induction and adjustment to work and the ongoing adjustments adults make as they incorporate new learning about themselves and the world of work into their career behaviour (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

7.4.2 Career choice process

Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2012) explain that in the 21st century world of work people will often have multiple career paths with different career stages within their particular career life stages. This process may not necessarily follow a specific linear path or have any age-specific boundaries. Table 8 provides an overview of the different career stages people find themselves in.

Career maturity is not related to age, but rather the readiness to make career decisions and to cope with developmental tasks of a particular life stage. This refers to a person's decision-making ability, career exploration, career planning and an understanding of the world of work (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

Self-efficacy, which is a job-specific trait, is a person's belief that they can perform a specific task successfully (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Research shows that this belief is a good predictor of whether we can actually do the specific task. People with high self-efficacy tend to set higher goals for themselves and are more committed to achieving these goals, whereas people with low self-efficacy tend to procrastinate (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Much of what transpires positively or negatively in adult personal and vocational behaviours may be related to the early formative years in physical, cognitive, social and emotional behaviours. Learning certain cognitive and career concepts and attachment behaviours during the critical periods in infancy and in childhood is important for adult career transitions (Ledimo & Matjie 2011). How stable a person's vocational interests are across the lifespan has recently been researched. Ashton (2013) notes that research findings seem to indicate that levels of a given interest at age 12 and age 17 are relatively stable, becoming even more stable during young adulthood and then maintained through the ages between 20 and 30.

7.4.3 Personality and occupational choice

As far as personality in occupational behaviour is concerned, Neff (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) postulates the concept of the work personality, which develops because the individual acquires positive work behaviours and the competency to be productive. According to Neff, the work personality is a semi-autonomous area of the general personality. In other words, personality as expressed in the work context may manifest differently in other situations or life roles because of different requirements.

The work or productive personality consists of a set of interrelated motives and coping styles, defensive mechanisms and the like, with which an individual confronts the demands of work. Work dysfunctions or areas of work performance impairment imply some area of shortcoming or defect in the development of the work personality. Neff describes various forms of maladjustment responses in the work context, which in some ways relate to personality disorders. He believes that psychological disorders or symptoms of them are not in themselves the reason for work maladjustment. In addition to possible emotional problems, people who are unable to work cannot tolerate or accept the demands of work. Some work dysfunctions take the form of negative work ethics and values, or a dysfunctional capacity to work, as illustrated in commitment patterns of work behaviour and even overcommitment.

7.4.4   Work motivation and goal orientation

An important aspect of socialisation influences (such as parents, school and other agents for career performance during a person's lifespan) is the progressive development of motivation, according to Fontaine (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). This is especially important if we consider that work activity, together with family life and religion, is one of our most important central life interests. Work gives meaning to life in many respects, and it is essential that people find meaning in work and are able to provide economically for themselves and their dependants. The way people learn to set life goals also influences how they set work goals – as is the case with the processes of task completion, which ultimately results in certain levels of life and job satisfaction.

7.4.5   Influence on other life roles

If development and changes in the various domains of human growth and development (which are rather interdependent and holistic) are optimal, career development may follow suit. Often development or change in one area will influence change or adjustment in another. It is important to express career development in work life, because it is arguably a central life interest and influences not only work life, but many other life roles positively, or causes a lot of life role conflicts. Examples of the latter are the inability to make good career decisions, career development problems (such as adapting to a new job), job mobility (not holding down jobs), work-family conflicts, inflexibility in planning and scheduling life activities, conflict about work in married life and child-raising problems (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality often serves as an integrative concept (e.g. the self) in explaining vocational behaviour. However, specific aspects of personality (e.g. cognitive abilities, personality traits, emotions, values and interests) are used to explain vocational behaviour, like making choices and decisions, and other aspects of career development. However, these aspects are included in the theoretical concepts and assumptions of occupational development (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.5   CAREER DEVELOPMENT STAGES

Lifespan development theories use concepts from developmental psychology to describe and explain the process of career development, taking the view that choosing and managing a career involve a continuous process throughout a person's life. The theory of Donald E Super is the most commonly

associated theory with the developmental approach to careers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Table 8 provides a summary of Super's theory.

In this theory career development is seen as the formation and implementation of self-concepts in occupational contexts. Self-concepts are an individual's own views of their personal characteristics, developed through an interaction with the environment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Table 8: Career development stages

Ages and phases	Task and transitions
0–14 growth phase 0–3 pre-vocational 4–10 fantasy 11–12 interest 13–14 capacity	**General physical and mental growth** no or little career interest fantasy or games about work, based on identification with parents likes and dislikes as basis for job and career interest abilities as basis for thinking about jobs and careers through schoolwork learns priorities, organising time and completing tasks
15–24 exploration phase 15–17 tentative 18–21 22–24 trial	**Broad exploration of work** various attributes (ability, values, etc) becomes basis for occupational choices more specific and realistic about career choices, study and job entry study and first job entry, identify as a worker
25–44 establishment phase 25–30 trial 31–44 stabilisation	**More permanent job or career, creative years** possible changes of jobs and career productive, stable work in a given job and career moving ahead: maintain income, lifestyle and societal roles
45–65 maintenance phase	**Progress and continuation in a given career line** holding job, updating and innovating maintaining societal roles and probability planning for retirement
65+Decline phase 65–70 deceleration 71+	**Preparation to retire** if working, deceleration and decline in capabilities; plan to retire cease work, contemplates life

Source: Ledimo and Matjie (2011)

Each phase involves making personal choices and many of them prepare the individual for the next stage, such as adult career choices and decisions, work behaviour and behaviour in other life roles. Each phase implies possible influencing factors which differentiate individuals in their career development and in the choices they make (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 8 shows one particular classification of adult career development stages; however, other classifications are also used. Some of these classifications, for example, refer to recruitment and selection (pre-arrival), orientation (entry, accommodation), socialisation (performance, commitment, mutual acceptance) and organisational dependability (maybe four to five years after entry). Each of these phases requires that certain decisions, choices and adjustments be made (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Except for career or job choices, individuals simultaneously or separately select organisations or workplaces. This selection is based on individual differences or personal attributes as far as they are in line with the organisational attributes and requirements. This matching process (consisting of appraisal, decisions and choices) between the employer and employees will continue once the employee is placed after selection and makes their entry into the workplace (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The entry process may be referred to as orientation in the early stage of job entry and adjustment. Socialisation takes place when employees start working; they influence others and are influenced during the social acceptance process. Socialisation may include a person's fit with their job expectancies and the organisation's capacity to fulfil those expectancies. An important match or choice is whether the employee's capabilities and potential are sufficient for the job requirements.

The way individuals deal with the choices during entry and at later stages in an organisation depends on their career developmental tasks, or lack thereof. Newcomers to an organisation often have unrealistic expectations and find the reality of the situation in a workplace, once they have arrived, difficult to accept. The unique way in which each person adapts and selects the best alternatives (decision-making, problem-solving) distinguishes new employees from one another, but also differentiates between employees who have the resilience to stay and those who leave.

7.6 APPROACHES TO CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

Many approaches exist in terms of how occupational choices are made and which processes are involved. These approaches offer a framework for career behaviour to be examined and explained. Some approaches address specific choice points in the career process and others explain the development of career interests and adjustment in the workplace. Some explain external factors that impact individual choice and persistence in the realm of careers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

As you saw in the previous section, **lifespan development theories** use concepts from developmental psychology to describe and explain the process of career development. Well-known psychological theories (like those of Freud, Allport and Erickson) and career development theories (e.g. those of Piaget, Super and Ginzberg) postulate development theories across stages (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Trait and factor/person-environment fit theories evolved from the measurement movement in the early 20th century which focused on the assessment of characteristics of the person and the job (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). A key characteristic is the assumption that individuals have unique patterns of ability/traits that can be objectively measured and correlated with the requirements of certain jobs. Holland's theory of personality and occupation types is perhaps the most well known of these approaches. Other theories include Dawis and Lofquist's theory of person-environment correspondence, Jung's theory of personality types and the Myers-Briggs type indicator.

Cognitive-behavioural theories and approaches emphasise a change-focused problem-solving approach and the cognitive processes through which individuals monitor their career behaviour. Krumboltz's career decision-making theory views career choice as a decision-making process in which learning plays a major role. The theory postulates that learning experiences together with genetic factors, environmental factors and abilities, called task approach skills, are determinants of the decision-making process. Interaction of these determinants results in certain outcomes and actions with regard to individual career decisions (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Happenstance approach theory was developed by Mitchell, Levin and Krumboltz. Its primary premise is that unpredictable social factors, environmental conditions and chance events over the lifespan are important influences in an individual's career choice. These chance events can have both a negative and positive consequence for individuals, for example a person could lose their job because of outsourcing, only to find a better one (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Social learning theory, based on the work of Bandura, views self-efficacy as a key concept in career decisions. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's sense of having some control over events that affect their life. Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) explain that it involves an individual's judgement of their capacity to use their skills effectively in performance. Therefore, it is a personal judgement of what they are capable of doing, not a judgement of their skills as such.

Psychodynamic theories of career development focus on issues of ego identity, life scrips and life themes. They are based on internal structures of motivation and the constructs of identity, lifestyle, the self and family systems. Bodin's theory of personality development considers childhood experiences in association with personality development as basic to the relation between personality and work. Tiedeman, O'Hara and Miller-Tiedeman's life career decision-making theory views career choice and development as decision-making involving the development of ego identity over the lifespan, based on Erickson's view that ego identity develops over stages in the lifespan (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Relational approaches to career development attend to the involvement of parents and families in career decisions. Roe's theory of parent-child relations states that career choice involves needs. A person's occupation can satisfy many of these needs. Roe uses Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a useful framework for understanding the relevance of needs to occupational behaviour.

The **person in environment** perspective considers not only internal factors within an individual, but also external factors that may determine career choice. An individual's career development is thought to be influenced and constructed within a number of environmental systems, i.e. family, church, neighbourhood, school neighbours, friends, workplace, community, cultures and customs of the larger environment (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Post-modern perspectives maintain that individuals construct their own reality and that there is no fixed truth. The focus is on an individual's subjective experience of their career development and how they construct their careers. Knowledge and meaning are actively constructed through social interaction and relationships within a specific sociocultural context. Savickas's career construction theory asserts that individuals construct their careers by imposing meaning on their vocational behaviour and occupational experiences. Another emerging postmodern approach uses the principles of Frankl's logotherapy to help individuals recognise the role of the human spirit in finding meaning in life. This existential approach is particularly useful in the 21st century workplace characterised by economic uncertainty which leaves people feeling despondent, frustrated, or anxious about their employment circumstances.

7.7   INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The following concepts are derived from some of the theoretical approaches we have just mentioned. In all these concepts, the influence of individual differences (such as personality factors, self-concept

and environmental influences) on occupational development behaviour (like career choice) is indicated (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.7.1 Person-job fit

As you saw in the previous section, person-environment fit theories assume a relationship between certain attributes of people and the requirements of certain jobs, work environments or organisations. A major assumption is that the more congruent the fit between the employee and the workplace, the better the chances for effective work behaviour, good work performance and job satisfaction. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) highlight the assumption that growing into a type of occupation is a progressive and long process influenced by many life history experiences, such as parental and family backgrounds, educational qualifications and opportunities, and experiences in various types of jobs and work environments.

Psychometric assessment is used mainly to test individuals with regard to their cognitive abilities, personality traits, needs, orientations (such as values and interests) and biographical factors. This is then compared to workplace requirements acquired through job and situation analysis and job descriptions in order to assess the level of congruence between what the work environment offers (opportunities) and the needs of the employee (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). This comparison is made by analysing employee characteristics (as measured by assessment techniques) against previous research findings which indicate that certain test scores predict success, as measured by job performance criteria, in a specific job; or by comparing measures of employee attributes on tests and workplace requirement measures; or by making a match on a more subjective basis of comparison. The latter can refer to testing contact with reality, that is, the correspondence between the employee's accuracy of self-perception or awareness of their fit with and in the job environment, and the objective assessments. The person-job fit approach really assesses whether the interaction between the employee and the workplace will not create too little or too much strain in terms of the workload. It also assesses the levels of conflict which may result from the fit between employee and organisational values (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The self-directed search (SDS) is one of the best-known interest inventories in the world based on the theory of John L Holland and was adapted for South African conditions (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2015). Individuals are attracted to a particular role in an occupational environment which meets a personal need for exercising their skills and abilities while expressing their attitudes and values – this provides job satisfaction (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

In its simplest form the theory suggests that people can be characterised in terms of their resemblance to each of six personality types (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012):

- **Realistic:** This is a more shy, masculine and practical personality orientation, interested in more applied and practical or technical type of work in which tools and machines are used.

- **Investigative:** This person is analytical, introspective, rational and critical, and prefers the systematic observation of phenomena in research, mathematical, geological, economic work, etc.

- **Artistic:** This person demonstrates a complex, imaginative and often more feminine personality, interested in expressing and using artistic competencies in work such as acting, music, sculpting, designing and radio or television announcing.

- **Social:** This person has a friendly, social, cooperative and helpful personality, and is interested in serving and helping other people, such as teacher, psychologist, trainer, librarian and traffic official.

- **Enterprising:** This person has a more adventurous, ambitious and self-confident nature, and is interested in influencing people and processes, such as in business, politics, managerial jobs and legal work.

- **Conventional:** This person demonstrates a conforming, orderly and more practical orientation, and is interested in handling objects and data in a more orderly and routine fashion, such as in clerical jobs, bookkeeping, secretarial work and typing (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The closer an individual resembles a certain type, the more they exhibit the traits and behaviours of that type. In addition, occupational environments can be characterised in terms of how they support or resemble the six personality types (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

When using the SDS, various scoring indices can be used to assess the correspondence of occupational choice based on personality and work environment types. This approach and its related assessment technologies are widely used in career guidance and in research across occupations, jobs, age groups and gender, and with regard to many other personality variables (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Foxcroft and Roodt (2015) do caution that in interpreting the SDS for different cultural groups, there is evidence that the hexagonal structure of the SDS is not valid for black South African high school students and other non-Westernised samples.

Although considerable criticism is levelled against this approach as being too mechanical, important advantages are the objective nature of decision-making and the assessment results, which are still used in many career counselling practices. Employees get information about themselves and about jobs; this information promotes self-knowledge and provides them with alternatives before making choices or decisions. Choice uncertainty may be due to a lack of knowledge, which can be solved in this way (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.7.2 Developmental processes, self-concept and occupational choice

We mentioned that various authors have formulated developmental theories as part of personality theories, as theories on specific aspects of development (e.g. cognitive development) and as separate career development or choice theories (e.g. Holland, Super and Ginzberg). Ginzberg (1972) views occupational choice as a lifelong process of decision-making in which individuals seek to find the optimal fit between their career preparation (and goals) and the realities of work. Earlier vocational choices influence later occupational behaviour, and occupational behaviour can change when the individual changes through work and life experiences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Coetzee, Roythorne-Jacobs and Mensele (2016) will often move and recycle through the various career stages over a lifespan as tasks, transitions and traumas ensue, prompting re-exploration and re-establishment – see figure 19.

Quest for lifelong learning and sustaining one's employability

Activities of career adaptability through the life span

Orientation/exploration	Orientation/exploration	Orientation/exploration
Establishment	Establishment	Establishment
Disengagement	Disengagement	Disengagement
Management/maintenance	Management/maintenance	Management/maintenance

Early adulthood	Middle adulthood	Late adulthood
Life stage (17-40 years)	Life stage (41-60 years)	Life stage (60+ years)

Figure 19: Mini-cycles of learning through developmental career stages across the adult career life cycle

Learning developmental tasks

Developmental theories do not necessarily contain specific concepts about occupational choice. However, they refer to necessary conditions, influencing factors, certain critical growth processes and stages, and developmental tasks that prepare people to be sufficiently mature to manifest certain behaviour at certain times in their lives. In a way, these progressive developmental behaviours provide timelines or norms against which people can be compared. In developmental theory, for example, mention is made of the hierarchical evolution in development (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). This refers to the progressive development in biological and physical functions; cognitive development which arises from having a general cognitive sense of knowing and recognising to use specific cognitive processes and skills when applicable; and growing from a more concrete way of thinking to a more complex, abstract and integrated way of using mental capacities in association with other personal abilities. According to Ginzberg, the most important developmental skills that an individual should acquire are reality testing, self-evaluation and a relevant time perspective. The final vocational choice is then an indication of the individual's level of vocational maturity (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

These mostly biologically determined functions are accompanied by progressive developments in people's emotional, social and moral functions, which should ensure appropriate emotional and social responses in their environments (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.7.3 Self-concept in occupational choice

As you will remember from previous studies, literature has many words and concepts related to the self through various theories such as those of Allport, Rogers, Erickson and Frankl, to mention a few (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013).

Self-concept relates to the psychological self which, according to Coetzee et al (2016), "constitutes the organisation of conceptions about qualities, characteristics, values and capabilities that individuals attribute to themselves". The self-concept influences people's career behaviour, attitudes and choices. Once stabilised through the various career life stages, the self-concept functions as a stabilising force comprising the values and motives that an individual will not give up if forced to make a choice (Coetzee et al, 2016). However, in the complexities of today's workplace, people may be forced to be flexible and to compromise in work that may not always be an optimal fit with their career preferences and capabilities.

Super developed a theory that combines self-image and developmental concepts. This theory emphasises interaction between personal and environmental variables in vocational behaviour. Super regards vocational choice as a dynamic and continuous development process where the individual forms a progressive synthesis of their self-concept, vocational concepts and the economic and social requirements of society. The individual's self-image relates to their abilities, interests, values, needs and expectations. The individual's vocational concept is the knowledge and impressions that they have acquired from experience (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

From childhood, the individual imitates their parents and other people, and identifies with them and the occupations and occupational concepts that they represent. At the same time, these experiences serve as an extension of the individual's self-image, and the child tests their self-image and vocational concepts in play, fantasy and during interaction with friends and family. The individual's vocational choices or decisions are aimed at those roles that correspond to the developing self-image concept (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

In psychological assessment aimed at placing people in certain situations or training them (e.g. for study choices, job selection and promotion of employees to higher level jobs), the level of development and readiness to act in these positions is considered. An important aspect of development is whether the individual has grown to be mature, that is, able to be independent and responsible at different stages in life. In the work context of potential assessment (e.g. in assessment centres), managerial potential is assessed for promotion – also with a view to developing managers to the next level of competence before promoting them to that level (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Individual differences in occupational choice are illustrated by the certain types of behaviour (discussed in the sections to follow), which may have developmental determinants.

7.7.4 Expectancies and values

We have indicated before that cognitive and other appraisal processes have a strong influence on how people make career-related choices and decisions (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It is for this reason that theories which emphasise cognitive processes (such as cognitive development, expectancy, perceptions, decision-making and problem-solving) are classified as process theories. The assumption

here is that people have the ability to appraise information about themselves and their environments in order to decide on action or to make assumptions. People form cognitive constructs or schemata that include their own attributes, what they can do and cope with, and the attributes of the world, including schemata and constructs about their work life and workplaces. Part of this cognitive appraisal process entails people's valuing of events according to aspects which they value most and which are most important to them. It is significant that people form expectancies that their needs and goals will be fulfilled or rewarded if they make the effort to pursue a certain career or select a certain job or organisation. This cognitive valuing process of expectancies arguably also forms part of an employee's decisions and choices when an organisation is accepted after the selection process, and during and after an employee's orientation and socialisation into an organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.7.5 Self-controlled career choices

In career counselling practices and career management, it is now accepted that employees should take proactive responsibility for their career development, while employers should encourage development and provide the necessary opportunities to employees (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The idea of self-responsibility and self-management of occupational choices in life coincides with the assumptions implied in motivational concepts, such as intrinsic motivation and the idea that people should be free to make their own choices in life. In educational practices this may translate to allowing young people to explore on their own and to be creative and entrepreneurial. In behaviouristic and social cognitive learning theories, the ideas of self-regulation and self-efficacy indicate people's abilities to control behaviour and to believe in their ability to be successful in specific endeavours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Self-controlled occupational choices can also be related to positive psychological concepts which emphasise the intrinsic potential to develop optimally and achieve self-actualisation, as well as to concepts which emphasise personal control in life (such as internal locus of control, self-efficacy, learnt resourcefulness, sense of coherence and personal hardiness). These concepts contain the idea of self-control and also that people have (or can be taught to have) intrinsic resources to cope and to adapt, to face challenges and to deal with problems positively and meaningfully (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The underlying developmental processes emphasised in these concepts are criticised for being too subjective because they do not acknowledge that many career choices are based on the objective knowledge of the person and the workplace. Another consideration is that too much emphasis is placed on the individual's subjective expectations and aspirations in vocational choice. Vocational choice often depends on the opportunity structures available to individuals, first in education and subsequently in employment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.8   PERSONALITY, OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE AND WORK PERFORMANCE

In the previous sections we touched on the influence of various types of individual difference factors in occupational development, mostly in a more general sense. In this section we focus on the relationship between specific individual difference factors and occupational choice, especially with regard to the type of fit between employee and job or organisation. We discuss factors influencing withdrawal, which also relate to the types of choices employees make (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.8.1 Values in occupational choice

Career success is related to an individual's goal orientation which is centred around a particular value system. In the South African context we have two distinct value systems which influence personality, occupational choice and work performance:

- **Afrocentric value system:** Psychological feelings based on a preference for quality of life and a rewarding common vision for communal effort related to a feminine culture that emphasises nurturance.
- **Eurocentric value system:** Related to achieving material success, position and rewarding individual merit; also related to the values of a masculine culture (Coetzee et al, 2016).

Personality-values fit

Keeping the value systems in mind, employers use a wide range of personality factors to determine person-organisation fit, including knowledge, skills and abilities, personality traits and values. Both values and personality are fairly stable behavioural constructs. However, because values may change over time and situations, and personality is deemed somewhat more stable, personality traits may be a more stable variable on which to base occupational choice in the person-organisation fit (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Added to this is the fact that personality is more easily observable and defines to some extent how a person will behave over time and situations, compared to values which are less easily observable and instead indicate a person's goals or what they hope to do or achieve – thus values may lead to many types of behaviour (Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Other authors differ: Verquer, Beehr and Wagner (2003) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) indicate in a meta-analysis of 15 studies that values are in fact the better predictor of person-organisation fit. It seems a good assumption that personality and values are equally good predictors of the person-organisation fit. In both cases the type of research design and how personality and value variables are conceptualised may influence results.

7.8.2   Congruence between personality, job and organisation

In general, research findings (across occupations, countries and age groups) indicate that good or poor person-organisation fit is related to individual and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisation commitment, citizenship or extra-role behaviours, organisation attraction, hiring decisions, career changes, employee wellbeing, physical health and turnover (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001, Kristof-Brown, 2000, Verquer et al, 2003, and Furnham, 1997, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Most studies do not find a person-organisation fit between the personality traits of individual employees and so-called organisation personality profiles (an average profile of employees in the organisation). The suggestion is that congruence measures between an employee and the organisation should rather be determined with the work group in which the employee will work. However, personality factors seem to be moderating factors when employees select organisations based on organisational attributes such as the reward structure and type of ownership. In this regard it has been found that the personality traits of self-esteem and need for achievement moderate the impact of organisational characteristics like centralisation, size, organisation attraction and reward structure (Turban & Keon, 1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In similar studies results indicate that locus of control and risk aversion moderate the relationship between human resources systems and job seekers' attraction to organisations. Research points out that interactions between personality traits (including materialism,

locus of control, individualism versus collectivism, self-efficacy and risk aversion) and remuneration system attributes predict job choice (Bretz & Judge, 1994, and Cable & Judge, 1994, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.8.3 Quality of person-job fit

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) refer to Schneider, Smith and Goldstein's reasoning that a good person-organisation fit equation with regard to personal and organisational goals or employee needs being satisfied by organisational factors, such as remuneration or ownership, is always positive. However, initial good personality congruence in the person-organisation fit equation might not remain good in the long run because of possible changes in employee profiles, for example changes in values, self-esteem evaluations and attitudes. This weakening of the person-organisation fit may cause dissatisfaction with the initial employee choice, because employees may feel that the same organisational attributes no longer satisfy their expectations and needs. On the other hand, an initial poor person-organisation fit may have the potential to improve for both parties. Examples are when employees with risk aversion personality traits (risk avoidance when risk-taking may be necessary for pay benefits) may experience discomfort, become more aware of their weakness in this regard and try harder to improve, or a high achievement-oriented employee who is working in a flat organisational structure (not many possibilities for promotion) may change their achievement goals and achieve laterally (e.g. by becoming a specialist in their field) rather than endure the frustration of climbing a saturated executive ladder. However, such an employee may also become more aware, and leave the company to find a better person-organisation fit elsewhere and enjoy more job satisfaction.

A good personality-based and value-based person-organisation fit is probably mostly good with positive affective outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction). However, in some instances good or bad personality fit may have positive or negative outcomes, depending on the personality traits and the type of work performance involved (Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In cases where high-quality decisions have to be taken, performance involves good problem-solving and decision-making skills and creativity, and possible conflict between parties with poor personality congruence may be averted because the strong work performance attributes may suppress the effects of the poor personality fit. A person with low levels of conscientiousness (e.g. orderliness, industriousness, emphasis on organisation and detail, and reliability) may do well in a workplace where these values are not emphasised. However, their lack of persistence may cause lower levels of productivity than those of an employee who was a misfit in the same organisation because they were highly conscientious.

A misfit between employees in an organisation may have positive results as far as development of potential is concerned; some employees may see change in values and other orientations as a challenge in order to progress towards set goals, for example achieving in a new direction or becoming a good leader (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Many organisations, and even countries, may reap fame and attention from other parties because of a seemingly "misfit" employee. For example, a company researcher may be very extroverted, flamboyant and liberal, but may also have expert knowledge and skills, and in this manner can market their company's products and services better than a competent but less noticeable and more introverted colleague, even though the latter's profile is actually the norm in the company.

In allocating group members to work or task groups to solve a specific problem, congruence in the area of expertise is mostly a good fit criterion. However, diversity in personality profiles may bring the necessary constructive conflict and creativity. This argument is supported by research which indicates that a good personality-based fit in the person-organisation fit equation, for innovative and creative problem-solving and decision-making in organisations, may be counterproductive. These arguments also support the idea of some forms of "group think" (most members, for the sake of group cohesion, will agree but may ignore other, perhaps more accurate and realistic voices). However, these arguments cannot be generalised, because traits like adaptability, flexibility and openness to experience should always represent a good fit in all or most organisational contexts (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Still, it seems the norm that employees with strong personality profiles (such as high conscientiousness, positive affectivity and high self-esteem) select workplaces with the same type of image, while employees who are very low or poor in these traits may select an organisation with strong characteristics or characteristics that are opposite to their own because they desire to be "better". However, this may actually be a "misfit" with bad results, except if maturation or development takes place, or if adaptations are made by these individuals to compensate for the weaker areas in their personality profiles. Employees who have misfit personality profiles and who receive feedback on this may be more inclined to work on changing aspects of their behaviour, values and attitudes than employees who have strong fit personality characteristics. However, this may also be a function of other personality attributes in the individual, and factors like changing the characteristics or requirements in the workplace may also suppress the effects of a poor personality-based person-organisation fit (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Findings based on Holland's person-environment approach indicate that congruence in study direction predicts successful academic performance. Furnham (1995) asserts that scholars who are regarded as extroverts seem to do better than introverts in the pre-school and primary school ages, up to approximately 12 to 15 years of age. Thereafter a transition occurs and beyond that level introverts do better than extroverts. Various studies, even across cultures, have shown that there is a consistent relationship between extroversion-introversion and academic performance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Vocational choices for introverts seem to be more clear than those for extroverts. Introverts are more likely to end up in task-oriented, technical professions than extroverts. The introvert's orientation seems to focus on ideas, abstracts and structured, detailed work as opposed to the less well-ordered and perhaps more practical occupations. Research has shown that the more introverted students value and aspire to traditional, high-status professional vocations. The more extroverted students have more liberal values and their aspirations are governed by immediate status and monetary considerations. Engaging in artistic occupations has also been found to correlate positively with introversion (Furnham, 2001, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.8.4 Accuracy of employee-job fit

In conclusion, it should be said that many factors influence the accuracy of the employee- organisation fit, which impacts on work performance and job or career satisfaction. Low fit correlations between objective measures of employee and job or organisation measures have also been reported (Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). However, any fit correlation between these sets

of variables is influenced by the types of personality and performance variables which are assessed, and – importantly – the amount of evidence which employees and employers (or other assessors) have available when comparisons are made. This is especially true in cases of complementary fit comparisons, where employees often lack information on organisational attributes to assess whether these will fit and satisfy their personality profiles, such as their personal needs and values. Supplementary fit comparisons mostly yield higher correlations because measures of employee and job or organisational profiles are based on more objective data (e.g. personality questionnaires and job analyses). You should be acquainted with possible measurement errors, one being possible influences of external assessors on the processes of comparing the person-organisation fit.

Although the adult personality is quite stable over time and situations, employees' values, attitudes, preferences and beliefs may change as a result of personal experiences or because of changes in workplaces and the changing requirements in their surrounding environments.

7.9 CAREER CHOICE PROBLEMS

In many cultures people have extremely high expectations of their careers. Any inability to develop careers (e.g. failure to be promoted, indecision and uncertainty or inability to adapt to workplaces) is regarded as a problem and a weakness that should be rectified. With finer analysis, though, it becomes clear how many of these situations and problems involve choices and decisions which entail the employee in interaction with career or work demands. A further observation is the many instances in which individual difference factors play a role, which supports the research indicating the role of personality factors in work dysfunctions and in counterproductive behaviours (Cullen & Sackett, 2003, and Lowman, 1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following classification entails more than occupational choice only; it also refers to or implies other types of work dysfunctions which may result from poor adjustment and performance in organisations:

7.9.1   Classification of career adjustment and work performance problems

Although Campbell and Cellini's taxonomy (1981, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) for adult career problems overlaps in some instances with some of the other work dysfunctions, it is more specifically directed at problems that arise during various career transitions and work performance in organisations. This taxonomy is based on many career development theories and research on adult career development problems in order to identify career development tasks and subtasks, and possible problems during four career development stages (Campbell & Cellini, 1981, and Lowman, 1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

1. Problems in making career decisions

     1.1   Starting work

        a. lack of awareness of the need for a decision

        b. lack of knowledge of the decision-making process

c. awareness of the need to make a decision but avoiding personal responsibility for decisions

1.2   Gathering information

a. inadequate, contradictory and/or insufficient information

b. information overload (e.g. too much information, which confuses the decision-maker)

c. lack of knowledge of how to gather information (where to obtain information, how to organise and evaluate information)

d. unwillingness to accept the correctness of the information because it does not agree with the person's self-concept

1.3   Generating, evaluating and selecting alternatives

a. difficulty in deciding because of conflicts between multiple career options (too many equally attractive career choices)

b. failure to generate sufficient career options because of personal limitations such as health, resources, ability or education

c. inability to decide because of the threatening effects of anxiety, such as fear of failure when attempting to fulfil the choice, fear of social disapproval and/or fear of commitment to a course of action

d. unrealistic choice (aspiring to goals that are either too low or too high, based on criteria such as aptitudes, interests, values, resources and personal circumstances)

e. interfering personal constraints that impair choices (e.g. interpersonal influences and conflicts, circumstances, resources and health)

f. inability to assess alternatives because of lack of knowledge of the evaluation criteria (criteria could include values, interests, aptitudes, skills, resources, health, age and personal circumstances)

1.4   Formulating plans to implement decisions

a. lack of knowledge of the necessary process and steps to formulate plans

b. inability to use a future time perspective in planning

c. unwillingness and/or inability to obtain the necessary information to formulate a plan

2.   Problems in implementing career plans

2.1   Personal attributes of the individual

a. failure to take the steps necessary to implement the plan

b. failure or inability to successfully complete the steps necessary for goal achievement

c. adverse conditions of or changes in family situation

2.2 Characteristics external to the individual

a. unfavourable economic, social and cultural conditions

b. unfavourable conditions in the organisation, central to the implementation of career plans

c. adverse conditions of or changes in the individual's family situation

3.   Problems in organisational or institutional performance

3.1   Shortcomings in skills, abilities or knowledge

a. insufficient skills, abilities and/or knowledge on position of entry post (underqualified to perform satisfactorily)

b. deterioration of skills, abilities and/or knowledge in the position over time because of temporary assignment to another position, leave and/or lack of continual practice or development of the skill

c. failure to modify or update skills, abilities and/or knowledge to stay abreast of job changes (job obsolescence following new technology, tools and knowledge)

3.2 Personal factors

a. personality characteristics incongruent with the job (e.g. values, interests and work habits)

b. debilitating physical and/or emotional disorders

c. adverse off-the-job personal circumstances and/or stressors (e.g. family pressure, financial problems and personal conflicts)

d. occurrence of interpersonal conflicts on the job specific to performance requirements (e.g. getting along with supervisor, co-workers, customers and clients)

We will now discuss some specific issues concerning occupational choice and withdrawal.

7.9.2 Vocational choice uncertainty

Career maturity refers to the level of people's vocational development, attitudes and decision-making skills at different stages of life. Career maturity is a function of people's developmental history, age, sex, behaviour styles and socioeconomic factors. Their inability to make choices or to perform

developmental tasks at specific points in their career development may lead to stress and emotional problems (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Vocational uncertainty has many causes, for example adjustment problems, indecision, incongruence between personal attributes and the requirements of the job, and behavioural traits such as dependence, choice anxiety, a lack of information and intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts. These factors may determine people's career concepts, their attitudes towards work or work ethic, attitudes towards learning, attitudes towards employers and a positive or negative view of their roles which will determine their attitude and expectations on entering a job, adapting to it and developing in it (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.9.3 Difficult transitions in career development

Throughout career development and in life, employees and people have to go through critical phases of development. Note that some changes may be voluntary and some people seem to go through certain changes more easily than others. The degree of difficulty of change depends on a person's readiness and willingness to change, specific personality profiles and related behaviours, what they think about changes and adjustment, and their previous experience with change and the coping mechanisms they use to deal with the change processes and its consequences. One such change which is still debated results in the so-called midlife crisis in the adult life stage (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Apart from the influence of choosing an occupation, entering a career and later retiring, the so-called midlife period (30 to 40 years) is regarded as an important period of adjustment for some people, both male and female, characterised by the midlife crisis. This midcareer crisis is brought about mainly by people's fear of ageing, their questioning their self-esteem and the purpose of life, uncertainty about future career development and an awakening of what they have achieved and where they are going, according to Schreuder and Coetzee (2016). Manifestations of this stage include changing jobs, substance abuse, poor interpersonal relations, anxiety, depression, hypochondria, marital problems, adopting a new (sometimes strange) lifestyle, problems with physical health and appearance and a decrease in sexual energy (Levinson, 1977, Warshaw, 1979, and McClean, 1979, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In the work context this is generally a time of reappraisal of the past and a long-term appraisal of career plans (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Oncoming retirement and retirement itself also lead to stress-inducing uncertainty, fears of not being cared for, boredom and feelings of worthlessness.

7.9.4 Withdrawal behaviours

According to Ledimo and Matjie (2011), withdrawal behaviours imply the opposite to the choice to be or to stay in a workplace. These are choices which refer to a misfit or non-fit between employee and organisation, because one or both of them cannot meet the expectations of the psychological contract and would thus prefer to escape the unsatisfactory work and work relationship. You should know that many individual attributes (like self-esteem, self-actualisation, needs and expectations) are major influences in job motivation and work performance. Organisational withdrawal, which eventually results in physically leaving the workplace, can manifest (possibly even progressively) in lateness, absenteeism and personnel turnover, resignation, job change and retirement (all voluntary), whereas non-voluntary withdrawal can manifest in lay-offs and dismissals. Another form of withdrawal is

psychological absence (as opposed to physical withdrawal), which is reflected in attitudes and emotions such as dissatisfaction, a lack of commitment, loafing, wasting time and daydreaming. In other words, the employees are present at the workplace but merely as "silent partners" who still reap the benefits of employment. Yet they do not enjoy their work and do not contribute wholeheartedly to organisational goals. Destructive forms of this type of passive withdrawal may manifest in drinking, drug abuse and malicious gossip at work, and retirement decisions may leave employees demotivated and not actively involved in many work activities.

A pattern analysis of withdrawal behaviours may confirm the idea that these behaviours are all part of a progressive disengagement process or even a working style associated with some kind of inability to fulfil all the requirements of the adult productive or work role. Lowman (1993, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011) defines this class of behaviours as a work dysfunction or work performance impairment, the cause of which may lie in the employee (e.g. emotional problems) or in the interaction between the employee and the work environment.

7.9.4.1 Personnel turnover

Personnel turnover or job changing is generally preceded by thoughts of leaving and a stated intention to leave the workplace. According to Miner and Brewer (1976) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011), personnel turnover relates to general job dissatisfaction with regard to organisational and work variables. The variables include work attitudes (work commitment, job dissatisfaction) towards managerial practices, the quality and nature of working conditions, remuneration, work group attitudes and the workers' feelings about the way they are treated by management. Emotional conditions such as anxiety, depression, neuroses, personality problems, alcohol and drug addiction, physical diseases and age can contribute to personnel turnover.

There should be a clear distinction between the types of personnel turnover (and different forms of absenteeism) in order to plan a more effective course of action. Functional personnel turnover means that the organisation summarily allows the individual with a negative evaluation to leave. Dysfunctional turnover occurs when the organisation allows people to go without trying to retain them, although it would like to. Dalton, Krackhardt and Porter in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) point out that these categories (together with voluntary, involuntary, unavoidable and controllable desertion) have to be taken into account to establish the true effect of personnel turnover.

Certain high levels of leaving jobs are manifested by the so-called "drifter" and "hobo" employees. Drifters move between transient and contractual jobs and seem to have little work commitment, work ethics or loyalty to employers. They are seemingly not conscientious, place a high value on leisure time or other non-work interests, and will respond to job dissatisfaction by leaving jobs without trying to solve or improve matters. Hobos may be employed in many types and levels of jobs, and may even have entrepreneurial attributes. These employees may be very conscientious for shorter times; however, they are always or consistently on the move, and always want another job or career (not necessarily better) but cannot make long-term commitments (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.9.4.2 Absence behaviours

Absenteeism refers to unscheduled non-attendance at workplaces or work activities when employees are expected to attend. Stable periodic lateness can usually be coupled with leisure time, income trade-offs and family responsibilities, while random lateness refers to sometimes uncontrollable

events like accidents and transportation problems. Absence from work could be a main indicator of organisational stress and incurs great costs, especially in the loss of productivity. Illness, especially respiratory problems, stomach disorders, gynaecological problems (menstruation, menopause, spontaneous abortions) and stress conditions, such as headaches, insomnia, fatigue, heart problems and endocrinal disorders, are responsible for most absences. Other factors that contribute to absence include dissatisfaction with organisational and work factors, for example insufficient training and supervision, disturbed work relationships, poor work group cohesion and morale and physical job design (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Absenteeism or withdrawal behaviours could also be a manifestation of undercommitment, especially if this type of behaviour points to anti-organisational behaviour such as dishonesty, laziness and disloyalty.

7.9.4.3 Influences of withdrawal behaviours

Personality factors

Under absenteeism and personnel turnover, we referred to specific contributing factors. If work attendance is seen as a combined action energised by a work contract, the motivation and ability or opportunity to attend work, various work attitudes and values, and external demands from family and other responsibilities, it is obvious that there could be many causes for withdrawal behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Research shows that withdrawal behaviours correlate positively, although not always strongly, with job dissatisfaction and lower involvement. Job satisfaction, which may relate to general dissatisfaction or to specific job characteristics, does not explain all the variances in withdrawal behaviour. A great deal of research is still needed to understand the dynamics of withdrawal behaviour, especially with regard to individual difference factors, which are mostly neglected in the many models on withdrawal behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

All withdrawal behaviours are really about disengaging from organisational or work activities, and various personal factors may contribute to or modify withdrawal behaviours, such as length of service, age, health status and family responsibilities. An interesting idea is that withdrawal behaviour at work is merely a symptom of a general uncertain or ambiguous attachment behaviour style and uncertain behaviours in some people, which they try to cope with through absence, turnover, or "withdrawal" or "job hopping". Rosse and Noel (2003) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) suggest that withdrawal behaviours can be seen as people's adaptive and coping responses to unhappy work experiences or dissatisfying work, which may help our understanding of employee withdrawal behaviours.

Biographical factors

Although age and gender do have an influence, they are modified by factors such as period of service and changes to people's circumstances and personalities that come with age. In general, age seems to have a negative correlation with turnover and various indices of absence behaviour which, according to developmental theory, can be attributed to greater job involvement, responsibility and wisdom that comes with older age. Period of service may also come into play in the sense that older employees may have to "set an example" to younger employees and they do not want to lose their accumulated benefits (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Regarding gender, previous beliefs that women are more absent or are responsible for more staff turnover, probably as the result of their family responsibilities, seem to be invalid. This is especially true in smaller families (not many family members who can have problems), and if many friends and relatives are available to help with family care. In bigger families and when there is little support for child and family care, women may be absent more often (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Cognitive abilities

Cognitive factors may influence withdrawal behaviours indirectly if employees are getting bored because their jobs are too easy, or if they are experiencing too much stress because their tasks are too difficult. Also, very talented employees may be absent because they are job hunting or may have the perception that they will be able to find other employment easily if their absence behaviours result in them getting fired. Higher performance employees, who have strong abilities, may also have more freedom to be absent or arrive late, especially if other employees and even management are aware of their strategic importance (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). In general, high performance employees tend to have low levels of withdrawal behaviours because they may also have strong intrinsic motivation.

Types of personality traits

An early explanation for absence behaviour was absence proneness (similar to accident proneness); in other words, certain people just have the consistent tendency to be absent. This theory (as for job hoppers, drifters and hobos) received little support; however, research indicates that absence patterns across certain people and times are quite consistent. Past evidence of absence behaviours should therefore be a good predictor of possible future absences (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Extroversion may be related to absence behaviour, because it has been shown that extroverted individuals may leave jobs on a more regular basis and after shorter periods, which may be related to getting bored with routine tasks. Employees with a strong external locus of control may withdraw more easily because they may feel less in control or less able to solve problems themselves, and would rather avoid possible problem situations. As a rule, introverts use fewer withdrawal behaviours, perhaps because they have a stronger perception of self-control. However, they may withdraw from jobs in which the person-job fit is poor and job satisfaction is low, for example in sales and managerial jobs where interaction with other people is emphasised (Rosse & Noel, 2003, and Furnham, 1997, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). An introvert may rather just resign as a form of passive rebellion and constructive job turnover, and find a position with a better person-organisation fit. The findings with regard to extroversion and introversion support the finding that employees who perceive themselves as having a high degree of control show decreased withdrawal behaviours. These employees have positive attitudes towards work attendance, feel that they can attend to work and are aware of social pressures to avoid withdrawal behaviours.

The personality trait "openness to experience" (being imaginative, curious, original, broad-minded and artistically sensitive) may relate to withdrawal, because people with this trait may find it difficult to stay in one place for long or to get used to routine. These employees may also be more intrinsically motivated and may want autonomy in decision-making and movement. They may find it difficult to achieve job satisfaction in the usual job, may view their rewards differently and could, for example, see leisure time as a way to supplement their existing remuneration. On the other hand, employees

who are very agreeable (trusting, cooperative, flexible) may be "stayers" because they interact well with others and usually also experience job satisfaction. These employees may not want to miss work because of their loyalty to their colleagues, and may have a role as "caretaker" in their work groups. The trait of conscientiousness (achievement-oriented, responsible, serious, persevering, hardworking, reliable, etc.) seems to predict withdrawal behaviours, since people who lack this trait are inclined to withdraw more easily in difficult work situations and employees in whom this trait is strong cannot fulfil their achievement orientation in their workplaces (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Orientations: interests and values

Strong interests and values (and related attitudes and interests) have been shown to predict job satisfaction and are important variables in employee-job-organisational fit. It seems logical that these employees will have a strong work ethic and will avoid withdrawal behaviours (Rosse & Noel, 2003, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Possible deviations from this positive work attendance motivation could be to attend to private (or non-work) interests and to family interests. Another possibility for withdrawal behaviours is whether the initial good fit between the employee and employer after some time does continue to satisfy the employee's needs, interests and expectations.

Emotions

Positive and negative affective dispositions and moods influence work-related attitudes and therefore job satisfaction. Employees with enduring positive emotional dispositions have feelings of wellbeing, experience work more positively and have little reason to use withdrawal behaviour. In contrast, employees with more negative dispositions experience negative emotions and moods which influence their work-related attitudes and may result in job dissatisfaction. Negative emotionality is also associated with more stress, frustration, emotional symptoms and somatic diseases, which may lead to more illness, complaints and absences, and withdrawal symptoms in work behaviour (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Personality factors loaded with emotional sub-facets, such as emotional stability or neuroticism, have been found to relate to withdrawal behaviour. Feelings of depression and anxiety may cause withdrawal behaviours inasmuch as withdrawal may alleviate stress, for example, in people who are afraid of criticism, failure or success. An interesting and more positive perspective of negative emotionality and withdrawal behaviours is that negative affectivity may moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions or appraisals (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Depending on the type of withdrawal behaviour (whether it is forced, voluntary or traumatic), certain emotions may be relevant. Research indicates that certain common emotions are felt by all people who experience trauma. This also applies to people who withdraw from an organisation. Obviously, every individual experiences situations very differently and the intensity of emotions varies since it is determined by a person's assessment of situations, the importance of events and the person's coping resources. A list of possible emotions includes guilt, powerlessness, helplessness, pointlessness, self-blame, sadness, anger, fear, anxiety, disorientation, irritability, restlessness and withdrawal (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Some withdrawal behaviours indicate individual and organisational misfit and maladjustment to work demands. The negative consequences of withdrawal behaviours can be very costly and painful to

individuals, organisations and society. Although more research is required into the general nature of withdrawal from organisations, more specific analysis should examine the precise meaning of individual differences in certain types of withdrawal. Examples are differences in coping with or resisting job dissatisfaction, impulsive withdrawal behaviours and choosing between types of withdrawal behaviour instead of total or impulsive withdrawal (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.10   FACILITATING EFFECTIVE CAREER DEVELOPMENT

In this learning unit we suggest various strategies for and approaches to career development, occupational choice and decision-making behaviour across the various stages of development and life. Of course, there is no one correct process or method to follow; the individual concerned should be allowed and helped to acquire occupational development competencies that would enable them to cope appropriately in certain situations and to realise their innate potential. This is especially true for the childhood stages, which are preparation for the adult working life and its choices at various stages. To improve occupational development and choice skills, the following suggestions can be considered. However, this is not a manual for specific methods and techniques (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

- Assist young adults and employees in discovering themselves. They should get to know themselves and all their attributes, including cognitive abilities, personality traits, values, preferences, work ethics and work attitudes (also during transitions in their lives).

- Help young adults and employees to have realistic knowledge and expectations of the world of work and different occupations (also as the world of work changes).

- Assist people in understanding how they and their attributes fit certain career choices (jobs and study directions), and how this fit may change over time and situations.

- Allow people or employees to apply self-management in order to be in control of their own occupational choices and development.

- Facilitate self-control in young and experienced people by improving their self-efficacy beliefs and other resiliency factors so that they will be ready for and able to cope with work demands (also in more difficult situations).

- Facilitate and foster positive emotionality in people to enable them to assess life and work more positively, which may bring more job satisfaction.

- Make an early assessment of incongruent choices and reasons for job dissatisfaction and withdrawal behaviours, and also other work and career adaptation problems in order to be proactive.

- Provide counselling or guidance to employees who tend towards and manifest withdrawal behaviours in order to give them other mechanisms for coping with and adapting to job dissatisfaction or other issues.

- Use selection processes more effectively as person-job fit procedures by finding out more about each individual's background (history), values, personality traits, interests, attitudes, emotions and expectations, as well as the same factors in the organisation.

- Allow newcomers in organisations to have a realistic orientation and socialisation, and allow for possible changes in the original person-organisation fit arrangement as determined by the selection procedure and placement.

- Use effective motivational and work design strategies to ensure optimal person-organisation fit and work behaviours that will lead to job satisfaction and will avoid withdrawal and other counterproductive behaviours.

- Despite the new age in work and organisational cultures characterised by downsizing, mergers and discouragement of long-standing careers at one employer or in one job, the idea of a career still exists, and people still have dreams of developing and adapting successfully in a career.

7.11 ENRICH YOUR LEARNING

In this non-compulsory exercise follow the link https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZxbqtEeEgA4 for an explanation of Donald E Super's career development theory.

7.12 CONCLUSION

The ideas of career development and career management, and also the practice of long careers in one or two organisations or jobs, have been eroded by the so-called new world of work. Organisations are often characterised by mergers and downsizing. Children and young adults are conditioned to be entrepreneurs. They are warned about the ever-changing nature of work and working, and of the scarcity of jobs in formal organisations. However, many people are still in long-standing jobs, positions, practices and businesses. We say that the dream of career development and making good choices about study and work is alive and should be fostered across all stages of human development. We should learn more about the specific aspects of personality and its sub-facets, and how these interact with specific attributes in the work environment. This also applies to people who experience job dissatisfaction and use withdrawal behaviours to cope with and adapt to the demands of work or life (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

7.13 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Occupational development	Occupational choice
Work personality	Skills development
Developmental tasks	Developmental stages
Career maturity	Choice uncertainty
Socialisation	Self-concept
Person-job fit	Withdrawal
Absence behaviours	Turnover
Personality traits	Values
Needs	Orientations

LEARNING UNIT 8 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND WORK PERFORMANCE

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this learning unit is to explore how personality and individual difference factors are related to entrepreneurial behaviours (a phenomenon referring to leadership, business and people

management in workplaces). This is done to improve employee performance and productivity in organisations, and to enhance innovation and creativity of employee work behaviour and organisational processes. A further aim is to consider the context of entrepreneurship – to consider the role of background and biographical, psychological, environmental and organisational factors in entrepreneurship that either enhance or decrease the development of entrepreneurial tendencies. We briefly refer to strategies to improve entrepreneurship in organisations. The contents of this learning unit are important for the industrial psychologist and the human resources practitioner, who will be able to identify individuals with potential in order to promote entrepreneurship in employees for private business, organisations and the country. The contents are also important for every employee in their job (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.2 ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

Instructions: In this table you will find the additional resources relevant to learning unit 8.

Additional resources or CD in your study pack	LU 8 – Additional resources
*Access different types of resources relevant to your studies. The **Additional Resources** option contains a number of folders with files, links, graphs and other information. These additional resources will support your learning, and new resources might be uploaded during the semester.*	8.10 E-reserves • Bauer, T., & Erdogan, E. (2012). *An introduction to organizational behavior.* Retrieved from http://2012books.lardbucket.org/books/an-introduction-to-organizational-behavior-v1.0/ • Ironkwe, U., & Ordu, P. A. (2015). The place of ethics in entrepreneurship: the Nigerian perspective. *International Journal of Innovation and Economic Development, 3*(1), 45-55. Retrieved 14 April 2016 from http://researchleap.com/the-place-of-ethics-in-entrepreneurship-the-nigerian-perspective/
	Enrich your learning In this non-compulsory exercise, follow the link http://www.cnbcafrica.com/video/?bctid=3787761330001 on SMEs and start-ups key drivers of innovation. Reflecting on what you have learnt in this learning unit and module as a whole, what individual differences can you deduce in individuals that may have informed the survey of General Electric? For example, education is mentioned a number of times. In the context of South Africa, do you think the determinants of education on entrepreneurial behaviour played a role? Explain.

	What can you say about risk-taking behaviour and creativity after watching the clip? Discuss your views on **Discussion Forum 8**.

8.3 LEARNING OUTCOMES

LU 8 Individual differences, entrepreneurship and work performance	Evaluate the role of personality or individual differences in entrepreneurial behaviours. ***Assessment criteria*** (1) The psychology of the entrepreneur is explained in terms of its application and use in the work context. (2) The entrepreneur is profiled by referring to personality and psychological factors, background and demographic factors, as well as environmental and organisational influences. (3) The strategies to enhance leadership and entrepreneurial behaviour are critically discussed. (4) The relationship between entrepreneurial behaviour, leadership and management behaviour is described.

8.4 DEFINITIONS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

We have a general idea about the meaning of the term "entrepreneur", but what is the true meaning and why does it matter Nelson (2012) asks. The answer: "because it concerns the very engine of economic growth and the people we are counting on – desperately - to rev it up".

Tobak (2015) notes that it is not a job, it is about people doing things differently, such as a person who starts a business and is willing to risk loss in order to make money. People who drive entrepreneurial efforts have abilities or attributes that are innovative or new, and they often take the initiative to use and explore opportunities and resources optimally in order to create not only more than the expected outcomes or results (products, sales, services, etc.), but also new and adapted products (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

The following are some observable and implied concepts as to what it means to be an entrepreneur (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

• awareness of opportunities

• future orientation

• strategic planning ability

• goal-setting behaviour

• ability to evaluate and appraise

- achievement or success orientation

- values and attitudes for growth and money

- leadership skills

- managerial ability

- innovative ability

- use or work with resources and opportunities

- initiative or a self-starter (intrinsic motivation)

- practical orientation

- a body of relevant knowledge

To define entrepreneurship in the African context, Lombard (2015) examines the dominant factors that defined those who chose to become entrepreneurs, such as innovation and risk-taking in traditional perspectives of entrepreneurship. In today's socioeconomic climate, there is another dimension as to what an entrepreneur is. With organisations downsizing and packages being offered, many people find themselves in this role by default. In Africa specifically there are also people who have no access to job opportunities; they too are entrepreneurs by default as they have no other choice to make ends meet. This does not mean that measured against the traditional definitions of an entrepreneur they do not possess the potential; it means they simply do not have access to credit, knowledge and skills to put an entrepreneurial idea into action.

In the African and South African context, entrepreneurship can be defined as authentic entrepreneurism where these entrepreneurs are successful because they have discovered that real security is not financial. It is when they tap into their inner power to live purposefully and to create a meaningful lifestyle, not just a business (Lombard, 2015).

These are the five major traits of authentic entrepreneurs:

- **Visionary:** See the big picture
- **Creators of destiny:** Inspired by something expansive
- **Attractors:** Possess a dream or goal
- **Fulfilled:** Create a business from the inside out as self-aware individuals
- **Inspirational:** Know the importance of team spirit

8.5 SPECIFIC PERSONALITY TRAITS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP BEHAVIOUR

We mentioned the attributes of entrepreneurial people, processes and even organisations. In this section we explore the psychological attributes and behaviours of entrepreneurs in more depth.

Research has identified a list of characteristics (traits or competencies) that are quite generally accepted and viewed as important for entrepreneurial success (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Table 9: Specific personality traits and entrepreneurial behaviour

Drive and energy	Persuasion and influence strategies
Self-confidence	Business expertise
Long-term involvement	Research skills, for example information-seeking
Money is regarded as a measure of success	Assertiveness
Persistence in problem-solving	Efficiency orientation (wanting to do things quicker and more economically)
Ability to set clear goals and remain committed to them	Concern for high-quality work
Moderate risk taking (risk taking propensity)	Systematic planning
	Monitoring processes
Ability to use failure as positive learning	Commitment to work contracts
Consider feedback on performance important	Respect for business relationships
Initiative and personal responsibility	Need for achievement (self-achievement)
Ability to use resources towards goal accomplishment	Internal locus of control
	Type A behaviour
Compete against self-imposed standards	Autonomy
Tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty	Need for change and dominance
	Preference for intuition
	Stable self-esteem
	Time management
	Communication
	Negotiation
	Team leadership
	Delegation
	Reward and recognition skills

Source: Ledimo and Matjie (2011)

David McClelland's acquired-needs theory states that individuals acquire three types of needs as a result of their life experiences (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). These are the need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power.

Olson and Bosserman in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) classify entrepreneurial behaviour as a process in which three attributes are combined. These three attributes are role orientation, abilities and motivation. Entrepreneurs should actually "learn the ropes" by gaining an understanding of the many activities involved in innovative behaviours. With regard to abilities, entrepreneurs should be able to think intuitively and rationally. This translates into generating ideas by divergent thinking and becoming aware of opportunities and their implications – after which rational, logical, systematic and analytical thinking should lead to effective planning, goal-setting and purposeful actions.

Concepts like these are used in self-assessments, to assess other people or groups, or to construct questionnaires to assess entrepreneurship. However, these and other classifications or taxonomies of entrepreneurial traits still need further investigation.

8.6 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

Ledimo and Matjie (2011) list the attributes of an entrepreneur as the need for achievement (nAch), internal locus of control, risk-taking propensity, tolerance for ambiguity and type A behaviour. According to research, entrepreneurs also have power needs (nPow), but not strong needs for affiliation (nAff).

8.6.1 Need for achievement (nAch)

A person with a drive for achievement would more likely act as an entrepreneur (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). In line with McClelland's idea, the expectancy to achieve directs the innovative behaviours of entrepreneurial people (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The origins of this idea can be found in children being praised for their hard work, forming the foundations of persistence (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Children develop achievement motivation by being given sufficiently challenging, complex and novel tasks in play and other tasks that require mastery beyond their current knowledge and expectations. These challenging tasks also cause uncertainty levels which are necessary for entrepreneurial attributes like ongoing persistence and attention to the process of goal attainment (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

An individual difference in nAch is explained with reference to factors such as heredity, challenges from the environment and economic, political or social disadvantages. It has been found that external events affect employee motivational levels in the same way that they affect the family. (Refer to the background factors which influence entrepreneurial behaviour.) However, regardless of the sources of nAch, Weiner (1969) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) maintains that high achievement-oriented individuals select or initiate achievement-oriented actions, while low nAch individuals tend to avoid these types of activities. High nAch people also try to arrange the environment in such a manner as to increase the likelihood of success. Low nAch people, on the other hand, are largely attracted by external sources of motivation, such as money or social recognition, before they will be willing to undertake achievement-related activities.

Gellerman (1992) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) mentions that the four most reliable earmarks of a strong achievement motive are the following attributes, which are also part of entrepreneurial behaviour and processes:

- setting tough but attainable goals

- pursuing goals relentlessly

- restarting the cycle whenever a goal is achieved

- hunting for reliable indications that you are on the right track

Characteristics of people with a strong nAch

On the basis of theory and research, the following attributes and behaviours coincide with entrepreneurial characteristics (McClelland, 1987):

- High nAch employees prefer being personally responsible for goal achievement (being in control) because they experience satisfaction from doing tasks better, especially tasks of moderate difficulty.

- They prefer working in situations where they get performance feedback on task execution and their progress, since affiliation feedback is less important to them.

- They not only have the desire to perform better and more, but also to initiate and complete tasks that are different, novel or innovative.

- High nAch employees set a high standard in initiative and exploratory behaviour in their environments.

- High nAch employees measure success against the levels of growth and expansion.

- They continually strive to improve existing standards, products and services.

8.6.2 Internal locus of control

The degree to which people feel accountable for their own behaviours is known as locus of control. Bauer and Erdogan (2012) report that individuals with a high internal locus of control feel that they have greater control over their own lives and act in ways that increase their chances of success. They are more involved in their jobs and demonstrate high levels of motivation. Successful entrepreneurs tend to have high levels of internal locus of control because they are internally motivated and self-reliant (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.6.3 Power needs (nPow)

From the lists of attributes, it is clear that much more research should be done on the strength of entrepreneurial motives, attributes and behaviours. However, it would seem reasonable to expect entrepreneurial people to have rather strong power needs (nPow), although they may not like other power figures themselves. This has been tested by McClelland (1970) in Ledimo and Matjie (2011), who obtained interesting findings that some well-established entrepreneurs score low on nAch; however, they are executives of companies and therefore intrinsically they still have the innovative and achievement drive. A possible explanation is that entrepreneurs with an original high nAch who have achieved goals in innovative work in an organisation may become bogged down by company politics and obstacles. The need for achievement may then be adapted, or it may be surpassed by the need to control others (need for power) or to build favourable relationships with authorities in the company or enterprise in order to stay successful.

Thus, a person with a high nPow concentrates on obtaining and exercising power and authority. This person is concerned with influencing others and winning arguments. According to McClelland, highly competitive individuals (e.g. university students who have been selected to play competitive sports) score high on nPow based on more dominant and aggressive attributes. It seems as if people with a high power motive may choose competitive activities as a matter of preference. nPow can also appear in socially acceptable ways, for example to collect symbols of power or prestige possessions.

8.6.4 Need for affiliation (nAff)

It seems that, intrinsically, affiliation needs are not that important to entrepreneurs. This can be explained by their self-reliance and achievement orientation, and their use of human resources to achieve their innovative goals.

The need for affiliation (nAff) reflects a desire to interact socially with people. A person with a high nAff is concerned about the quality of important personal relationships; social relationships therefore take precedence over task accomplishment. Except for making use of people's support and perhaps enjoying their recognition, entrepreneurs are known to work on their own – often forgetting to involve

other interested parties. Based on this assumption, we believe that entrepreneurs manipulate affiliations to avoid being rejected; they like to be admired for being successful and want to gain approval by involving other people. If entrepreneurs' nAff were as high as nAch and nPow, they would have difficulties in addressing conflict and competition in pursuing goals. Putting other people's feelings above business interests hampers managerial and leadership skills, and undermines innovative tasks that may follow. It is possible that entrepreneurs will seek affiliations with colleagues who are not competitive rivals; however, the goal-oriented entrepreneurs who pursue achievement may seek favourable relationships with people who are their seniors or others who may prove to be obstacles in their quest for achievement. However, we think entrepreneurs typically demonstrate relationship and emotional intelligence to promote their achievement, affiliation and power needs (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Note that power may be negative if a person exercises dominance and submission, but it may sometimes be positive if a person reflects persuasive and inspirational behaviour.

8.7 LINKING LEADERSHIP OR MANAGERIAL ATTRIBUTES TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

As you know from other modules, leadership and management can be studied following various approaches. Without repeating the knowledge you already have, in the next section we attempt to link leadership and managerial attributes to entrepreneurship.

8.7.1 Attributes of entrepreneurial leaders and managers

From the attributes and the behaviours related to the entrepreneurial profile, it seems a viable assumption that entrepreneurs should be effective leaders in initiating innovation: setting direction and motivating other people involved, aligning and influencing people and processes and adapting to change. Their management skills relate to their planning skills as well as their ability to organise and delegate tasks and processes, and to control and monitor progress, while also using available financial and other resources. According to our analysis, it seems that entrepreneurs differ significantly from leaders and managers in their strong orientation for innovation and achievement (Ledimo & Matjie, 2016).

What type of leader and manager should the entrepreneur be? Or should the leader or manager also be an entrepreneur? Perhaps in organisations or enterprises the ideal should be to have managers who are entrepreneurial leaders? Any other combinations in this three-way equation may be found. In reality, in smaller firms one person may be an owner-manager-entrepreneur, while in medium-sized and large organisations an executive manager or chief executive (who may also be an entrepreneur, leader and co-owner) is assisted by leaders in specific areas. These leaders may be entrepreneurs, or they may be assisted by specific experts from the employee ranks in doing the creative and innovative work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2016).

Study Table 10, which has been compiled by a centre for creative leadership (McCauley, 2002, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011), and compare it to the attributes for entrepreneurs. The table includes attributes and behaviour descriptions which fit all three (or a combination of all three) attributes and behaviour types. However, in many descriptions of leaders and managers, you might not find references to roles, attributes or behaviours like innovation, creativity and adaptability.

Table 10: Creative leadership attributes for managers

Attributes	Behaviour descriptions: ability
problem-solving and decision-making	identify and analyse problems, make clear decisions and recognise trade-offs in decision points
innovation and creativity	create new ideas, "think out of the box", seize new opportunities, initiate and create change
taking organisational action	translate broad organisational strategy into plans, projects and action
business skills and knowledge	have specific functional knowledge and skills, and broad operational knowledge of the organisation
communication	communicate effectively in different media and be a good listener
building and maintaining relationships	build cooperative relationships at many levels, for example with superiors, subordinates, peers and clients
developing people	coach and encourage, give appropriate feedback, recognise and award achievement
valuing diversity	respect different backgrounds and perspective
drive and purpose	have direction and initiative, focus and perseverance, be goal-directed
integrity and values	be honest, trustworthy and credible
self-management	handle stress and pressure, manage time, balance career, work and private life
self-awareness	appraise strengths and weaknesses accurately, be in touch with your own psychological makeup and preferences
ability to learn	learn from your own experiences through action, feedback and reflection
adaptability	change to find new challenges, perform in multiple leadership roles

Management or managers seem to be recognised by the functions (planning, organisation, control, delegation and coordination) needed to align all the processes and resources in an organisation. Leadership or the leadership role of management is commonly defined as the process of influencing others in a manner that enhances their contribution to the realisation of group goals. This process is widely seen as the positive impact of one person on the behaviour of many others, and it is therefore often viewed as the key to effective and efficient organisations (Haslam, 2001, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Effective leaders are seen as activators of human potential to make organisations productive and effective. This definition seems to tie in with the entrepreneurial profile, except that the entrepreneurial role should excel beyond the organisation's past achievements and be better than its minimum or usual performance or achievement goals and objectives. This is achieved by continuously being aware of opportunities to innovate the existing products and services (and even the management and leadership systems). In this function, the attributes and behaviours of the management and leadership for organisational performance are still lacking in many organisations. In the literature the drive to achieve better through innovation and renewal is often not mentioned.

Thus the strong need for achievement and the continuous orientation towards innovation seem to be the main criteria for comparing managers and leaders with regard to entrepreneurship.

The following figure represents a model by Scherer et al (in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The model summarises many aspects of entrepreneurship we have discussed so far and the factors in the next section

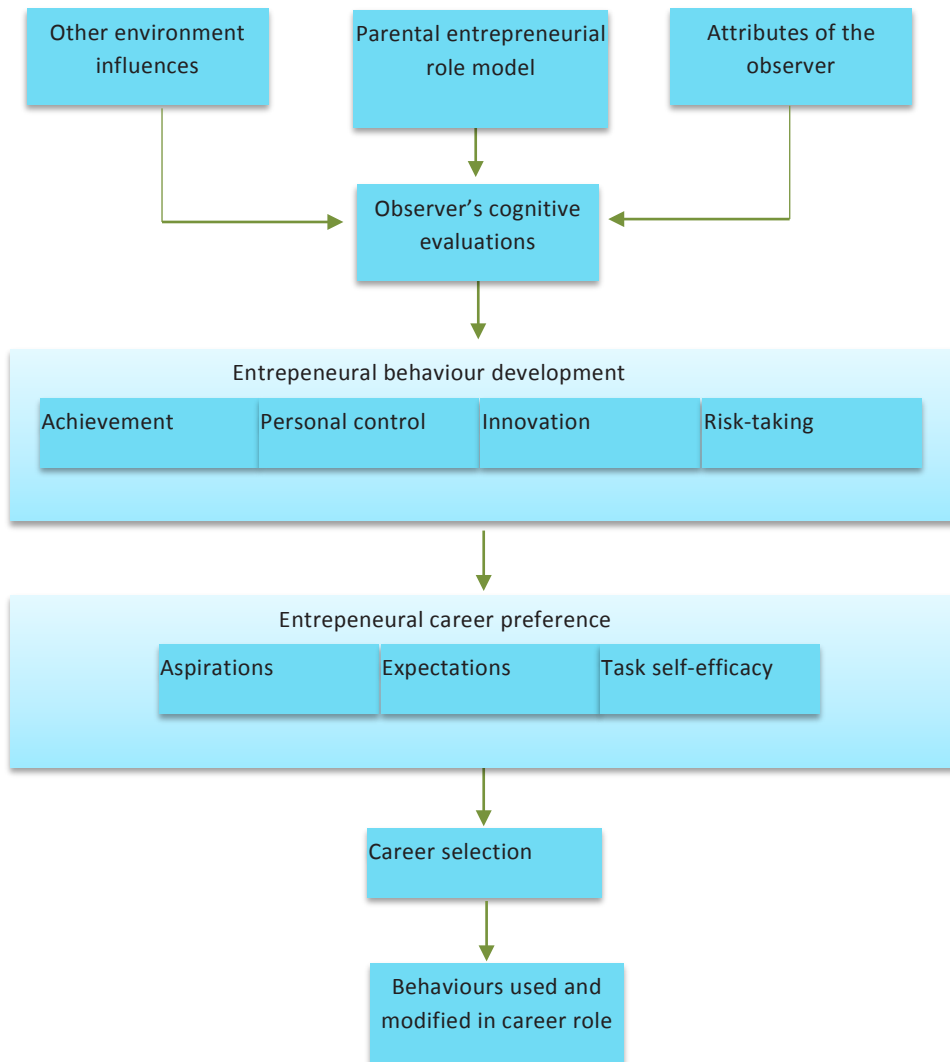
Figure 20: A model of entrepreneurship

8.7.2 Entrepreneurial traits in leaders and managers

In the following list, only internal locus of control, self-confidence and low need for affiliation seem to be applicable to entrepreneurs, though some of the others could be considered (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

• high energy and stress tolerance

• self-confidence

• internal locus of control

- emotional stability and maturity

- personal integrity

- socialised power motivation

- moderate achievement motivation

- low need for affiliation

8.7.3 Entrepreneurial behaviour in leaders and managers

In this category of leadership behaviour, the behaviours refer mostly to maintaining the status quo, because we do not spot strong, innovative goal-driving behaviours. Compare the behaviours discussed here to those in listed in 8.7.2.

The behavioural approaches to leadership examine what a leader does and are related to leader effectiveness. Things such as how many times a leader disciplines an employee and how often the leader communicates with an employee are typically studied. Two classes of behaviour have received a lot of attention: decision-influence behaviours, and task and social behaviours (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.7.3.1 Decision-influence behaviours

Many studies have been conducted on how the distribution of decision-making influence between leaders and subordinates is related to the performance and satisfaction of individuals and work groups. There are three types of leaders (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011):

- **Autocratic leaders:** The autocratic leader makes all the decisions and allows the followers no influence in the decision-making process. Supervisors typically meet the employee and give instructions without having any discussion with the employee (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011; Moerdyk et al, 2015).

- **Participative leaders:** These leaders consult with employees on appropriate matters and allow them some input and some influence in the decision-making process. This type of leader treats followers with dignity, and the leader and employee jointly decide on how the employee can reach the goals.

- **Laissez-faire leaders:** These leaders allow their groups to have complete autonomy. They rarely supervise directly and group members make many on-the-job decisions themselves.

8.7.3.2 Task and social behaviours

During studies at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan researchers focused on whether effective leaders emphasise task activities and assignments or tend to concentrate on keeping good relationships and cohesion among group members (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

Two leadership dimensions were identified:

- **Consideration:** This is the extent to which the leader is likely to have job relationships characterised by mutual trust and consideration for others' feelings.

- **Initiating structure:** This is the extent to which the leader is likely to define and structure their role and those of subordinates towards goal achievement.

The studies concluded the following:

- In production-centred leadership the supervisor is concerned primarily with high levels of production and generally uses high pressure to achieve them. Employees are seen as instruments for achieving the desired levels of production.

- In employee-centred leadership the supervisor is concerned about the feelings of employees and attempts to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect.

8.7.4 Entrepreneurial leadership based on contingencies

In the contingency leadership theories leadership is based on contingencies, such as entrepreneurial awareness that leads to the recognition of innovation opportunities. Exact planning and goal-setting are important for the entrepreneur; position power is important because it enables entrepreneurial participants to enjoy autonomy, and achievement orientation is also an entrepreneurial characteristic (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.8 MANAGERIAL MOTIVATION, LEADERSHIP AND ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOUR

Managerial competency explanations have gone more or less the same route as leadership approaches. Unlike leadership training, managerial training emphasises training in management functions. It more or less puts many managers in an administrative role, causing them to become "paper pushers" who are planning, organising, coordinating, delegating and controlling. Ledimo and Matjie (2011) remark that the focus of much of the research has since shifted to the concept of managerial motivation and specific skills, whereas earlier research focused on personality traits and general intelligence.

The authors regard managerial motivation as one of the most promising predictors of leadership effectiveness. Apart from research on this aspect, other research studies cited in Ledimo and Matjie (2011) found that aspects such as the need for power, a positive attitude towards authority figures and willingness to perform administrative functions are supportive of being a strong leader and manager in addition to intrapersonal characteristics indicative of managerially motivated people.

The following intrapersonal characteristics are indicative of managerially motivated people:

- **Cognitive characteristics**

Managerially motivated people follow a pragmatic approach to problem-solving. They are conventional, focus on objective realities and rely on practical judgement. They make their existence cognitively understandable and in the process are cognitively flexible to change. Because of this

cognitive understanding, they remain calm and do not easily become frustrated. These people are assertive and inclined towards independence or autonomy. They probably feel that through their abilities they are able to cope independently.

- **Affective characteristics**

Managerially motivated people have respect for authority figures, display a highly socialised power motive and prefer to interact with other people.

- **Conative characteristics**

An important characteristic of managerially motivated people is perseverance. This is closely affiliated to manageability and therefore the ability to perceive life events as manageable, bearable and even as a challenge. These people have self-confidence.

- **Interpersonal characteristics**

Managerially motivated people are enthusiastic, talkative and reflect the values of the group that they manage. They prefer to be in a highly visible position in the group, enjoy meeting people and display sophisticated social skills and diplomacy for the sake of social success.

- **Coping behaviours**

A general characteristic of managerially motivated people is the ability to cope. They have their own coping strategies to buffer the hardships of life. These people might continuously strive for success to avoid negative outcomes or to convince themselves that their fears will most likely never be realised. Owing to the organisational context of a managerial position, a strong competitive element is built into managerial work. These people should accept the challenges other managers may offer and should strive to win for themselves and their group.

The only managerial characteristic we think is entrepreneurial with regard to innovation and achievement is the more current emphasis on managerial achievement motivation. Promising aspects in this approach are the positive emphasis on aspects like flexibility, coping resources, more honest interpersonal or affiliation behaviour, and perhaps aspects that can be improved in the entrepreneurial personality (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.9 BACKGROUND AND BIOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOURS

Guerreiro, Caetano, Rodrigues, Barroso, and Couto (2016) report that the ideology that entrepreneurs are born and not made is losing ground. Anthropologists and sociologists emphasise the social context of entrepreneurial behaviour. In this section we emphasise, according to a behavioural approach, the influence of social learning, early role models and the reinforcement of possible patterns of entrepreneurial behaviour. We also focus on the developmental stage that probably occurs at a relatively young stage, before rigid and inflexible work attitudes are established or other circumstances make it difficult to be innovative (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.9.1 Age as a determinant of entrepreneurial behaviour

Age has proven relevant for entrepreneurial behaviour (Thorgren, Sirén, Nordström, & Wincent, 2016). Being more mature, the potential entrepreneur has gained sufficient experience, competence and self-confidence (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Research also indicates that older people become less likely to think of themselves as entrepreneurs (Thorgren et al, 2016). Age is also relevant for those individuals who are thinking about starting an entrepreneurial venture while still earning a wage where they may as yet not have reached a position of prestige and responsibility in an organisation.

With the changing nature of the world of work and ever-increasing demands for more and newer products, and the decreasing number of formal jobs available, many younger individuals and groups may follow the route of entrepreneurship. The ever-increasing number of small businesses, technological innovations and self-made millionaires is proof of this (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

An issue related to age is work experience, which is rated important for business acumen, expertise and knowledge of business and situations in which opportunities may arise. The entrepreneur often decides to explore an opportunity related to their previous job or career, especially if that employee resigns from a more formal job out of frustration and dissatisfaction at not reaching personal goals. In reality, this is often illustrated practically in contracts when former business partners are prohibited for some time from starting a business with similar products or services (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.9.2 Education as a determinant of entrepreneurial behaviour

The relationship between entrepreneurship and education is varied and conflicting (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Recent studies have investigated the influence of enterprise programmes on entrepreneurship behaviour and have concluded that people who attend these programmes are more likely to exhibit entrepreneurship behaviour than those who do not attend them (Solesvik, 2013). Ledimo and Matjie (2011) also cite previous research which shows that the majority of entrepreneurs have a low level of education. As we discussed previously, this is true in the African and South African context where many people are "forced" into entrepreneurial endeavours (Lombard, 2015). Having a certain level of education is not really indicative of entrepreneurial success either (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

A more realistic view is that entrepreneurship has an important intellectual component (which is not necessarily related only to higher or lower or formal qualifications) and that entrepreneurs are evident at all levels of society and types of jobs and businesses – formal and informal, big and small (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

It is possible that many entrepreneurs may only later become interested in higher and status qualifications (e.g. doctoral studies and registration with professional bodies) in order to use the recognition and opportunities that these qualifications may bring (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.9.3 Support as a determinant of entrepreneurial behaviour

Many authors stress the importance of child-raising practices that emphasise standards of excellence, material security, self-reliance, mastery training and low fatherly dominance (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). It is even possible that many entrepreneurs had a deprived childhood, which causes them to compensate, and they might not like to work under authority and would find it difficult to fit into a

formal organisation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Family support affords the entrepreneur greater access to capital and assistance in decision-making through a network of family connections.

8.9.4 Previous or current employment situation in entrepreneurship

Work experience may provide the entrepreneur with valuable business knowledge and skills, knowledge of possible partners and business competition, and insight into possible opportunities and customer requirements (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). Organisations that have a culture of achievement and innovation encourage entrepreneurship among their own employees, especially in the field of new ideas. Organisations should use their employees' enormous potential for innovation and creativity to come up with new business products for the outside market, and also to keep their own processes, procedures and methods of work in the front line of innovation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011). The innovative organisation has the right philosophy, culture and values, identity and practices to encourage employees and facilitate factors that lead to new ideas. These new ideas may be transformed into innovative outcomes and improved production and profits for the organisation and its employees. Individual differences in creativity and innovation may be grounded in the experience of individuals in organisations with a long-standing innovative culture. This innovative expertise is probably not learnt quickly, but is carried over to new employees through a combination of value orientation and experience with innovation. The usual change and transformation processes do not represent creativity or innovation, because they are phenomena that can impede innovation if they are not managed correctly (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.10 STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOUR

We think that entrepreneurial competencies and orientation are developmental phenomena, because individuals should have entrepreneurial stimulation from childhood and during career development, in workplaces and in work performance. Aspects, attributes and behaviours which should be enhanced include self-confidence and self-management, self-efficacy, self-responsibility, resourcefulness, resilience, innovativeness and creativity, empathy and a will to achieve and do better. Our suggestions do not include any specific methods, approaches or assessment techniques – you will find many of these in the literature and in practice (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.10.1 A new psychological contract

In addressing the need for more entrepreneurs, Ledimo and Matjie (2011) mention the psychological contract, citing research by Volpe (1999).

The researcher describes the old psychological contract in organisations as an unspoken and unwritten contract that merely confirmed the positions of the supervisor and the subordinate. This contract was common in bureaucratic organisations and kept autocratic management styles alive.

The old contract stipulated that employees had to perform their job in the way the supervisor prescribed. In return, employees received a stable salary, security, a pension fund, a medical aid scheme and so on. Little or no creativity was allowed.

The new psychological contract includes self-sufficiency, self-responsibility and mutual viability. It integrates the global business concepts of autonomy and accountability.

Three phases in implementing a new psychological contract with entrepreneurial elements are identified:

- Cognitive intelligence focuses on participation in a long-term relationship with the organisation, with a view to mutual gain. A team orientation and interdependence are crucial. Inclusivity, transparency and healthy communication are also strongly promoted.

- Relationship intelligence focuses on maturity and trust, that is, trust in an employee's self-management, interpersonal and technical skills.

- Value intelligence is indicated by saying what you do and doing what you say.

8.10.2 Awareness of achievement and success

Furnham (1995) mentions that achievement motivation (as a determinant of leadership and entrepreneurial behaviour) can be fostered in adults by means of training courses. These courses have the following as goals:

- to teach participants how to think, talk and act like people who perform well; therefore to model the entrepreneur

- to stimulate participants to set higher, but carefully planned and realistic work goals for themselves over a period

- to provide participants with knowledge about themselves; therefore to provide self-insight

- to create group spirit by learning from others' hopes and fears, successes and failures

Jack Welch (2001, in Ledimo & Matjie, 2011), the legendary former CEO of General Electric, mentions that there is no quick formula for being an effective CEO or leader, but there are some characteristics that contribute to success:

- maintaining integrity

- accepting social responsibility towards the community in which the company operates

- being really involved with employees

- maximising the organisation's intellect by tapping everyone's best ideas and transferring them to others

- putting people first, strategy second – getting the right people in the right jobs to put plans into action

- creating an informal atmosphere by ensuring that everybody counts

- creating legitimate self-confidence

- having the ability to accept a task with passion and to persevere with it regardless of setbacks

- formulating a strategy and being able to respond rapidly to real changes as they occur

8.10.3 Innovation in organisational culture

The organisational philosophy, vision, mission, values, strategies, climate factors, methods and the walk and talk should grow into a culture of innovation that is recognised by each individual, work groups, competitors and the community. They should become part of the organisation's image. There is no correct way; in each organisation it is a contextual experience of how managers relate to their colleagues and subordinates. Open communication and relationships, flexibility, responsiveness to change and interpersonal networking and alliance-building are emphasised. In general, rigid management and hierarchy smother creativity and innovation (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.10.4 Create opportunities for creativeness and innovation

Creativeness and innovation cannot necessarily be learnt, but their development can be encouraged. In a positive work climate where employees work optimally, have autonomy and are rewarded for high achievement and special contributions without strict managerial controls, creative ideas and innovative work have a chance to start and grow. Added to this, if employees are allowed to make suggestions and discuss them or to improve work procedures and technologies, or if they are given assignments that require innovation, more companies may develop entrepreneurial cultures (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.11 ETHICS@WORK

In your e-reserves you will find an article by Ironkwe and Ordu (2015). The authors note that entrepreneurship practitioners now face more ethical issues each day than ever before. Upholding ethical principles is vital for business survival given the ethical problems in organisations at present. The authors indicate that getting managers to be accountable and responsible could pave the way forward for overcoming ethical challenges. They suggest 16 individual entrepreneurial behaviours necessary to build a strong business and to lay down a foundation of ethical behaviour:

Punctuality	Reliability
Courtesy	Respect
Communication	Clothing
Neatness	Honesty
Empathy	Competence
Honour	Customer focus
Being result-oriented	Risk-taking
Passion	Persistence

Ironkwe and Ordu state that if an organisation is to write an ethical code, it needs to be tailored to the individual company's philosophy and should always match with practice and not become a joke to employees.

8.12 CONCLUSION

South Africa needs entrepreneurs, but for many reasons many employees, companies and enterprises maintain the status quo; they just survive and do what is expected of them. However, much more is needed: a willingness to achieve, to do better, to be creative and innovative and to produce much more. Government, employers and employees, consultants and experts like industrial psychologists have the responsibility to create meaningful workplaces where individuals, groups and organisations are willing to do better. We believe that most people can be innovative (some more than others) and that this potential can be developed and practised. Innovation need not only be a novel idea or product which results in more profits – every employee should be creative and try new ways of work (Ledimo & Matjie, 2011).

8.13 SELF-ASSESSMENT

Develop your own glossary of terms.

Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurial attributes
Entrepreneurial behaviour	Entrepreneurial process
Leadership	Contingency
Transformational management	Managerial motivation
Creativity	Need for achievement
Need for power	Need for affiliation
Cognitive characteristics	Affective characteristics
Conative characteristics	Interpersonal characteristics

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