

**The Relationship between Organisational Modal Personality,
Organisational Commitment and Intention to Turnover.**

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Declaration

**I hereby declare that this dissertation
is my own unaided work and has neither
been submitted to any other University,
nor for the purpose of any other degree.**

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Date

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is explore the possible relationship between personality and turnover. This relationship is framed within the Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) Model, a model that describes the process through which homogeneity of personality types within organisations occurs. Following a review of literature relevant to the topic, it is suggested that failure to fall with the majority personality cluster, should be related to low levels of organisational commitment and high levels of intention to turnover. Both of these variables are viewed as indicators of one's turnover likelihood. In testing this relationship, the research further aims to provide empirical evidence for the notion of Attrition, an otherwise absent feature of ASA research.

The study involved the participation of 101 employees from a Johannesburg based organisation. Each respondent was presented with the Work Personality Index (WPI), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Intention to Turnover Scale (ITS). The WPI results were analysed with the use of cluster analysis. The organisational commitment and intention to turnover scores of the resultant personality clusters were then analysed to determine whether or not differences existed between these clusters.

The research failed to provide outright evidence for the predicted relationship between personality cluster membership and turnover. There was some evidence for the notion of Attrition, yet the nature of that attrition was shown to be different from the expected form under the ASA model. The research showed that it is possible that complementary and supplementary fit (mechanisms that are related to Attrition, and thus turnover) are both present within the sample, suggesting that ASA model requires some revision.

Limitations, as well as theoretical and practical implications, of this study are too considered. Finally the study suggests further possible lines of research that could shed light on the relationship between personality and organisational behaviours, of which turnover is one of many.

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Chapter One

Literature Review

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1990, Weiss and Alder commented that “Researchers in Organisational Psychology have not had much regard for personality constructs in recent years” often reducing personality within models to “obligatory boxes designed to contain “individual differences”, [which], in most cases... play no fundamental role” (p.2) in the mechanisms of that model. Interest in the concept of personality and its relationship to the world of work has, however, in recent years increased. Barrick and Ryan (2006) comment to this extent that “it is difficult to pick up a current research journal in human resources, organisational behaviour, I/O psychology, or general area of management without finding at least one article dealing with personality at work” (p. xv).

Yet, despite this renewed interest, one particular area of research has not kept up. In research focusing on Person-Organisation fit (and possible outcomes of misfit) the role of personality is generally not well understood. This research aims to incorporate personality as a central mechanism within research of organisational concern by exploring the relationship between the modal personality of an organisation and turnover.

Organisations are increasingly faced with the problem of employee turnover (Loi, Hang-yue and Foley, 2006) and it remains an area of central concern for industrial psychology and researchers (Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998). Such turnover not only results in added expenses being incurred by employers due to recruitment and training costs, but also as a result of the loss of talent that such turnover involves (Loi et al., 2006). Turnover, accordingly, has a direct impact upon the bottom line of organisations within the globally competitive market (Mouyis, 2002) thus elevating its importance within organisational research (Tang & Kim, 2000).

The concept of turnover has, in general, remained theoretically consistent (even if differently described). Pearson (1995) defined turnover as “the leaving behaviour of employees when they sever their association with the organisation” whereas Mobley (1982) suggested turnover to be “the cessation of membership in an organisation by an individual who received monetary

compensation from the organisation”. Both of these definitions tend to reflect a similar concept that has been alternatively stated by Mouyis (2002) as:

...the termination of a professional relationship between an employee and employer in an organisation which results in the cessation of any remuneration or compensation towards the employee from the employer in interchange for services rendered (p.2).

Research pertaining to this organisational dilemma, however, has failed to incorporate a central individual characteristic that may add further depth to this extensive body of knowledge, namely, personality (Ryan & Kirstof-Brown, 2003). As mentioned previously, within the current study, the importance of personality, as a variable that is possibly related to employee turnover, is examined. Specifically, the argument that follows suggests that individuals, whose personality profile differs from that of the organisation (the idea of an organisation’s personality shall be elaborated upon shortly) within which they work, are likely to experience lower levels of Organisational Commitment and higher levels of Intention to Turnover – both of which are considered predictors of employee turnover (Griffeth & Hom, 1995).

The idea that organisations have personalities or that an organisation’s culture is the personality of the organisation (Smit & Cronje, 1997; Fiofori, 2007), whilst appealing, has received little attention within the field of Industrial Psychology. To follow is an examination of a model of organisational personality – the Attraction-Selection-Attrition Model (Schneider, 1987) – and an overview of research pertaining to this model. Further, the relationship between the ASA model and employee turnover shall be elaborated upon.

1.2 ATTRACTION-SELECTION-ATTRITION

As with any form of enquiry, a useful starting point is to locate the theory of interest within the theoretical paradigm to which that theory adheres. As such, the initial point of discussion, before the central mechanisms of the ASA model are highlighted, will be the very nature of organisational life that the ASA model holds to be true.

The study of organisations (and the behaviour of people with them), has resulted in a “scholarly bifurcation characterized by two parallel, yet largely non-overlapping literatures’ (Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995, p. 747). On the one side, are those theories who wish to explain behaviour in terms of the individual qualities (or traits) that people possess, whilst on the other side sit those theorists who place behaviour not in the realm of the individual, but instead, as a product of the environment within which the individual is situated (Schneider et al., 1995). Schneider et al. (1995) note to this extent, ‘in the organisational sciences there is a fundamental difference in paradigms between studies of people who work and studies of the attributes of organisations in which people work” (p. 747). However, following the debate between Mischel and Bowers over the aetiology of personality during the late 1960’s and early 1970’s, an alternative perspective arose that aimed to consolidate these differing perspectives (Schneider, 1987).

Building upon the seminal work of Kurt Lewin, Bowers suggested that behaviour is not a product of the environment, nor is it an outcome of individual attributes and traits, but rather behaviour is a function of both the environment and the individual (Schneider, 1987): That is, behaviour is a result of an interaction between the individual and the environment within which the individual is situated (Schneider et al. 1995). Such a model, places importance on neither the person nor the environment as a source of behaviour, but suggests, rather, it is the interaction between these variables that produces behaviour. It is with the notion that an interaction between behaviour, the person and the environment exists, that Schneider’s (1987) model of Attraction-Selection-Attrition emerges. Yet, whilst the interactionist perspective proposed by Lewin (and expanded upon through the work of Bowers) holds that behaviour is a “function of person and

environment, that is, $B = f(P,E)$ ”, the ASA model contends that “environments are function of persons behaving in them, that is, $E = f[P,B]$ ” (Schneider, 1987, p. 438). Organisational environments are accordingly viewed as products of individuals behaving within them; as such, organisational procedures, structures, policies, cultures and climates are viewed as emerging as a result of the individuals within a company. The fundamental defining principal of an organisation, thus, is not the procedures, structure and culture of that organisation, but rather the individuals within that company (Schneider, 1987).

Yet, how does one reconcile the notions of organisational personality – the idea that a personality type is characteristic of the whole organisation – and individual variability of personality types that one might expect? If individuals are the defining characteristic of organisations, then to say that an organisation has a personality X, would suggest that all (or most) individual within an organisation would need to be homogenous in relation to that specific attribute. Said otherwise, if an organisation’s personality is a product of people behaving within an organisation, $OP = f[P,B]$, then necessarily a degree of similarity is required by all P’s. As such, the notion of organisational personality would, under such a model, reflect a level of homogeneity. To follow, the central tenets of the ASA model, whose primary intention is to describe the process through which such homogeneity emerges, will be highlighted upon.

According to the ASA model, organisations, through a cycle of attraction, selection and attrition, tend towards to the formation of a modal personality (Schneider, 1987, Schneider et al., 1995; Giberson, Resick & Dickson, 2005). That is, through the processes of ASA, individual’s personality types naturally converge on one type that can be said to be characteristic of the organisation as a whole. The attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987), thus aims to explain the process through which homogeneity of personality types, and accordingly the formation of an organisational personality, occurs.

The idea of attraction, in this case, refers to the notion that individuals actively seek out environments to which they are suited (Schneider, 1987). This notion has received strong support from research that indicates that individuals are attracted to organisations in which they perceive congruence between their individual traits and preferences, and the organisation's culture (Judge & Cable, 1997). Tom (1971) also indicated that individuals will be attracted to environments in which they perceive a similarity between their own personality profile and that of the organisation.

To a large degree support for the notion of attraction has emanated from the field of vocational psychology where "vocational choice is assumed to be the result of a person's type or patterning of types and the environment" (p. 533) and further, that "the character of an environment emanates from the types [of people] which dominate that environment" (Holland, 1976, p. 534). In general, literature on vocational and organisational choice has tended to suggest that similar types of people are attracted to certain types of organisations where congruence between their individual attributes and those of the organisation is perceived (Schneider, 1987). The notion of attraction has too received some support from several laboratory-based experiments. Burke and Deszca (1982), for example, created hypothetical accounts of organisations that were presented to students who had to rate the relative attractiveness of those organisations. In this study, and similar ones conducted by Bretz, Ash and Dreher (1989), and Turban and Keon (1983), it was found that certain personality attributes such as a high need for achievement and Type A behaviour - in Burke and Deszca's (1982) study - were associated with favourable ratings for organisations that had individual-centred reward systems. O' Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) reproduced similar results with university students when personality scores from the Adjective Check List were compared to personally desirable aspects of the Organisational Culture Profile. Again, the results focused upon the need for achievement which in this case was associated with cultures that were outcome orientated.

In relation to selection, the ASA model – supported by the findings of Schein (1993) – suggests that leaders of organisation embed their personality traits within the organisation and tend to

surround themselves with individuals with whom a perceived congruence between personality types is presumed (Giberson et al., 2005). Founders, according to Schein (1992), embed within their organisations through several primary embedding mechanisms, such as decision making criteria, their own assumptions and values. These assumptions are then reinforced through secondary mechanisms including organisational structures, processes, systems and goals (Schein, 1992). Such goals and processes, argues Schneider (1987), are an “operationalization of the personality of the organisation’s founders” (p. 752) and in order for goal attainment to be achieved, founders select individuals whom they believe similar values, assumptions and personality traits are shared. Accordingly, the ASA model contends that a modal personality of the organisation emerges (that is a reflection of the personality of leaders) as a result of the tendency of leaders to select individuals with whom they share a common personality type (Giberson et al., 2005).

Research supporting the notion of leaders embedding their own characteristics into the structure of the organisation emerges from several sources. Kimberley (1980; as cited in Schneider et al., 1995), for example, through a case study of a medical school, noted that the “goals, structures, processes, and culture [of the school] differentiated that particular school from others” (p. 753) and, more notable, was based upon the “legacy” of the founding dean. Similarly, Feldman (1985), and Hambrick and Mason (1984) noted the importance leaders in determining the style with which organisations function, findings that were also reported by Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) who reported how leaders determine the culture they wish to create and then formulate structures and policies that aim to strategically enact that culture. Personality characteristics of the CEO have also been shown to influence the structure that organisations adopt (Miller & Droge, 1986) by selecting “lieutenants” with whom “the founder’s basic assumptions” (Schein, 1993, p. 214) are shared.

Beyond the case study approaches discussed above, several other studies have generated evidence that supports the homogeneity of personality types within organisations. In a British study by Jordan, Herriott and Chalmers (1991), 344 managers from four organisations completed

the 16 PF. The results indicated that a main effect for organisation on personality was found to be present and secondly, that different personality types characterized the same occupation in different organisations. Such results suggest that beyond each organisation having a degree of homogeneity (evidence of selection being present); such homogeneity could not be reduced to occupational similarity across the organisations.

Giberson et al. (2005) using data from 467 employees across 32 organisations (with an average of 11% of each organisations' total population participating) also found evidence to suggest that homogeneity of personality types has occurred – further evidence of selection bias towards favourable personality types. Using the Big Five personality inventory and a values measure, Giberson et al. (2005) found evidence of both with-in organisation personality homogeneity and values homogeneity. Further, Giberson et al. (2005) reported that for three of the Big Five personality traits, namely, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Extraversion, significant relationships existed between the organisations leaders and the modal personalities of the organisations. That is, Giberson et al. (2005) noted that the modal personalities of the organisations were significantly correlated to the personality profiles of their leaders.

By far the biggest study to date that has aimed to provide evidence for personality homogeneity, is that conducted by Schneider et al. (1998). Based upon 13000 managers Myers-Briggs Type Indicator scores from 142 organisations, Schneider et al. (1998) conducted a MANOVA that suggested that within-organisation variability was sufficiently small as to allow differentiation of organisations to occur. Even within the same industry, variability was sufficiently small enough to allow for differentiation (Schneider et al., 1998).

As yet, the research and theory presented has focused, firstly, upon the manner through which similar people are drawn to certain types of organisations, and secondly, how that self-selected pool of applicants are further limited to specific types of people through the process of selection. Whilst attraction and selection over time are presumed to result in the homogenization of

personality types as organisations seek goal attainment (goals that are seen as reflective of the organisation's founder's personality), it is still accepted that other personality types might 'slip through the cracks'. These other types, however, are presumed to be slowly minimized over time through the process of attrition, thus further increasing the level of homogeneity of personality types within the organisation. In the section that follows, this specific aspect of Schneider's ASA model and its relationship with Organisational commitment and Intention to Turnover are discussed.

1.3 ATTRITION, ORGANISATION COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO TURNOVER

The third aspect of the ASA cycle, attrition, refers to the notion that individuals who do not "fit" with the organisation will tend to leave, resulting in further convergence of personality types that remain within the organisation (Giberson et al., 2005; Schneider, 1987). Specifically, individuals whose personality differs from the modal personality of the organisation, as a result of perceived incongruence, will leave the organisation (Giberson et al., 2005).

The idea that individuals who do not perceive congruence between themselves and the organisation within which they work will leave that organisation, has received considerable support from research conducted in the field of person-organisation fit (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Research within person-organisation fit theory, has effectively occurred along three lines. The first of these approaches focuses specifically upon the level of congruence between the **values** of an individual and the degree to which an organisational environment can sustain such values (Edwards, 1996). The second line of research focuses upon the **abilities** of individuals and the external demands of the environment (Edwards, 1996); whilst the third utilization of the P-O fit model focuses upon the degree of congruence between the **culture** (personal beliefs and values) of the individual and that of the organisation (O'Reilly et al., 1991).

The notion of modal personality, however, fails to fall within any of these three categories. Ryan and Kirstof-Brown (2003) note that very little research has been conducted that views

personality as a possible point of incongruence. Even within the framework of the ASA model, research tends to focus on the attraction-selection aspects of the model where the focus is primarily upon the degree of similarity between founders' personalities and the personality types of individuals within the organisation as a means of inferring homogeneity. A central component of the ASA model, however, is that attrition will occur specifically in relation to the degree of congruence between the modal personality of the organisation, and the personality of the individual. Such concerns are in line with the current study. Whilst previous studies have failed to operationalise the attrition aspect of the ASA model, the current aims to specifically test the hypothesis that as a result of incongruence between an individual's personality and the modal personality of the organisation, attrition may occur.

The notion of incongruence, however, remains, in many cases, an ill-defined concept (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). In relation to this dilemma, Muchinsky and Monahan note that although "‘person–environment congruence’ refers to the degree of fit or match between the two sets of variables . . . what exactly constitutes a fit or match is not totally clear" (pp. 268-269). A possible solution to this ambiguity, suggested by Muchinsky and Monahan (1987), is to view fit along two lines, namely complementary versus supplementary fit. Complementary fit, under this conceptualization of person-environment congruence, refers to a state whereby a "mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and the environment" (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987, pp. 272) exists. Said otherwise, complementary fit exists "when individuals' characteristics fill a gap in the current environment or vice versa" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 288).

One such study of personality and complementary fit was conducted by Kristof-Brown, Barrick and Stevens (2005a). In this study, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005a) hypothesized that individuals would be more attracted to their teams when a complementary fit centred upon extraversion existed. Under such circumstances, high individual-low team or low individual-high team relationship would result in the highest levels of attraction (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005a). Using 324 MBA students comprising 64 teams, and 217 members of 26 manufacturing teams, Kristof-

Brown et al. (2005a) confirmed their hypothesized relationship, showing that not only were individuals more attracted to their teams when such a relationship existed, but further, that peers and supervisors rated individuals who were attracted to their teams as stronger performers. Barrick, Stewart, Neubert and Mount (1998), confirmed similar results that suggested a teams capacity to work together over a long-term period (as rated by the teams supervisor), was positively associated with degree of variability on extraversion. This relationship, however, appears to be unique to extraversion (Barry & Stewart, 1997) and in general fit in relation to personality characteristics has been conceptualized along different lines.

Supplementary fit provides this alternative set of relationships. Whereas complementary fit suggest that individuals will find fit in circumstances in which short comings in the environment will be off set by individuals' attributes, and vice versa, supplementary fit suggest a degree of similarity between the individual and the environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Building upon Festinger's theory of social comparison (1954) and similar theories such as Heider's balanced state theory (1958) and Bryne's similarity attraction paradigm (1971) (as cited in Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), supplementary fit extends from the notion that individuals seek "validation of their perspectives, which can be met by interacting with similar others" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 288).

Studies that focused on supplementary-based notions of fit have generally held that when individuals enjoy a degree of similarity with others within their work environment, positive outcomes are experienced (Chatman, 1991; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003). Bryne (1969, 1971), for example noted that when individuals shared personalities, attitudes and demographic characteristics, their interpersonal experiences were enhanced (as cited in Giberson et al., 2005). Similarity between individuals on personality characteristic may further aid in social integration (O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989), minimize the chance of role conflict and ambiguity (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Turban & Jones, 1988), increase trust between leaders and sub-ordinates (Bauer & Green, 1996) and increase the chances that individuals will interpret actions and environmental stimuli similarly (Engle & Lord, 1997).

The concept of attrition, within the current study, shall be tested through the use of the constructs of organisational commitment (Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1982) and intention to turnover (Rosen and Korabik, 1991). Organisational commitment and intention to turnover have been shown to be predictors of employee turnover, where high levels of commitment and low levels of intention to turnover are expected to reduce the likelihood of turnover (Meyer, Becker and Vanderberghe, 2004; Griffeth & Shom, 1995). Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that organisational commitment can occur along three lines, namely, "affective attachment to the organisation, obligation to remain, and perceived cost of leaving" (Meyer et al., 2004, p.993). Meyer and Allen (1991) deem these three commitment aspects as affective, normative and continuance commitment respectively. In relation to the current study, Mowday et al's Organisational Commitment Questionnaire was utilised which closely resembles the affective attachment concept utilised by Meyer and Allen. The second predictor, Intention to Turnover is viewed as a measure of the likelihood that an individual will leave the organisation. It is suggested, therefore, that organisational commitment and intention to turnover are possible predictors of attrition as they provide an indication of the likelihood of an individual to leave the organisation.

It may be worthwhile to further expand on how this relationship might work. Research into the psychology of turnover in most instances has tended to follow the logic that "[w]hen outcomes are too low relative to the employee's expectations, an employee becomes dissatisfied and motivated to leave the organisation, increasing his or her desirability of movement" (Harman, Lee, Mitchell, Felps & Owens, 2007, p. 51). Indeed the ASA model tends to suggest that such a process is likely. Individuals for whom incongruence is found to exist, that is, individuals who lie outside the modal personality, would be expected to receive less promotion opportunities or opportunities for growth in the organisation as they should be less likely to be selected from applicant pools. A lack of organisational commitment is meant to be reflective of the dissatisfaction experienced due to expectations not being met, whilst intention to turnover is expected to indicate the desirability of movement.

There have, however, been more complicated models of turnover presented. Lee and Mitchell (1994) propose a model of turnover whereby the decision to turnover, whilst sometimes a product of the desirability-ease of movement function discussed above, is more often than not based upon a standardized decision making process. This model views turnover as a four-step decision making process initiated by some external stimulus (an offer of alternative employment, for example). Step one would involve a comparison between the received information and one's personal value system; at step two, comparisons are drawn considering one's "trajectory image (the person's set of goals that motivate job behaviour)"; step three sees individuals comparing the incoming information with a "strategic image (the behavioural tactics and strategies that the person believes are effective in attaining job-related goals)" (Harman et al., 2007, p. 51); and finally, having passed this screening test, the individual will then compare the incoming information with the status quo.

Failing to fall within the modal personality, it is suggested, may facilitate the negotiation through these steps of comparison. Research has shown that there is evidence to suggest a relationship between values and personality. For example, Dollinger, Leong and Ulicni (1996) found that individuals who scored high on openness to experience, tended to hold the values of a "world of beauty", whilst considering themselves "broadminded" and "imaginative". Furnham (1984) too confirmed such a relationship between values and personality when he noted that extroverts tend to value comfort and excitement, whilst the values of independence and freedom from conflict were generally held by individuals high on neuroticism. Similarly, Judge and Cable (1997) found that there was a relationship between five factors model traits and organisational value preferences, although this relationship was noted to be rather small. It thus seems plausible to suggest, that falling outside the modal personality may create a scenario where the values of the organisation are in conflict with those of the individual – thus fulfilling the requirements of step one.

Non-modal membership may facilitate the comparison drawn at step two in the sense that an individual's personal goals may be thwarted by failing to fall within the selection pool. That is,

since the individual does not share the same personality as the organisation, one's ability to access resources that would allow goal attainments, may be hindered. In a similar manner one's strategic image maybe in conflict with the information provided by the organisation, as failing to fall within the modal personality would possibly block one's access to paths of goal attaining action. Under such circumstances, the strategy employed to attain goals could be in conflict to the desires of the organisation.

The relationship in general, however, between misfit, organisational commitment and intention to turnover has been confirmed through a meta-analysis conducted by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005). Person-organisation fit was shown to have a strong correlation with organisation commitment (.51) that was obtained from a sample of 36 093 and a moderate but significant correlation with intention to turnover (-.35) from a sample of 34 276. Contrary to their prediction, Kristof-Brown too found that supplementary based notions of fit produced stronger relationships then alternative conceptualizations of fit (namely, needs-ability or complementary fit). It thus appears that the use of intention to turnover and organisational commitment as indicators of supplementary misfit appears to be adequate as both of these constructs have been shown to successfully correlate with this construct.

1.4 PERSONALITY

Throughout the literature review thus far, the concept of personality has been referred to in absence of a clear definition of what this concept entails. In the section that follows, the concept of personality, as utilised within the current study, shall be elaborated upon.

When one endeavours to describe another person there is a wide variety of terms that one could utilise. A person may be described as “dependable” and “reliable”, or as “aggressive” and “hostile”, to name but a view characteristics of an exceptionally long list. Yet, when one speaks of personality the mere presence of observable behaviours does not necessarily translate into an adequate notion of personality. Instead, the notion of personality tends to reflect two

characteristics of such behaviours, namely, consistency and distinctiveness (Weiten, 2001). For example, whilst one may observe another to be “aggressive”, such behaviour may be more of situational manifestation rather than a core aspect of that individual’s personality. Yet, if that behaviour proves to manifest itself over a variety of contexts, that is, a quality of “*consistency across situations*” (Weiten, 2001, p. 486) characterizes that behaviour, then such behaviour is viewed as a personality trait or an aspect of that individual’s personality.

Distinctiveness, the second characteristic of the notion of personality, refers to the use of personality to discern as to why people, in the same situation, produce differing behaviours (Weiten, 2001). The personality of an individual is viewed as the cause of this differing behaviour, that is, people react in different manners to the same situation, as each individual has a unique personality. Distinctiveness accordingly refers to the use of personality as a means to explain “the behavioural differences among people reacting to the same situation” (Weiten, 2001, p. 486). Building upon these qualities of personality, Weiten suggest that personality may be viewed as “an individual’s unique constellation of consistent behavioural traits” where a trait is a “durable disposition to behave in a particular way in a variety of situations” (Weiten, 2001, p. 486).

Personality in general, therefore, can be classified as “a combination of traits that distinguish one person from another [where] traits are enduring tendencies to act, think or feel in a certain way in any given circumstance” (MacNab & Baker, 2001, p.4). Built upon the US Department of Labour’s occupational information network, the proposed understanding of personality presented rather than being based upon a theoretical model of human personality, “is a combination and ordering of personality traits that predict job performance” (MacNab & Baker, 2001, p5).

Using concurrent and predictive validity studies that indicated evidence to support that traits cannot only be effectively measured, but further that they predict job performance, and building

upon existing measures of personality that included the Californian Psychological Inventory, The Hogan Personality Inventory and The NEO PI-R, MacNab and Baker (2001) identified personality traits that have been linked to work preferences and work motivation.

From these two sources, MacNab & Baker identified seven higher order factors which were later adjusted to five following factor analysis and seventeen primary scales that informed these factors. These five constructs include achievement orientation, conscientious, social orientation, practical intelligence and adjustment. Below, these concepts are defined as presented by MacNab and Baker (2001) along with the primary scales which are believed to produce such factors.

Achievement Orientation is considered the construct which informs ones desire to work hard and persist during difficult times, and the desire to further oneself and strive for career success. Whilst in alternative conceptualisations of personality, such as the five factor model, this concept is included under the conscientious factor, MacNab & Baker (2001) separate the desire to achieve from “the dependable and disciplined behaviours that are grouped in the conscientious factor” (p.6). This factor is believed to be informed by the primary constructs of ambition, initiative, flexibility, energy and leadership and is commonly called “achievement striving, assertiveness and ambition” (p.6).

The second factor, namely, conscientiousness involves the traits of being disciplined and organized, careful and planful, and dependable. MacNab & Baker (2001) note that this construct has in a wide variety of occupations, been related to work performance although they do not go on to elaborate such a claim. The four primary constructs that inform the conscientiousness composite include persistence, attention to detail, rule following and dependability.

The third higher order factor identified is that of social orientation. In general this construct refers to the degree to which an individual is aware of the needs of others, is willing to work, not

independently, but rather co-operatively with others and the ability and preference for establishing personal relationships and working with others. In alternative formulations of personality this factor closely resembles the concept of extraversion and includes the elements of team work, concern for others, outgoingness and a measure of democratic inclination.

The penultimate taxonomy included is that of, practical intelligence. MacNab & Baker (2001) suggest that this construct includes characteristics such “as insight, imagination, originality, being open to new ideas and maintaining a thoughtful approach to work” (p.6). Other formulations of personality have included this construct in varying labels that includes amongst others, openness to experience and intellect. Within the current study it is made up of the primary factors that include innovation and ones ability to think analytically.

The final composite suggested closely resembles the neuroticism construct included within the five factor model and is deemed adjustment. In general it refers to ones ability to remain calm and composed, and free from worry in situations that may induce stress and has alternatively been labelled “emotional stability, negative emotionality, and worrying” (MacNab & Baker, 2001, p.7). Under the current taxonomy, self control and stress tolerance are seen as the primary constructs that inform this factor.

Achievement Orientation	Conscientiousness	Social Orientation	Practical Intelligence	Adjustment
Ambition	Persistence	Teamwork	Innovation	Self-Control
Initiative	Attention to Detail	Concern for Others	Analytical Thinking	Stress Tolerance
Flexibility	Rule-Following			
Energy	Dependability	Outgoing		
Leadership		Democratic		

Table A: Summary of WPI Scales

Within the current study, it is suggested that an individual's degree of homogeneity across these five constructs with the prevailing environment (namely, the modal personality) will inform one's level of organisational commitment and the degree to which the individual may leave the organisation (intention to turnover). In doing so, the previously neglected aspect of Schneider's ASA model, attrition, shall be investigated. It is suggested that individuals who differ from the majority personality type (the modal personality) shall exhibit lower levels of organisational commitment and higher levels of intention to turnover.

1.5 Rationale, Research Aims and Research Question

1.5.1 Rationale

Employee turnover has proved to be an issue of central importance within modern organisations. Not only does such action effect an organisation's ability to retain talent – a central aspect of the modern organisation's competitive advantage (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004), but also results in added expenses for organisations due to recruitment and training costs (Loi, Hang-yue and Folley, 2006). Research pertaining to employee turnover whilst numerous and varies, has failed to incorporate a central individual characteristic that may add further depth to this extensive body of knowledge, namely, personality (Ryan & Kirstof-Brown, 2003).

Ryan & Kirstof-Brown (2003) argue that research aimed at understanding the role of personality within the framework of Person-Organisation fit, where incongruence may lead to employee turnover, remains decisively absent. Whilst “personality defines how a person prefers to behave” (Ryan & Kirstof-Brown, 2003, p.22) and may thus be related to several organisational outcomes, it remains one of the least explored notions within Organisational Psychology. The current study aims to fill this gap by investigating whether or not incongruence (Person-Organisation misfit) between an individual's personality profile and that of the organisation, is related to the likelihood of employee turnover.

In doing so, the current research aims to provide support for Schneider's (1987) modal of Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) which explains the way in which homogeneity of personality profiles, and thus the formation of an organisational personality ('modal personality'), occurs within organisations. Specifically, the current research aims to address a previously neglected aspect of Schneider's (1987) modal, namely, Attrition. It is this aspect of the ASA modal which places personality within the context of Person-Organisation fit.

The rationale for the research is thus two – fold. In general, there appears to be a lack of investigation in relation to the nature of personality under the banner of Person-Organisation fit as well as a lack of empirical evidence that supports the notion of attrition as a function of person-organisation misfit. The current study aims to place personality as a central variable around which misfit may occur whilst, in doing so, providing empirical testing of Schneider’s (1987) model of personality homogeneity.

1.5.2 Research Aims

There are essentially two aims to the current research. Firstly, of specific concern is whether or not there is sufficient evidence to support the notion of a modal personality. To this extent, the aim of the current research would be to determine whether or not a particular personality profile could be said to characterize the majority of a sample from an organization (thus indicating the presence of a ‘modal personality’). Secondly, the current research aims to explore whether deviation from (or incongruence with) that modal personality is related to lower levels of organisational commitment and higher levels of intention to turnover. This second aim is essentially focused upon whether or not attrition in relation to personality profiles occurs.

1.5.3 Research Questions

Is there a relationship between deviation from a majority personality profile and, low levels of organisational commitment and high levels of intention to turnover?

Sub-questions

1. Is there a one personality profile that could be said to describe the majority of an organisational sample (Is there evidence of a modal personality)?
2. Do individuals whose personality profiles match the modal personality of the organization display lower levels of intention to turnover and higher levels of organisational commitment than individuals who differ from the modal personality?

CHAPTER TWO:

RESEARCH METHOD

2.1 Introduction

The aim of the following chapter is to outline the research method employed during the study. This will include a description of the sample and data gathering procedure utilised, the research design, the instruments used to obtain information from participants and the statistical procedures used to analyse the data.

2.2 Sample and Procedure

The sample for the current study was obtained from volunteers from a Johannesburg-based national organisation and numbered 101 white-collar workers. The participants of the current study, along with the organisation to which they belong, were firstly briefed, through the use of a consent letter that was distributed throughout the organisation, about the intention of the current study. Individuals, whom consented to participate, were requested to fill in the work personality index (WPI), the Intention to Turnover scale and the Organisational Commitment Scale. These questionnaires were distributed during several sessions consisting of 10-20 people that were organized over a 3 month period. Along with these questionnaires, individuals were requested to complete a demographics questionnaire for the purpose of describing the sample.

With regards to the demographic characteristics of the sample, the majority of the sample is female (75.25%) with males making up the 24.75% of the sample. In terms of race, the majority of the sample is White (52.48%), followed by African (23.76%), Indian (11.88) and Coloured (10.89), respectively. The educational qualifications of individuals within the sample were too recorded with 47.52% having completed a Matric only, 30.69% a diploma, 10.89% a tertiary degree, 5.94% a post-graduate diploma and 4.95% a post-graduate degree. The mean age of the sample is 34.1 years with a standard deviation of 10.8 and the mean tenure is 6.3 years with a standard deviation of 7.9. The information discussed above is summarized in Table One and Table Two below.

Table One: Summary Statistics

	<u>Number (N)</u>	<u>Percentage (%)</u>
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	25	24.75
Female	76	75.25
Total	101	100
<u>Race</u>		
African	24	23.76
White	54	52.48
Indian	12	11.88
Coloured	11	10.89
Total	101	100
<u>Educational Level</u>		
Matric	48	47.52
Diploma	31	30.69
Tertiary Degree	11	10.89
Post-Graduate Diploma	6	5.94
Post-Graduate Degree	w5	4.95
Total	101	100

Table Two: Summary Cont.	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>
Age	34.1	10.8
Tenure	6.3	7.9

2.3 Instruments:

2.3.1 Work Personality Index

The instrument that was used to assess personality was that of the **Work Personality Index** (Macnab & Bakker, 2001). This assessment tool is a 153-item likert-type based scale with items ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” (Macnab & Bakker, 2001, p.20). The

items are designed to measure 17 work-related personality traits where alpha coefficients have previously been shown to range .70 to .89 across the 17 traits. Subsequent analysis of the WPI has further indicated a Five-factor solution with such factors including Achievement Orientation, Conscientiousness, Social Orientation, Practical Intelligence and Adjustment (Macnab & Bakker, 2001).

Within the current study, such high reliabilities were not replicated for all the scales. Table 3 (below) summarises the reliability scores obtained for each scale with those scales where the reliabilities are insufficient highlighted. As can be seen, whilst all the other scales obtained scores that exceeded .70, the Democratic, Analytical Thinking, Dependability and Ambition scales have reliabilities that can be considered unsuitable. These scales, thus, were excluded from the analysis.

Table 3: Reliability Scores for WPI sub-scales

	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Std. Deviation
Concern for others	.756	5.73	1.63
Teamwork	.705	5.90	1.77
Democratic	.528	5.71	1.83
Outgoing	.758	5.92	1.76
Innovation	.774	5.34	1.50
Analytical Thinking	.557	5.04	1.54
Dependability	.660	6.34	1.51
Attention to Detail	.681	6.84	1.39
Persistence	.746	7.05	1.47
Rule-following	.834	7.00	1.99
Ambition	.661	6.04	1.72
Flexibility	.753	5.65	1.92
Initiative	.725	6.01	1.75
Energy	.766	6.49	1.67
Leadership	.813	5.14	1.71
Stress Tolerance	.724	6.51	1.75
Self-control	.761	6.05	1.97

2.3.2 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment, within the current study, was assessed using Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1982) **Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**. This scale is a 15-item, 7-point Likert scale where responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

In a review of 90 studies, Morrow (1993) noted that the internal consistency reliabilities for the OCQ were, on average, reported at .88. Similar reliabilities have been found for South African samples with Barling and Bluen (1987) reporting a reliability coefficient of .87, with a test-retest reliability of .84, whilst similarly, Laher (2001) reporting a reliability of .90. Within the current study, a Cronbach's Alpha of .89 was obtained.

2.3.3 Intention to Turnover

Intention to leave the organisation was measured using the **Intention to Turnover Scale (ITS)**. The scale consists of three items with responses ranging from “Not at all likely” to “Extremely likely”. The scale score for the ITS is obtained by calculating the mean score across the three items. Previous analysis of the reliability of the ITS upon South African samples have yielded coefficients of .90 and .94 (Mouyis, 2002) whilst Cook et al (1981) noted a reliability of .83 in a sample of over 400 (as cited in Mouyis, 2002).

In the present study, the reliability of the ITS was found to be .89. It should, however, be kept in mind that the ITS only has 3 items and the reliability of scales with ten items or less is not always meaningful. Thus, whilst a coefficient of .89 is usually indicative of sound psychometric properties, such properties may not extend to the ITS. Yet, if one were to develop an extended version of an intention to leave scale, the possibility of including redundant questions would likely be high.

2.4 Research Design:

Research design, according to Tang and Kim (2000), refers to the strategies, processes and plans utilised by the researcher in the process of addressing a research question. Said alternatively, research design refers to the “overall scheme of the research process from problem identification, definition and specification, to evaluation and dissemination of findings” (Trice, 1982, p. 198). The research design utilised in the present study was one of a non-experimental, correlational, ex post-facto cross-sectional design.

Correlational designs, according to Singleton, Straits and Straits (1993), are the most common form of non-experimental designs. This form of design is utilised to describe the relationship between dependant and independent variables (Dooley, 1995). The cross-sectional nature of the research design refers to the notion that the variables are measured or observed at one point of

time. The association between the various variables within the current research is thus viewed as signifying such a relationship at one juncture in time (Bailey, 1982).

It should, however, be noted that due to the non-experimental and cross-sectional nature of the current design, no causal inferences can be made (Neale & Liebert, 1987). Such designs lack a control group and manipulation of the variables, disallowing the opportunity of inferring causal relationships. Furthermore, this design can be described as ex post-facto, as none of the variables of interests within the research are under the control of the researcher (Kerlinger, 1988).

2.5 Analysis:

In the following section, the statistical tools with which the data was analysed are described. The analysis of the data effectively occurred in the three steps. The first step addressed the scales utilised with regards to the reliability of the scales and the extent to which responses upon the scales are affected by the demographic variables of the participants. The second step within the analysis process was aimed at addressing the first research question namely, “Is there a one personality profile that could be said to describe the majority of an organisational sample (Is there evidence of a modal personality)?” The third and final step in the analysis process was aimed at addressing the second research question which asked, “Do individuals whose personality profiles match the modal personality of the organisation display lower levels of intention to turnover and higher levels of organisational commitment than individuals who differ from the modal personality?” These steps are described in more detail in the sections that follow.

2.5.1 Analysis relating to scales

The first step in the analysis process involved obtaining a measure of the reliabilities of the scales utilised in the research. The reliability of a scale, according to Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) refers to the degree to which a measure can be said to be consistent and stable. In effect, analyzing the reliability of a measure examines heterogeneity/homogeneity of the variable (Mouyis, 2002) and in the current study is measured with an alpha coefficient. Alpha coefficients

of .70 or higher, in the present study, were deemed acceptable. Scales that failed to obtain this level were excluded from subsequent analyses.

The scales were also analysed with regards to whether differences between the various demographic groups existed in terms of how these groups answered the various scales. This involved utilizing t-test to examine gender differences and One-Way Anova tests to examine whether racial based differences exist.

2.5.2 Analysis relating to research questions

The data collected from the three scales was analyzed in a two step process. Firstly, cluster analysis was used to identify possible personality profiles within the organisation. Such cluster analysis is aimed not only at identify the most frequent profile (modal personality) but other profiles that are present within the organisation too. A hierarchical clustering method was used that allows one to view “the sequential cluster [that] continues until all the objects merge into a single undifferentiated group” (Kachigan, 1991, p.270). Using ANOVA, the commitment and intention to turnover scores of these different profiles were then analysed as a means of indicating whether a significant difference between the various profile’s scores exists.

2.6 Ethical Consideration:

Within the current study, all participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. In order to assure such anonymity, no individual was required to provide identifying information (for example name or staff number) and the only people that had access to the completed questionnaires were the researcher, the researcher’s supervisor and the research psychologists of Joppie van Royen (JvR) in return for the use of the WPI. Analysis of the data is presented at the group level allowing for no one individual to be identifiable. These steps were approved prior to commencement of data collection by an internal ethics committee. Upon being awarded the degree of Masters in Industrial Psychology, all raw data shall be destroyed. This anonymity is also meant to ensure that no participant will benefit or suffer as a result of participation or non-

participation in the current study. Participation in the research was purely voluntary and participants were provided with the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time. The results of the study will be made available to the organisation in the form of a précis of the research whilst a copy of the study will be available in the Cullen Library at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Chapter Three:

Analysis

3.1 Introduction

In the chapter that follows, the analysis of the data collected is presented in its various facets. As discussed in the methodology (Chapter 2), the analysis can be viewed in terms of two sections, with the first section pertaining to the measures utilised in the study and the second to the specific research questions outlined previously.

3.2 Analysis related to scales

Having conducted an analysis of the reliability of the various scales (see Chapter 2), the first point of call was to determine whether gender and race differences could be found in how participants completed the various scales utilised in the study. Thus, in the section below the results of t-tests (conducted to analyze possible genders differences) and One-way Analysis of Variance tests (conducted to analyze possible race differences) are reported for the various scales.

3.2.1 Work Personality Index

3.2.1.1 Gender Differences (2-sample t-test)

With regards to whether or not gender-based differences could be found in the various sub-scales of the WPI, T-tests in this case revealed that differences existed between women and men for the subscales of Stress Tolerance ($t_{99} = -2.44$; $p = 0.02$), Self-Control ($t_{99} = -2.89$; $p = 0.005$) and Teamwork ($t_{99} = -2.58$; $p = 0.01$). For the Stress tolerance subscale, the mean score for men was equal to 6.68 ($sd = 1.77$) whilst for women the mean score was 5.64 ($sd = 1.72$). In this case, as with the other two subscales, men tended to score higher on these scales than their female counterparts. For the Self-Control subscale $x_m = 7$ ($sd = 1.82$) whilst $x_f = 5.74$ ($sd = 1.92$), and for Teamwork $x_m = 6.68$ ($sd = 1.77$) whilst $x_f = 5.64$ ($sd = 1.73$).

Table Four: T-test for gender differences - WPI

	Degrees of freedom	t-statistic	p-score
Concern for others	99	1.47	0.15
Teamwork	99	-2.58	0.01*
Outgoing	99	-1.05	0.30
Innovation	99	-1.80	0.08
Persistence	99	-1.22	0.22
Rule-following	99	1.72	0.09
Flexibility	99	0.08	0.94
Initiative	99	-0.23	0.89
Energy	99	-0.67	0.50
Leadership	99	-0.47	0.64
Stress Tolerance	99	-2.44	0.02*
Self-control	99	-2.89	0.005*

*significant at 0.05

Table Five: Summary Statistics of WPI subscales according to gender

gender	N Obs	Variable	Mean	Std Dev
F	76	Concern for Others	5.8684211	1.5945081
		Energy	6.4210526	1.5514566
		Flexibility	5.6447368	1.9711516
		Initiative	5.9868421	1.7625241
		Innovation	5.1842105	1.5380553
		Leadership	5.0921053	1.8123843
		Outgoing	5.8157895	1.8015588

gender	N Obs	Variable	Mean	Std Dev
		Persistence	6.9473684	1.4037544
		Rule-Following	7.1842105	1.9507983
		Self-Control	5.7368421	1.9208916
		Stress Tolerance	6.2763158	1.5798623
		Teamwork	5.6447368	1.7259119
m	25	Concern for Others	5.3200000	1.7009801
		Energy	6.6800000	2.0149442
		Flexibility	5.6800000	1.7962925
		Initiative	6.0800000	1.7301252
		Innovation	5.8000000	1.2909944
		Leadership	5.2800000	1.4000000
		Outgoing	6.2400000	1.6145175
		Persistence	7.3600000	1.6299284
		Rule-Following	6.4000000	2.0412415
		Self-Control	7.0000000	1.8257419
		Stress Tolerance	7.2400000	2.0672042
		Teamwork	6.6800000	1.7729448

3.2.1.2 Race Differences (One-way Analysis of Variance)

In order to determine whether or not differences, with regards to how the various race groups present in the sample answered the subscales, were present, tests of one-way analysis of variance (and the accompanying tests for homogeneity of variance) were conducted. The results of the ANOVA's – having met the requirement for homogeneity of variance (see table seven) – suggested that differences could be found between the various race groups for the sub-scales of Teamwork ($F_{3,95} = 4.6$; $p = 0.005$) and Self-control ($F_{3,95} = 3.26$; $p = 0.02$). Post-hoc tests for Teamwork revealed that Indians (3) scored significantly higher than both Whites (2) and Africans (1) where the differences between the means in both cases, was 1.9167. No differences were found between Coloureds (4) and any of the other race groups (see table eight).

In terms of the Self-control subscale, post-hoc tests indicated that differences can be found between Africans and Whites with $x_A - x_W = 1.2454$. Said otherwise, for the sub-scale of Self-control African participants generally scored higher than their white counterparts where the difference between the means was 1.2454 (see table 9).

Table Six: ANOVA for race - WPI

	Degrees of freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Concern for others	3, 95	1.14	0.34
Teamwork	3, 95	4.6	0.005*
Outgoing	3, 95	1.21	0.31
Innovation	3, 95	1.48	0.26
Persistence	3, 95	0.43	0.73
Rule-following	3, 95	0.18	0.91
Flexibility	3, 95	0.52	0.67
Initiative	3, 95	1.57	0.20
Energy	3, 95	1.14	0.34
Leadership	3, 95	0.76	0.52
Stress Tolerance	3, 95	0.58	0.63
Self-control	3, 95	3.26	0.02*

Table Seven: Levene's Test for homogeneity of variance - WPI

	Degrees of freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Concern for others	3, 95	1.84	0.15
Teamwork	3, 95	1.15	0.33
Outgoing	3, 95	0.47	0.71
Innovation	3, 95	0.65	0.58
Persistence	3, 95	0.53	0.66
Rule-following	3, 95	0.89	0.45
Flexibility	3, 95	1.07	0.37
Initiative	3, 95	0.21	0.89
Energy	3, 95	0.65	0.58
Leadership	3, 95	1.10	0.35
Stress Tolerance	3, 95	0.27	0.84
Self-control	3, 95	1.39	0.52

Table Eight: Post-hoc test for Team Work

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by ***.				
Race Comparison	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Limits	95% Confidence	
3 - 4	1.3611	-0.6339	3.3561	
3 - 1	1.9167	0.3171	3.5162	***
3 - 2	1.9167	0.4728	3.3605	***
4 - 3	-1.3611	-3.3561	0.6339	
4 - 1	0.5556	-1.2128	2.3239	
4 - 2	0.5556	-1.0734	2.1845	
1 - 3	-1.9167	-3.5162	-0.3171	***
1 - 4	-0.5556	-2.3239	1.2128	
1 - 2	0.0000	-1.1099	1.1099	
2 - 3	-1.9167	-3.3605	-0.4728	***
2 - 4	-0.5556	-2.1845	1.0734	
2 - 1	0.0000	-1.1099	1.1099	

Table Nine: Post-hoc test for Self-control

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by ***.				
Race Comparison	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Limits	95% Confidence	
4 – 1	0.1250	-1.8287	2.0787	
4 – 3	0.8333	-1.3708	3.0374	
4 – 2	1.3704	-0.4293	3.1700	
1 – 4	-0.1250	-2.0787	1.8287	
1 – 3	0.7083	-1.0589	2.4755	
1 – 2	1.2454	0.0191	2.4716	***
3 – 4	-0.8333	-3.0374	1.3708	
3 – 1	-0.7083	-2.4755	1.0589	
3 – 2	0.5370	-1.0582	2.1322	
2 – 4	-1.3704	-3.1700	0.4293	
2 – 1	-1.2454	-2.4716	-0.191	***
2 – 3	-0.5370	-2.1322	1.0582	

3.2.1.3: Conclusion of WPI analysis

In the section above, it was found that gender differences existed for three of the WPI subscales, namely Teamwork, Stress Tolerance and Self control, and race-based differences existed in two of the subscales, namely, Teamwork and Self-control. So as to avoid including scales that may contain bias (be it in relation to race or gender) and to ensure that any differences found could be solely attributed to the personality traits of individuals, the subscales discussed above were excluded from any further analysis. The subscales that remained are presented below along with their summary statistics and include Concern for Others, Energy, Flexibility, Initiative, Innovation, Leadership, Outgoing, Persistence and Rule Following.

Table Ten: Summary Stats for WPI

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum	N
Concern for Others	5.73	1.63	1	9	101
Energy	6.48	1.67	2	10	101
Flexibility	5.65	1.92	1	10	101
Initiative	6.01	1.75	1	10	101
Innovation	5.34	1.50	1	9	101
Leadership	5.14	1.71	1	10	101
Outgoing	5.92	1.76	1	10	101
Persistence	7.05	1.46	2	10	101
Rule-Following	6.99	1.99	1	10	101

3.2.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

3.2.2.1 Gender Differences (2-sample t-test)

In order to whether or not gender bias existed in the OCQ, and thus, whether or not the scale was suitable to use in the current study, a two sample t-test was conducted. Results indicated ($t_{99} = 1.08$; $p = 0.29$) that we fail to reject the null hypothesis ($\mu_m = \mu_f$) and can therefore conclude that no gender differences can be found for the OCQ.

Table Eleven: T-test for gender differences - OCQ

	Degrees of Freedom	t-statistic	p-score
OCS	99	1.08	0.29

3.2.2.2 Race Differences (One-way Analysis of Variance)

As was the case with the WPI, a One-way ANOVA was conducted, along with Levene's test for homogeneity of variance, so as to ascertain whether or not race-based differences were present. The results of the Levene's Test indicated the homogeneity of variance was present and that the ANOVA could justifiably be used. For the OCS no race-based differences were found ($F_{3,95} = 0.45$; $p = 0.72$) to exist suggesting the OCS could be used safe from racial bias.

Table Twelve: ANOVA for race differences - OCQ

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
OCS	3, 95	0.45	0.72

Table Thirteen: Levene's Test for homogeneity of variance - OCQ

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
OCS	3, 95	0.63	0.59

3.2.3 Intention to Turnover

3.2.3.1 Gender Differences (2-sample t-test)

The analysis conducted on the ITT scale yielded similar results as to the analysis conducted on the OCS. In the case of gender differences none were found to be present with $t_{99} = -0.92$ ($p = 0.36$). The scale was thus deemed suitable for the research.

Table Fourteen: T-test for gender differences - ITT

	Degrees of Freedom	t-statistic	p-score
ITT	99	-0.92	0.36

3.2.3.2 Race Differences (One-way Analysis of Variance)

In terms of race-based differences, the trend set in analysis of the OCS data follows in that no race-based differences were noted in the participants' responses and homogeneity of variance

was present. In this case, $F_{3,95} = 0.49$ ($p = 0.69$), the scale was too considered suitable for use within the current study.

Table Fifteen: ANOVA for race differences - ITT

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
ITT	3, 95	0.49	0.69

Table Sixteen: Levene's Test for homogeneity of variance - ITT

	F-statistic	p-score
ITT	0.11	0.95

3.3 Analysis related to Research Questions

As was mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, the analysis of the data within the current study can be viewed in terms of two sections. In the previous section the analyses pertaining to the various scales employed were described; in the section that follows, the focus shifts to addressing the specific research questions outlined earlier. As such, it is worthwhile to revisit these questions:

1. Is there a one personality profile that could be said to describe the majority of an organisational sample (Is there evidence of a modal personality)?
2. Do individuals whose personality profiles match the modal personality of the organisation display lower levels of intention to turnover and higher levels of organisational commitment than individuals who differ from the modal personality?

The analyses used to address these questions, along with any concurrent analyses required, are presented below. These include the cluster analysis directed at addressing research question one and the kruskal-wallis test employed for research question two. Whilst the original intention was to use an analysis of variance test in relation to the second research questions, the reasons for opting for the non-parametric equivalent are presented in the relevant section.

3.3.1 Analyses pertaining to Research Question One

As was determined in Section 3.1.1, nine of the personality index sub-scales were deemed appropriate for use in the current study. These nine sub-scales were analyzed using a cluster analysis to determine whether or not a certain personality profile could be said to dominate the sample obtained. The section that follows presents the various facets of the cluster analysis by firstly, describing the cluster formation history and cubic clustering criteria, and secondly, by describing the various groups these tools suggest are present within the sample.

Clustering History and Cubic Clustering Criteria

In the section that follows rather than providing a full account of the cluster formation history, one example is utilised to illustrate the process by which one can track such a history. This is necessitated by desire to avoid excessive repetition that would otherwise accompany such a process. The full clustering history is presented in table seventeen (and visually represented in table eighteen) whilst the example described below serves to illustrate the process by which such a table is read. Following this, the history of the most likely clusters said to describe the sample are presented along with the results of the cubic clustering criteria.

Example One

The first cluster formed in the analysis occurred by joining cluster 72 and cluster 48 at a height of 0.8038 to form cluster 30 ($n = 6$). Cluster 30 subsequently joined with cluster 47 to form cluster 22 ($n = 10$) at a height 0.9131. Cluster 11 ($n = 16$) later formed at a height of 1.155, when

cluster 22 joined with cluster 27, and went on to form cluster 6 (n = 50) at a height of 1.5881 when it (cluster 11) joined with cluster 7. Cluster's 6 subsequent combination with cluster 5 at a height of 2.0004 resulted in the formation of cluster 3 (n = 78). Cluster 3, when joined with cluster 4 at a height of 2.0671, resulted in cluster 2 (n = 90). With the combination of cluster 2 to cluster 8 at a height of 2.662, the entire sample (n = 101) is accounted for.

Table Seventeen: Cluster History

Cluster History											
NCL	Clusters Joined		FREQ	SPRSQ	RSQ	ERSQ	CCC	PSF	PST2	Norm Max Dist	T i e
30	CL72	CL48	6	0.0063	.795	.	.	9.5	2.5	0.8038	T
29	CL63	CL55	5	0.0045	.790	.	.	9.7	2.0	0.8038	
28	CL81	CL45	6	0.0094	.781	.	.	9.6	4.8	0.8541	T
27	CL40	CL59	6	0.0089	.772	.	.	9.6	3.1	0.8541	T
26	CL41	96	4	0.0072	.765	.	.	9.8	2.1	0.8541	
25	CL38	84	5	0.0072	.758	.	.	9.9	2.7	0.8662	
24	CL34	CL79	9	0.0083	.749	.	.	10.0	3.3	0.8782	T
23	CL52	93	3	0.0076	.742	.	.	10.2	2.3	0.89	
22	CL30	CL47	10	0.0085	.733	.	.	10.3	2.7	0.9131	T
21	CL28	79	7	0.0082	.725	.	.	10.5	2.4	0.9131	

Cluster History											
NCL	Clusters Joined		FREQ	SPRSQ	RSQ	ERSQ	CCC	PSF	PST2	Norm Max Dist	T i e
20	CL51	CL39	7	0.0108	.714	.750	-3.6	10.6	3.6	0.9244	
19	CL29	CL26	9	0.0119	.702	.741	-3.5	10.7	3.3	0.9467	
18	CL36	CL20	19	0.0134	.689	.731	-3.7	10.8	4.1	1.0002	
17	CL21	CL43	11	0.0119	.677	.721	-3.8	11.0	3.2	1.0106	
16	CL49	CL37	13	0.0145	.662	.710	-4.0	11.1	5.6	1.031	
15	CL18	CL24	28	0.0208	.642	.698	-4.6	11.0	5.7	1.09	T
14	CL25	86	6	0.0133	.628	.686	-4.6	11.3	3.5	1.09	
13	6	CL53	4	0.0102	.618	.673	-4.4	11.9	3.7	1.1089	
12	CL31	CL44	6	0.0111	.607	.659	-4.1	12.5	3.0	1.1183	T
11	CL22	CL27	16	0.0218	.585	.644	-4.1	12.7	5.7	1.155	T
10	CL17	CL16	24	0.0207	.564	.627	-4.3	13.1	5.1	1.2993	
9	CL12	CL33	9	0.0250	.539	.609	-4.7	13.5	4.8	1.3153	
8	CL32	CL19	11	0.0213	.518	.588	-4.7	14.3	4.5	1.3997	
7	CL14	CL15	34	0.0483	.470	.564	-6.2	13.9	10.7	1.5073	
6	CL11	CL7	50	0.0502	.420	.536	-7.5	13.7	9.0	1.5881	
5	CL10	CL13	28	0.0371	.382	.502	-7.0	14.9	7.7	1.665	T

Cluster History											
NCL	Clusters Joined		FREQ	SPRSQ	RSQ	ERSQ	CCC	PSF	PST2	Norm Max Dist	T i e
4	CL9	CL23	12	0.0386	.344	.458	-6.0	16.9	5.3	1.696	
3	CL5	CL6	78	0.1251	.219	.396	-7.8	13.7	19.8	2.0004	
2	CL4	CL3	90	0.0754	.143	.269	-5.4	16.6	9.3	2.0671	
1	CL2	CL8	101	0.1434	.000	.000	0.00	.	16.6	2.662	

Table Eighteen: Tree Diagram

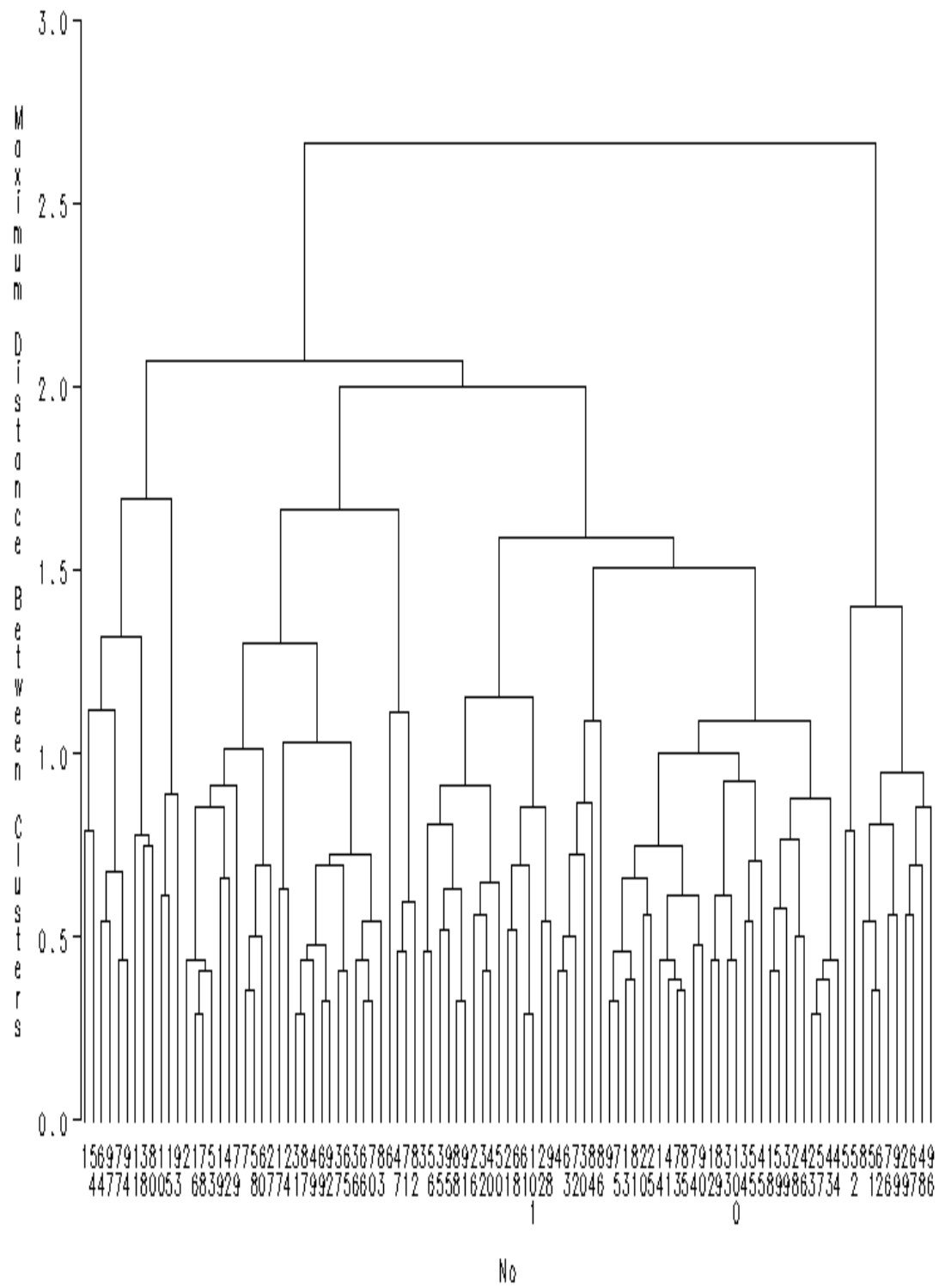
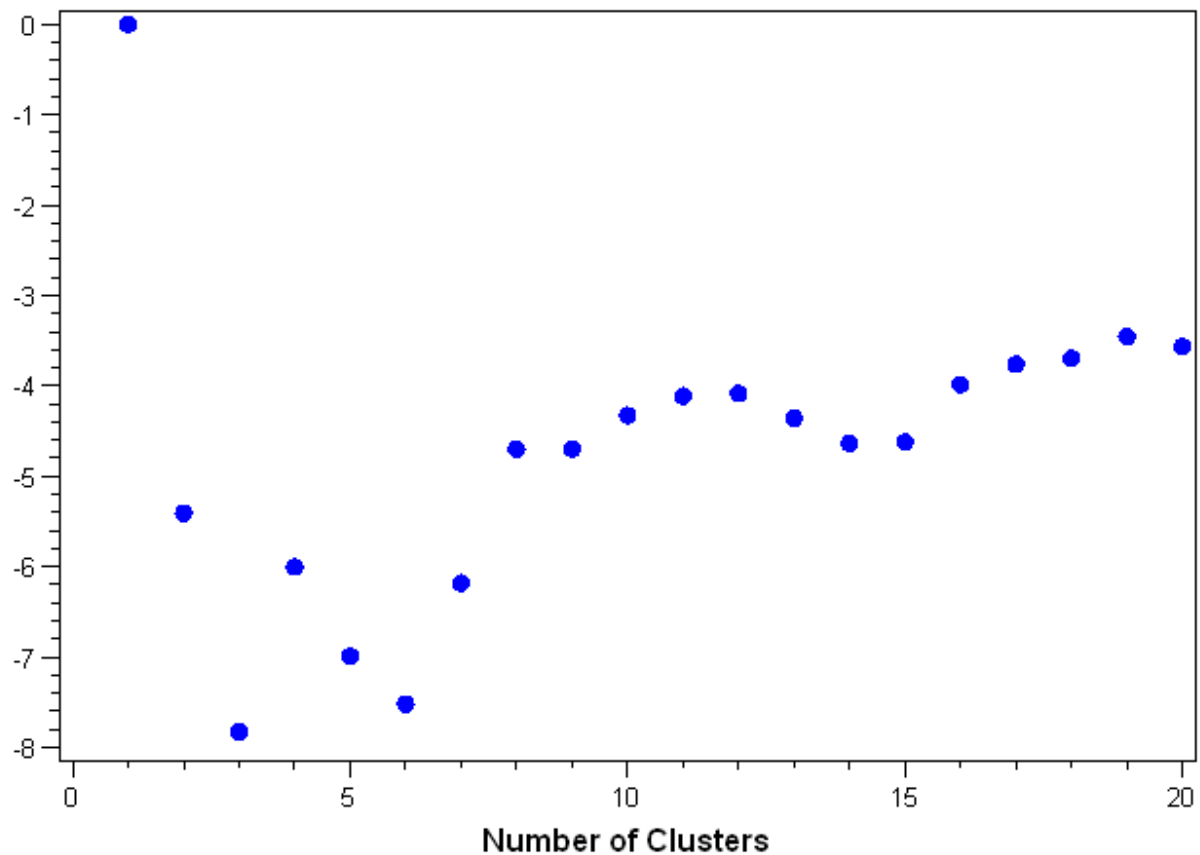


Table Nineteen: CCC

Cubic Clustering Criterion



The Cubic Clustering Criterion (see tables nineteen and twenty) serves a guide to the number of clusters that are likely to be present in the sample. The likeliest number of clusters is read by examining the lowest point on the graph, in this case 3 or 6 clusters could be said to characterize the sample. The 3 cluster solution was accepted in the current study as, at this level, the groups appeared to be more coherent. That is, the degree to which one can distinguish between the characteristics said to describe the clusters is most apparent when a 3 cluster solution is accepted.

The 3 clusters, thus, that can be said to represent the sample, are clusters 3 ($n = 78$), 4 ($n = 12$) and 8 ($n = 11$). This can be determined by examining the clustering history. Cluster 1 (the sample) can be separated into cluster 2 and 8. As cluster 2 ($h = 2.0671$) occurs at a higher height than cluster 8 ($h = 1.3997$), it is this cluster that is further broken up to acquire the 3 clusters

suggested by the CCC. Cluster 2, thus is separated to leave cluster 3, 4 and 8. Below, a summation of the clustering history of these clusters is presented in the form of formulae.

- Cluster 3 = Cl 81 + Cl 45 + Ob 79 + Cl 43 + Cl 16 + Cl 13 + Cl 6
- Cluster 4 = Cl 31 + Cl 44 + Cl 33 + Cl 23
- Cluster 8 = Cl 63 + Cl 55 + Cl 26 + Cl 32

With regards to the research question presented above, whether or not there is evidence to suggest a majority personality profile (a modal personality) is present within the sample, there does appear to evidence in confirmation that such a modal personality is present. This point, however, will be fully addressed in following chapter. What remains, at least with respect to the first research question, is a brief description of these clusters. Table Twenty-one provides a breakdown per cluster of the mean scores obtained for each sub-scale utilised in the analysis. The first group (cluster 3) tends to be characterized by average mean scores (the range being from a possible 0 to 10) across all the constructs, group two (cluster 4) by relatively high scores across the constructs (other then for Outgoing and Rule-following) and group 3 (cluster 8) tends to reflect low scores across the constructs (other then for Rule-following). The exact composition of these groups is discussed in further detail in the following chapter.

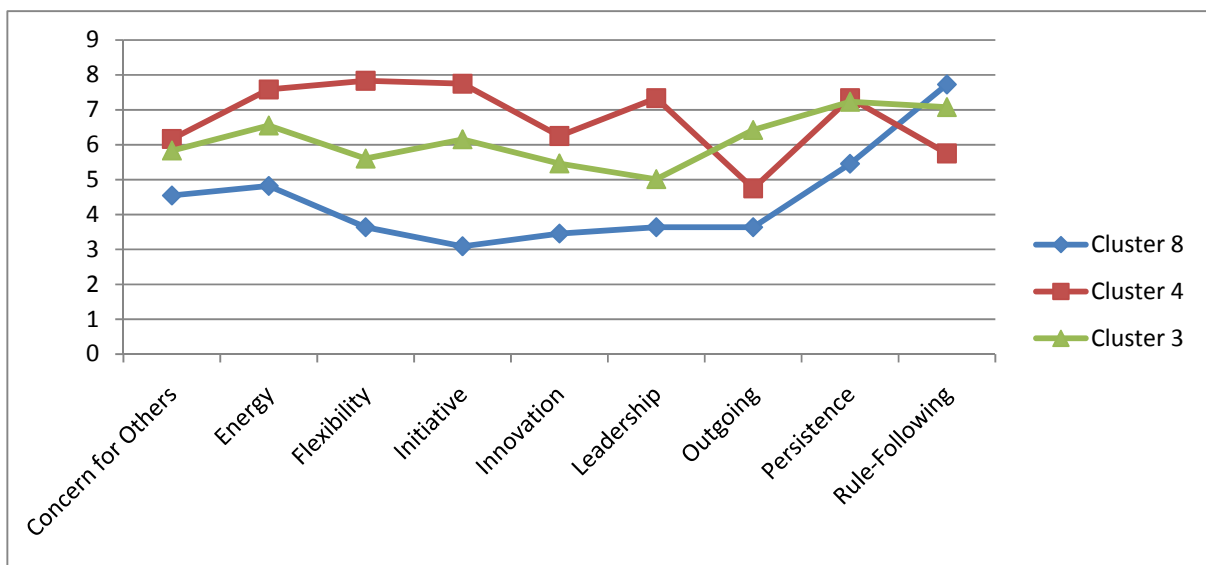


Table Twenty: Clusters by WPI subscales

In the section that follows, the results of the analyses pertaining to the second research question are presented. This section follows table twenty and twenty-two below.

Table Twenty-one: Cubic Clustering Criterion Cont.

Number of Clusters	Cubic Clustering Criterion
20	-3.56560962265703
18	-3.69648668605367
17	-3.7624603810546
16	-3.98648208441031
12	-4.08545318008581
19	-3.45758642134043
14	-4.63571759246425
15	-4.62314499605248
11	-4.11377253532881
7	-6.18332993796017
10	-4.32737065541681
13	-4.36061052625044
9	-4.69940932637755
5	-6.99322939073907
6	-7.52152579601996
4	-6.00488849579056
3	-7.8304214160434
2	-5.41213839053321
8	-4.70294935972872
1	0

Table Twenty-Two: Description of clusters

CLUSTER	N Obs	Variable	Mean	Std Dev
3	78	Concern for Others	5.8333333	1.5324767
		Energy	6.5512821	1.5428716
		Flexibility	5.6025641	1.6852280
		Initiative	6.1538462	1.3297488
		Innovation	5.4615385	1.4113851
		Leadership	5.0128205	1.4369303
		Outgoing	6.4230769	1.4640207
		Persistence	7.2307692	1.2579418
		Rule-Following	7.0769231	1.9524825

CLUSTER	N Obs	Variable	Mean	Std Dev
8	11	Concern for Others	4.5454545	1.2135598
		Energy	4.8181818	1.1677484
		Flexibility	3.6363636	1.0269106
		Initiative	3.0909091	1.4459976
		Innovation	3.4545455	1.2135598
		Leadership	3.6363636	1.3618170
		Outgoing	3.6363636	1.8040359
		Persistence	5.4545455	1.8090681
		Rule-Following	7.7272727	1.1037127

CLUSTER	N Obs	Variable	Mean	Std Dev
4	12	Concern for Others	6.1666667	2.1672493
		Energy	7.5833333	1.8319554
		Flexibility	7.8333333	1.8504709
		Initiative	7.7500000	1.2154311
		Innovation	6.2500000	0.7537784
		Leadership	7.3333333	1.7232809
		Outgoing	4.7500000	1.2880570
		Persistence	7.3333333	1.6143298
		Rule-Following	5.7500000	2.4541245

3.3.2 Analyses pertaining to Research Question Two

The second research questions presented within the current study, aims at examining whether or not the different groups (clusters) in the sample exhibit differing levels of Organisational Commitment and Intention to Turnover. Specifically, does the largest group (cluster 3 representative of the modal personality) display higher levels of organisational commitment and lower levels of intention to turnover?

3.3.2.1 Organisational Commitment

For organisational commitment, following the Levene's test for homogeneity for which no differences were found, a $F_{2,98} = 7.34$ ($p = 0.04$) was produced for the ANOVA test (table twenty-three). Accordingly, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a difference between the different clusters. In examining the post-hoc (table twenty-four) for organisational commitment it is clear that cluster 3 ($n = 78$) displays the highest level of organisational commitment ($x = 70.86$), followed by cluster 8 ($n = 11$) with a mean of 69.27 and then cluster 4 ($n = 12$) with a mean score of 57.25 for organisational commitment. However, no significant difference was found between cluster 3 and cluster 8 with both of these groups being significantly different from cluster 4.

Table Twenty-Three: ANOVA for Organisational Commitment

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Organisational Commitment	2,98	3.24	0.04

Table Twenty-Four: Levene's Test for homogeneity of variance – Organisational Commitment

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Organisational Commitment	2,98	0.91	0.4

Table Twenty-Five: Post-hoc test for Organisational Commitment

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by ***.				
CLUSTER Comparison	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous 95% Confidence Limits		
CL3 – CL8	1.586	-11.931	15.104	
CL3 – CL4	13.609	0.595	26.623	***
CL8 – CL3	-1.586	-15.104	11.931	
CL8 – CL4	12.023	-5.497	29.542	***
CL4 – CL3	-13.609	-26.623	-0.595	***
CL4 – CL8	-12.023	-29.542	5.497	***

3.3.2.2 Intention to Turnover

For intention to turnover, following the Levene's test for homogeneity for which no differences were found, a $F_{2,98} = 0.72$ ($p = 0.49$) was produced for the ANOVA test (table twenty-six). Accordingly, we fail to reject to the null hypothesis and can therefore conclude that, in terms of intention to turnover, no differences can be found between the various clusters.

Table Twenty-six: ANOVA for Intention to Turnover

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Organisational Commitment	2,98	0.72	0.49

Table Twenty-Seven: Levene's Test for homogeneity of variance – Intention to Turnover

	Degrees of Freedom	F-statistic	p-score
Organisational Commitment	2,98	1.74	0.18

3.3.2.3 Conclusion

To summarise, the analysis suggested the presence of the three clusters, whose organisational commitment and intention to turnover scores were compared. The results suggest that there is a difference in organisational commitment scores with Cluster 4 scoring much lower than the other two clusters. No differences between the clusters were found to be present for the intention to turnover scores. In the section that follows, a discussion of these results and the implications thereof are presented.

Chapter Four:

Discussion of Results

4.1 Introduction

In the chapter that follows, the results obtained from the analyses conducted are discussed. The first section provides a brief summary of the analyses conducted in relation to the scales utilised; whilst the remainder of the chapter is dedicated to addressing the results pertaining to the research questions, the implications of the findings both practical and theoretical, and the limitations that are present in the current study.

4.2 Summary of Results pertaining to Scales

The results pertaining to the scales are effectively spread across Chapter Two and Chapter Three and include the analyses of the reliabilities of the scales, examination of gender differences across the scales and examination of race differences across the scales. With regards to the reliabilities of the scales, it was found that four of the subscales in the WPI failed to obtain Cronbach's Alpha scores of above .70 namely, the Democratic, Analytical Thinking, Dependability and Ambition subscales. These subscales were considered unsuitable for the study and were thus excluded from any subsequent analyses. With regards to OCQ and the ITT, it was found that the Cronbach's Alpha scores were sufficiently high enough for one to conclude that these scales are reliable (taking into account the considerations discussed in relation to the ITT scale mentioned in Chapter 2).

With regards to gender and race differences, any scales for which differences were found were excluded from the study on the basis that these scales may contain bias, and exclusion of these scales would go some way to ensure that any differences found in subsequent analyses could be solely attributed to the personality traits of individuals. Gender and/or race differences were only found to be present for three of the WPI subscales, namely Teamwork, Stress Tolerance and Self-Control, whilst for the remaining WPI subscales, the OCQ and the ITT scales, no such differences were found – it was data from these scales that formed the basis of subsequent analyses. These subscales and scales included, from the WPI: Concern for Others, Energy,

Flexibility, Initiative, Innovation, Leadership, Outgoing, Persistence and Rule Following, as well as the OCQ and ITT scales.

4.3 Results and Discussion pertaining to Research Questions

As an initial point of call, it is useful to reconsider the research questions set out in the beginning of the study:

1. Is there a one personality profile that could be said to describe the majority of an organisational sample (Is there evidence of a modal personality)?
2. Do individuals whose personality profiles match the modal personality of the organisation display lower levels of intention to turnover and higher levels of organisational commitment than individuals who differ from the modal personality?

These questions were derived in order to test central aspects of Schneider's ASA model – a model that places importance on personality when notions of turnover, and indeed general organisational behaviour, are considered. The first research question is specifically aimed at addressing the notion that, through cycles of attraction and selection, organisations naturally tend towards the formation of a modal personality (Schneider, 1987, Schneider et al., 1995; Giberson, Resick & Dickson, 2005). Evidence for the attraction and selection aspects of Schneider's model, whilst not directly tested, can be inferred within the current study if it is found that such a modal personality is indeed present. Such evidence would suggest that the organisation had attracted specific types of personalities and that such individuals had been selected (employed by the organisation).

The cluster analysis conducted aimed to explore this notion. The results from the cluster analysis suggest the presence of three personality clusters within the organisational sample namely, Cluster 3 (n = 78), Cluster 4 (n = 12) and Cluster 8 (n = 11). Just over 77% of the sample can be characterized by the profile of Cluster 3 where scores across the nine subscales ranged between 5.01 and 7.23, with Persistence and Rule-following being amongst the highest scores. Given the logic that the modal personality of an organisation would be found by seeking out the most frequently observed personality profile, the fact that these Persistent-Rule followers characterize such a large proportion of the sample suggests that there is evidence to support the notion of a modal personality. Since Cluster 4 and Cluster 8 make up only 11.88% and 10.89% of the sample respectively, one may conclude that these are the “others” that Schneider’s ASA model contended would inevitably slip through the cracks. Cluster 4, the High-Energy Initiators (for sake of characterizing them) and Cluster 8 (the Low-Scorers) are made up of so few individuals within the sample that it is possible to answer the first research question in the affirmative; There is indeed, evidence to suggest the presence of modal personality – in this case, Cluster 3.

The second research question presented, sort specifically to address the notion of attrition that had otherwise been excluded from ASA research. Attrition, in short, refers to the notion that individuals who do not “fit” with the organisation will tend to leave, resulting in further convergence of personality types that remain within the organisation (Giberson et al., 2005; Schneider, 1987). In Chapter One it was suggested that such miss-fit would most likely occur along supplementary lines where individuals perceive incongruence between themselves and the environment based upon a lack of similarity. Since Schneider’s Model contends that “environments are a function of persons behaving in them, that is, $E = f[P, B]$ ” (Schneider, 1987, p. 438), incongruence can be said to present when an individual differs from the majority of others. Said otherwise, incongruence would exist when an individual’s personality profile differs from the modal personality identified. The current study sort to operationalise the notion of attrition through the constructs of organisational commitment and intention to turnover which have been shown to be predictors of employee turnover, where high levels of commitment and low levels of intention to turnover are expected to reduce the likelihood of turnover (Meyer, Becker and Vanderberghe, 2004; Griffeth & Shom, 1995). Thus, extending the notion of supplementary fit,

attrition could said to exist when individuals who do not fit into the modal personality display lower levels of organisational commitment and higher levels of intention to turnover.

Confirmation for the notion of attrition was only partially obtained in the current study. For organisational commitment a $F_{2,98} = 7.34$ ($p = 0.04$) was produced for the ANOVA test (table twenty-three). In examining the post-hoc (table twenty-four) for organisational commitment it is clear that cluster 3 ($n = 78$) displays the highest level of organisational commitment ($\bar{u} = 70.86$), followed by cluster 8 ($n = 11$) with a mean of 69.27 and then cluster 4 ($n = 12$) with a mean score of 57.25 for organisational commitment. However, no significant difference was found between cluster 3 and cluster 8 with both of these groups being significantly different from cluster 4. Schneider's predictions with regards to such commitment scores would, however, be slightly different. According to the concept of Attrition, all individuals who do not fall into the modal personality should experience incongruence and would thus be likely to display lower levels of commitment than the modal group. This was not the case. Cluster 4, the High-Energy Initiators, did display a vastly lower commitment score than Cluster 3 (the modal group), yet the difference between Cluster 3 and Cluster 8 was found to be non-significant. Thus, whilst there is a group outside the modal personality for whom organisational commitment scores are low enough so as to suggest Attrition may be at work, there is too a group outside the modal personality whose organisational commitment scores are relatively comparable to those of the modal group. The implications of finding a non-modal group for whom commitment scores are high will be discussed at a later stage in this chapter.

In terms of the second concept through which Attrition was operationalised, namely Intention to Turnover, no evidence was found to support the hypothesized predictions. As stated above, according to the ASA model, individuals outside of the modal group would be expected to display higher levels of intention to turnover than those within the group. For intention, however, a $F_{2,98} = 0.72$ ($p = 0.49$) was produced for the ANOVA test (table twenty-six). Accordingly, we fail to reject the null hypothesis and can therefore conclude that, in terms of intention to turnover, no differences can be found between the various clusters. Thus, within the current

study at least, the expected relationship between modal group membership and intention to turnover can not be said to be present.

There are several reasons why such results may have been obtained. Firstly, the very nature of the statistical tools utilised may have affected the results. Since a normal distribution of data was not found to be present for the ITT scale, the non-parametric equivalent of a one-way ANOVA was used. Such tests, however, whilst not relying on certain distribution assumptions and avoiding the problems that accompany the presence of extreme scores, lack the robustness of their parametric equivalents. With the sample size numbering just over 100 and group sizes relatively small, there is a possibility that true differences between the groups may be overlooked. Under such circumstances it may be the case that there is a difference between the clusters - especially when one considers that there is evidence to support the notion of attrition in the form of organisational commitment differences - that is hidden by sample restrictions. As Howell (2004) notes, “for a given set of data the parametric test is more likely to lead to rejection of a false null hypothesis than is the corresponding distribution-free [non-parametric] test” (p. 468). Had a larger sample been obtained, it may well be the case that differences between the clusters would be more readily visible.

Alternatively, one could accept the findings of the analysis and suggest that there is no difference between the groups with regards to intention to turnover. To do so, would require one to search for other explanations outside of methodological and statistical concerns. Research into the psychology of turnover in most instances has tended to follow the logic that “[w]hen outcomes are too low relative to the employee’s expectations, an employee becomes dissatisfied and motivated to leave the organisation, increasing his or her desirability of movement” (Harman, Lee, Mitchell, Felps & Owens, 2007, p. 51). Indeed the ASA model tends to suggest that such a process is likely. Individuals for whom incongruence is found to exist, that is, individuals who lie outside the modal personality, would be expected to receive less promotion opportunities or opportunities for growth in the organisation as they should be less likely to be selected from applicant pools. Harman et al (2007) further suggest that turnover is a “function of the extent of

this desirability combined with the perceived ease of movement” (p. 51). It is in this statement that the explanation of the findings in the current study may lie. If given the opportunity free of all restrictions, individuals outside the modal personality may very well leave the organisation – this eventuality is more probable in the case of the Cluster 4 where the commitment scores were found to be significantly lower than the other clusters. Yet individuals are not free from restrictions. A not so far fetched comment when considering the current economic climate! Although individuals may desire to leave the organisation, external restrictions (such as perceived availability of jobs) could still exceed the extent of desirability, thus reducing the intention to turnover.

Even when one considers more complicated models of turnover, the outcome of non-action is still possible, if not more likely. Lee and Mitchell (1994) propose a model of turnover whereby the decision to turnover, whilst sometimes a product of the desirability-ease of movement function discussed above, is more often than not based upon a standardized decision making process. This model, as discussed in Chapter One, views turnover as four-step decision making process initiated by some external stimulus (an offer of alternative employment, for example). This process is as follows: step one involves a comparison between the received information and one’s personal value system; at step two, comparisons are drawn considering one’s “trajectory image (the person’s set of goals that motivate job behaviour)”; step three sees individuals comparing the incoming information with a “strategic image (the behavioural tactics and strategies that the person believes are effective in attaining job-related goals)” (Harman et al., 2007, p. 51); and finally, having passed this screening test, the individual will then compare the incoming information with the status quo.

In the literature review it was suggested that incongruence with the modal personality could facilitate negotiation through all three initial stages of comparison but given the results one might conclude otherwise. Since no relationship was found to exist between cluster membership and intention to turnover, it is possible that non-membership (or membership) may not facilitate the decision making process as previously suggested. Alternatively, one can return to the above

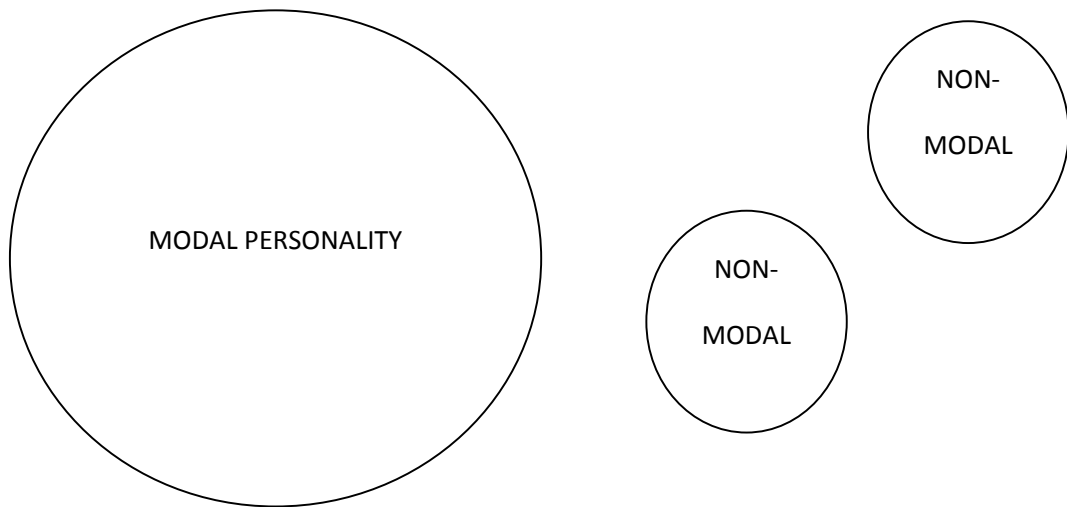
discussed conclusion whereby external restrictions inhibit one's ability to seek alternative employment. In Harman et al's (2007) construction of turnover, such would be viewed as reaching the decision that the status quo is more favourable than an alternative. It should, however, be noted that these proposed explanations were not tested in the current study (be it in the form of exit interviews or other mechanisms) and thus no definitive conclusions can be drawn. Whether or not the decision making process of turnover is facilitated by modal personality membership, at this stage remains in the domain of future research.

In conclusion of the discussion related to the second research question, whether or not Attrition is at work, at this stage remains ambiguous. Whilst it was found that individuals within modal personality group did display higher levels of organisational commitment, it was also found that there was a non-modal group for whom commitment scores were relatively comparable. But, despite these high commitment scores, no differences across the clusters were found to be present for intention to turnover. So what does this say for the ASA model? In the section that follows, the implications of these findings shall be discussed as they pertain to the ASA model.

4.4 Implications of the Findings

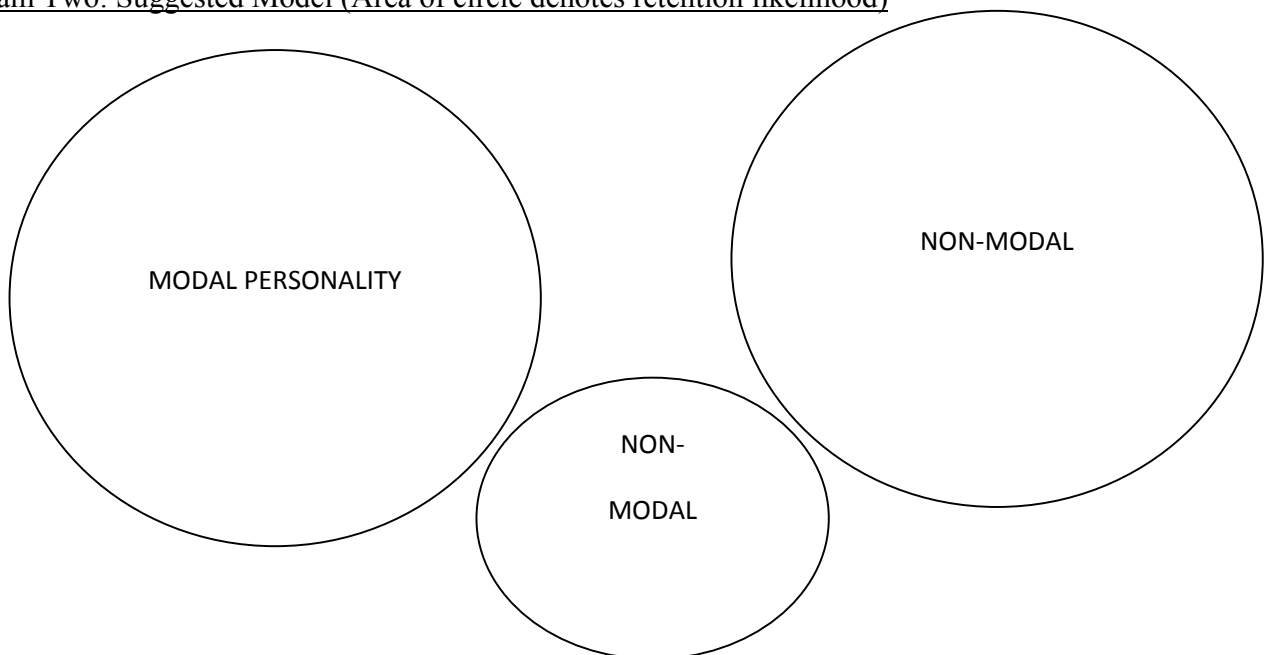
If one examines the ASA model, the picture that it paints is one that is relatively simplistic. Individuals who fall within the modal personality are likely to be attracted to an organisation, be selected by that organisation (presumably this would also apply to the internal situation too and could thus also be described as being afforded more resources by the organisation) and enjoy longer careers at the organisation. Individuals, who do not share a modal personality, are likely to experience supplementary incongruence and would thus, be more likely to leave.

Diagram One: ASA Model (Area of circle denotes retention likelihood)



The results in the current study however, may suggest that such a simplistic model may not sufficiently describe the true situation. The finding of a non-modal group for whom commitment scores are comparably high, suggests that the relationship described in Diagram One may be slightly more complex. The representation in Diagram Two describes the current study (noting that the area of the circle indicates retention likelihood and not group size).

Diagram Two: Suggested Model (Area of circle denotes retention likelihood)



In an effort to explain such findings, the researcher was initially drawn to theories of group dynamics in the search for sub-group processes that may provide insight. It, however, became apparent that thinking of the clusters in terms of groups is misleading. Whilst the term “group” has been used to identify the various clusters throughout the research, in truth, these clusters bare little resemblance to what we would otherwise term “groups”. Luft (1984, p. 2) defines a group as:

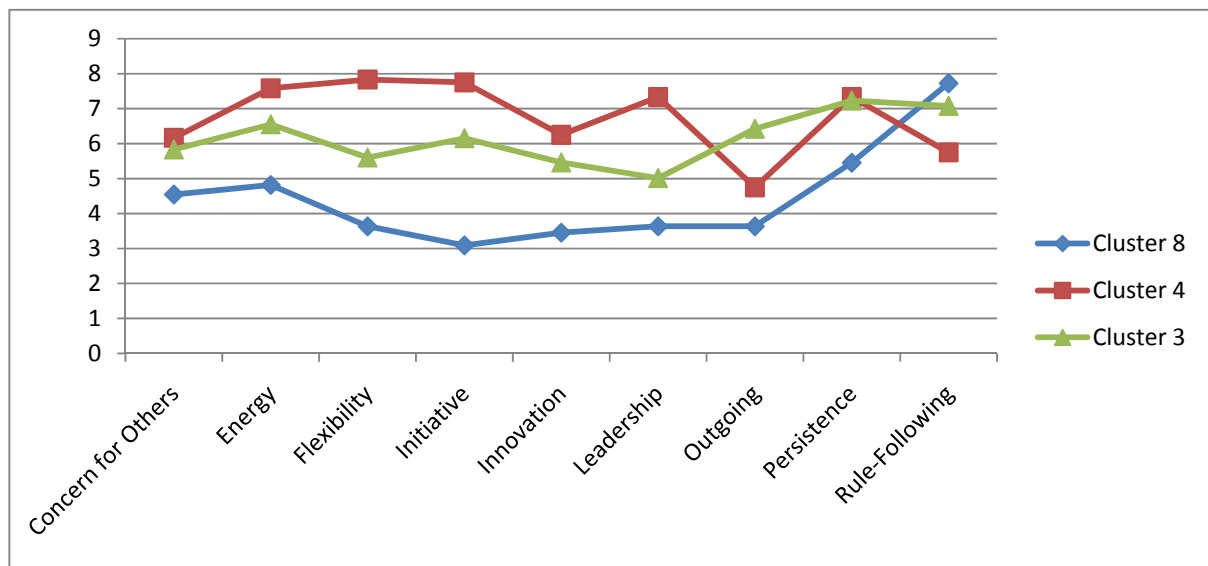
a living system, self-regulating through shared perception and interaction, sensing and feedback, and through interchange with the environment. Each group has unique wholeness qualities that become patterned by the way of members’ thinking, feeling, and communicating, into structured subsystems. The group finds some way to maintain balance while moving through progressive changes, creating its own guidelines and rules, and seeking its own goals through recurring cycles of interdependent behaviour” (as cited in Whelan, 2004, p. 1)

It would be difficult to argue that the personality clusters would have any of these group characteristics. To suggest that individuals would be actively aware of which cluster they fell within and would organize to resemble the above quoted characteristics seems a stretch of the imagination at least. Whilst similarity between individuals on personality characteristic may aid in social integration (O’Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989), minimize the chance of role conflict and ambiguity (Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989; Turban & Jones, 1988), increase trust between leaders and sub-ordinates (Bauer & Green, 1996) and increase the chances that individuals will interpret actions and environmental stimuli similarly (Engle & Lord, 1997), to suggest that such similarity can be equated to group membership does not seem reasonable. Accordingly, any attempt to describe Cluster 8 (the high commitment non-modal cluster) as some type of sub-group who share similar benefits to the modal cluster without falling within that cluster, would be misguided. Similar problems are encountered if one tries to frame Cluster 8 in terms of a sub-culture.

It appears to be more fruitful under such circumstances, to rather view the clusters as consisting of individuals who experience certain types of relationships with the environment where some types result in positive outcomes and others negative. The modal personality appears to be one such circumstance where positive outcomes are achieved, namely, high organisational commitment. Yet, as opposed to Schneider's predictions, falling outside this cluster does not necessarily result in negative outcomes as Cluster 8 too appears to be a positive outcome circumstance. It has already been suggested that the mechanism through which such positive outcomes are achieved, in the modal personality case, is the congruency experienced through supplementary fit. Cluster 8, however, could not experience such congruency as supplementary fit is based upon similarity with the environment. It could, therefore be argued that these individuals experience some form of complementary fit where "individuals' characteristics fill a gap in the current environment or vice versa" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 288). This "mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and the environment" (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987, p. 272) has been shown to exist when cases focused upon extraversion have been considered (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005a; Barrick et al, 1998; Barry & Stewart, 1997).

In the current study, individuals that fall within Cluster 8 do tend to have lower levels of outgoingness (a facet of extraversion) than those in Cluster 3 (the Modal cluster) – as seen in Table Twenty. It thus seems possible that the lack of introversion within the environment is offset by the presence of Cluster 8, allowing individuals within Cluster 8 to enjoy some degree of complementary fit. This complementary fit could explain the high levels of organisational commitment that were found for Cluster 8.

Table Twenty



The suggestion that the lower levels of outgoingness displayed by Cluster 8 may offset the high levels found in Cluster 3 can be based upon the findings of previous research, but there is little to guide one in terms of the other traits measured. Barry & Stewart (1997) have suggested that a complementary fit relationship is unique to extraversion, but this would suggest that individuals in Cluster 4 would be just as likely as those in Cluster 8 to experience complementary fit. This would suggest that the other traits are at least of some importance. It may be the case that the low levels across the other traits found for Cluster 8 fill some gaps that are present within the modal personality. The current research, however, did not test how individuals relate to their peers of a different personality cluster but rather focused on outcomes related to cluster membership. Accordingly, such conclusions remain speculation.

Regardless, the current study does seem to have some direct implications for the ASA model. The mere facts that other studies have found complementary fit to exist and that there appears to be preliminary evidence for such fit in the current study, suggests that Schneider's model is in some way incomplete. Congruence may not only exist for those within the modal personality, but can too be extended to those in other clusters that experience complementary fit with the modal

personality. This would suggest that there is a limit to the degree of homogeneity that can be present within the organisation as not falling within the modal personality does not negate the possibility of experiencing congruency. Accordingly the weight which Schneider accords the modal personality in determining organisational behaviour is slightly overestimated in that other personality clusters may produce similar behaviour. The role of a modal personality is not negated under such circumstances, but is seen as existing within a system of other possible clusters. Schneider's contestation that "environments are function of persons behaving in them, that is, $E = f[P,B]$ " (Schneider, 1987, p. 438), made still hold; but the types of people and behaviours predicted by Schneider may be more varied.

4.5 Practical Implications for Organisations

In general, the current study has stayed clear of making predictions with regards to the benefits (or lack there of) that finding a modal personality may entail – obviously excluding the hypothesized relationships with organisational commitment and intention to turnover suggested. This is partly due to the lack of referent studies that have incorporated personality as a point of congruency with which to compare the current findings. Nonetheless, there is cause to believe that the presence of a modal personality, beyond the concerns of organisational commitment and intention to turnover, may have direct organisational consequences.

In Chapter One, during the review of research relating to supplementary and complementary fit, several outcomes were suggested with regards to these relationships. In the case of supplementary fit, interpersonal experiences were shown to be enhanced (Bryne, 1969; as cited in Giberson et al., 2005), social integration facilitated (O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989), role conflict and ambiguity reduced (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Turban & Jones, 1988), trust between leaders and sub-ordinates improved (Bauer & Green, 1996) and an increase in the chance that individuals will interpret stimuli similarly obtained (Engle & Lord, 1997). Complementary fit, on the hand, has been shown by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005a) to create an environment where not only were individuals more attracted to their teams when such a relationship existed, but further, that peers and supervisors rated individuals who were attracted to their teams as stronger

performers. Barrick et al (1998) similarly suggested a teams capacity to work together over a long-term period (as rated by the teams supervisor), was positively associated with degree of variability on extraversion.

In the current study, it is suggested that there is preliminary evidence to support the idea that both forms of congruence are in operation. If that is so, Cluster 3's level homogeneity could possible create an environment where the above mentioned outcomes are possible, whilst the complementary fit experienced by Cluster 8 could too facilitate positive organisational outcomes. Although the current study did not include a performance measure, peer rating or group cohesion scale that would allow for definitive outcomes to be associated with these fit processes, previous studies in these areas can still guide our conclusions.

Schneider et al (1995), however, do note that there may be negative consequences associated with high levels homogeneity. Such, high levels could create an inflexible environment that is unable (and/or unwilling) to adapt to changing demands; an environment, in essence, that results in organisational dysfunction or demise (Miller, 1991). As the organisation moves towards a state where individuals will interpret actions and environmental stimuli similarly (Engle & Lord, 1997), the chances of group think increases (Hogg & Terry, 2000), resulting in an organisation that is unable to generate innovative solutions to new problems encountered. It is possible to imagine a scenario where the size of the modal cluster reaches a stage where the effects of complementary clusters become nullified – the alternative voice of these minority clusters, in this case, becomes muted. Under such circumstances, homogeneity becomes toxic to organisational effectiveness as it hinders the organisations ability to respond appropriately to a changing environment.

Schneider et al (1995), in relation to this stagnation, suggest that organisations may wish to adopt different approaches at different stages of organisational development. Initially it may of benefit to the organisation to promote increased levels of homogeneity. At these early stages of growth

“homogeneity is positive for organisational survival...because it facilitates coordination, communication, and cooperation” (Schneider et al, 1995, pp. 765-766); but at later stages organisations may have to actively seek heterogeneity to overcome the stagnation experienced. The high level of homogeneity (77%) would thus be of concern if the organisation was struggling to cope with modern demands, falling behind their competitors, or failing even to perceive environmental challenges. But if other voices are still active, said alternatively, if the complementary cluster is still active in organisational decision making processes, presumably the chances of stagnation are reduced. In the case of this research, the high organisational commitment scores found for Cluster 8 may be reflective of such a participative complementary cluster.

It is clear that further research is still required to test such suggestions. What seems more apparent however, is one can ill afford to ignore the role of personality in the dynamic environments of organisations. If Schneider’s assertions are correct, the modal personality plays a central role in organisational success and functioning, albeit in a paradoxical manner at times. Coupled with the current finding that a complementary cluster could too exist within the organisation milieu, the relationship between personality and organisational effectiveness becomes slightly more complicated, but no less important. It could be that the presence and influence of a complementary cluster are central in preventing organisational stagnation.

4.6 Limitations of the Study

Although the current study may have some direct implications for Schneider’s ASA model and possible implications for the understanding of personality’s role in organisations, it should be noted that it is not without its faults. In the section that follows, the limitations and strengths of the current study are presented.

The study is firstly limited by the inability to confirm the validity of the WPI. The researcher was, however, restricted by the availability of the scale scoring techniques since this scale copy-

write is held by a Canadian company. This meant that one could not identify which items belonged to which sub-scales inhibiting the ability to perform the required analyses. Instead the scale was scored by the copy write holders through the services of Jopie van Rooyen and the relevant information was returned to the researcher. This information did not include the required validity measures. The fact that certain of the WPI sub-scales had to be excluded from the study on the basis of reliability and bias concerns is a further limiting factor as a full picture of the traits measured by the WPI could not be obtained.

The second major concern relates to the very nature by which personality was measured. It is not apparent that had a different scale been used that measures different traits to those included within the WPI, the same clusters would have formed. This concern may relate more to the very act of measuring personality with the use of traits based approaches but is still a concern none the less. A possible solution to this would be to use the measures adopted by the organisation itself as presumably they were chosen on the basis of some degree of relevance. Yet access to such archives would violate the confidentiality of participants and jeopardize their anonymity too. This may inhibit one's ability to obtain the required sample sizes discussed above.

Yet, despite these drawbacks, there are several ways in which the current research may have informed the study of personality at work. Firstly, the use of cluster analysis seems an appropriate manner with which to investigate personality as a point of fit and misfit. Such methods allow for the personality clusters to be emergent and avoids predefining what the modal personality should look like. It also allows one to directly test for the presence of a modal personality rather than inferring its presence through similarity measures between employees and managers.

The research has too suggested possible expansions that could be included to the ASA model and the predictions that such a model makes with regards to organisation effectiveness. The possibility of a more dynamic role for personality within organisations seems more plausible than the rigid framework of the ASA model. In this sense, the current research (if it can be

replicated) may add to the study of personality within work settings, more specifically, the study of person-organisation fit with personality as the point of congruency.

4.6 Directions for future research

The first suggestion for possible research would be to replicate the methodology utilised in the current study to see if similar results are achievable. The use of cluster analysis to identify the modal personality seems unique to this study and thus replication is still required. Finding similar results would go some way to backing the suggestions made throughout the discussion.

Alternative lines of research could also include whether or not there is evidence to support the idea that modal membership, and complimentary cluster membership have some role to play in the decision making process associated with turnover. Whilst it was suggested in the literature review that such a relationship may be present, this notion still requires further empirical testing.

Additional lines of research could focus upon organisational effectiveness issues that may arise around the modal personality. Whilst it has been suggested that stagnation may occur when homogeneity increases, this research has identified the possibility that complimentary fit may mitigate such outcomes. Such research may wish to include a longitudinal aspect so as to examine variations in organisational effectiveness as homogeneity increases or decreases.

In general, the lack of research that places personality as a point of congruency is still cause for concern. At present, conclusions drawn remain, at best, speculation. Further research into this topic may shed light on the true relationship between personality and organisational behaviour.

4.7 Conclusions

In the beginning of the study it was stated that the goal of the current research was to place personality as a central variable in the study of turnover. Whilst this was achieved, what can be said for this relationship is still inconclusive. The results obtained rather than providing a clear cut relationship between these variables, provided a mixed bag of goods, allowing one to neither negate nor confirm the relationship between these variables. The fact that a non-modal group for whom commitment scores are low was found, suggests that there may in fact be evidence of attrition at work. Unfortunately, these results were not supported by the analysis of Intention to Turnover. The idea that personality cluster membership could impact on an individual's intention to turnover, was not confirmed by this study, but this is not to say that such a relationship is not possible. Rather, further work is required.

The more interesting conclusions drawn in the current study relate to the very nature of the model used to frame the relationship between turnover and personality. The results obtained may suggest that there is space for the role of complementary fit to be included in the ASA model. The fact that a non-modal cluster could achieve levels of commitment that match the modal cluster, can viewed as evidence of a more dynamic Attraction, Selection and Attrition cycle at work. Such results only strengthen the call for more research into this topic.

The idea that that “Researchers in Organisational Psychology have not had much regard for personality constructs in recent years” often reducing personality within models to “obligatory boxes designed to contain “individual differences”, [which], in most cases... play no fundamental role” (p.2) in the mechanisms of the model (Weiss & Alder, 1990), undoubtedly cannot be claimed of the current research. The model utilised in the current study decisively avoids this critique, using personality as the very variable around which organisational behaviours develop. Ideally this research has added to the debate that surrounds personality as a variable of interest, showing that, far from “obligatory boxes”, personality may have a direct impact on life of organisations.

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Appendix A – Letter of Consent



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Hello

My name is Ian Siemers, and I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining a Masters at the University of the Witwatersrand. My area of focus is that of employee turnover and its possible relation to personality. Turnover of employees is measured with the constructs of Organisation Commitment and Intention to Turnover. The research aims to explore whether it is possible to identify a specific personality type that seems dominate within an organisation and whether deviation from that personality may lead to employee turnover. In doing so a greater understanding of the processes that cause individuals to leave an organisation will be acquired. We would like to invite you to participate in this study.

Participation in this research will entail employees at the organisation completing a questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 30-40 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary, and no employee will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete or not complete the questionnaire. While questions are asked about personal circumstances, no identifying information, such as names or I.D. numbers will be asked for, and as such all employees will remain anonymous. The completed questionnaires will not be seen by any person in this organisation at any time, and will only be processed by myself. The responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. This means that any feedback that will be given to the organisation and employees in the form of group responses and not individual perceptions.

If you choose to participate in the study, employees will be asked to complete a questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. Once the questions have been answered, they will be asked to place the questionnaire in the envelope provided and deposit it in the sealed box provided. I will collect the questionnaires from the box at regular intervals. Confidentiality will be ensured by the fact that only I will have access to the questionnaires and by the fact that only group data will be reported. If an employee returns their questionnaire, this will be considered consent to participate in the study.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. This research will contribute both to a larger body of knowledge on employee turnover and personality, as well as to your organisation understanding of your issue at hand. Feedback will be given to the participant either through placing it on a notice board or at a reception desk.

Kind Regards

Ian Siemers (ian.siemers@gmail.com)

Appendix B – Questionnaires

Demographics Questionnaire

The following questions are used in order to describe the general characteristics of the group of participants in the research.

Gender:

Male	Female

Age:

Race:

African	White	Indian	Coloured	Other

If other, please specify:_____

Educational Level:

Matric	Diploma	Tertiary Degree	Post-graduate Diploma	Post-graduate Degree

Tenure:

Please indicate how many years you have been working at the organization: _____

Department:

Please indicate within which department you are employed: _____

Intention to Turnover

The following questions deal with how likely you are to remain in your organization in the near future. To answer, please place an X in the appropriate block.

1. If you were completely free to choose, how likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the New Year?

Not at all Likely	Uncertain	Somewhat likely	Quite Likely	Extremely likely
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2. I often think about leaving this organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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3. I will probably look for a new job next year.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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Work Personality Index



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Co.Reg.No. 2001/015618/07 VAT Reg.No. 4300195064

16 February 2009

To whom it may concern:

RE: Inclusion of psychological test material in a student's dissertation

This letter refers to the University's request that sample material or items of questionnaires used in Ian Siemers' study be included in his final dissertation. The Work Personality Index (WPI) has not yet been classified as a psychological test by the Psychometric Committee of the Professional Board for Psychology at the Health Professions Council of South Africa (Form 207), but by its nature as a personality assessment is still restricted in terms of access by suitably qualified individuals.

According to the Health Professions Act no. 56 of 1974, the control over psychological tests is deemed an act pertaining specially to the profession of psychology (section 37, subsection 2), and it would thus constitute an offence to include such an assessment in a dissertation if this was not under the control of a psychologist at all times.

With regard to the request to include a copy of the WPI in a published dissertation, it is the responsibility of Jopie van Rooyen & Partners SA (Pty) Ltd [JvR], as distributors of this assessment, and representatives of the international copyright holders, to refuse permission. This instrument is a copyrighted assessment, and may not be published in full or in part by any means without written permission from the copyright holder. In as much that the WPI is sold commercially, permission to include a copy of this assessment in the dissertation will not be granted.

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If you have any queries regarding the above matter, please feel free to contact me.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Nicola Taylor', with a stylized flourish at the end.

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Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organisation.							
2. I talk about this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.							
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.							
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.							
5. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.							
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.							
7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar.							
8. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.							
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation.							
10. I am extremely glad that I chose to work for this organisation rather than others I was considering at the time I joined.							
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.							
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its employees.							
13. I really care about the fate of this organisation.							
14. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.							
15. Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part.							