Motivation and Other Aspects of Organizational Life

Organizational Behavior

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Motivation and Other Aspects of Organizational Life

I found commencing my study of individuals in the workplace to be difficult. Where to start? This topical area is vast, with a corresponding vast amount of study material. Theories, ideas, notions, concepts, models, prescriptions, and practices abound. Data bases are filled with material elaborating on each: books, chapters, manuscripts, research studies, dissertations, articles, critiques, and monographs. There is, similarly, ample advice on how to go about such a study (see Silverman et al., 2002). I have depicted in Figure 1 my concept of the confusing array of study approach advice offered by Silverman et al. which awaits the student of organizations.

I commenced my study of individuals in the organizational setting by focusing on the topic of motivation. I found numerous motivational theories to explain individual behavior (e.g., Hierarchy of Needs theory, Hygiene-Motivation theory, Expectation theory, Equity theory, Goal-setting theory). I similarly found many theories of human nature upon which managers construct motivating environments and, thereby, attempt to externally “motivate” employees (Theory X – Theory Y, rational-economic theory, social theory, self-actualization theory). Perhaps the substantial quantity of often over-lapping, conflicting, and slightly varying concepts (see Ambrose, 1999) have led managers to adopt and use a single theory. Perhaps they’ve done so out of necessity.

However, understanding the individual in the workplace and positively contributing to their individual motivation is a complex endeavor. One may be lulled into believing, perhaps wishing, that a single theory of workplace behavior will suffice. It is not so. It seems almost a cliché to say that managers will accept the next new theory, next fad, or next sole “key” to management success.

There is in narrowing to a single theory, a comfort and clarity which is afforded the manager. It provides, however, a too-limited guide. There is a risk in adopting a single theory as the comprehensive notion of what drives workplace behavior. I have learned that there is little independent research substantiation for any individual theory. For the "many competing theories of motivation… there is relatively little clear research support of any of them" (Schein, 1980, p. 39). Where is the manager to turn?

While much of the current literature related to workplace behavior assumes an isolated or narrow view of a single aspect of organizational life (Ambrose, 1999; Schein, 1980), it is, rather, a complex interplay of reasoning ability, perceptual processes, motivational "drivers," learning ability, attitudes, personality, and emotions which, collectively, forms the individual's experience and, thereby, the employee's reality. Understanding workplace behavior is a "search for answers to perplexing questions about human nature" (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 19). How employees act and react on the job is an individual phenomenon. It is a function of how the individual thinks and perceives the workplace (cognitive processes) acts and reacts (human nature framed by personality, attitudes, and emotions) and not singularly the externally structured motivation scheme employed. Workplace behavior may be generally predicted, but an individual's specific behavior is as unique as the individual's fingerprints. There is "no one answer, no one 'correct' way to manage people" (Schein, 1980, p. 38)

The "simplified and generalized conceptions of human motivation" (Schein, 1980, p. 93), while attractive in it's less-complicated, less-rigorous critique ignores the necessary analysis that such a "complex" system demands. Schein (1980, pp. 93-94) offers a set of assumptions that are helpful in guiding one through a review of this complex, changing topography:

1. Needs fall into many categories and vary according to stage of development and total life situation;
2. Needs and motives interact and combine into complex motive patterns;
3. Employees are capable of learning new motives;
4. A given person may display different needs in different organizations or in different subparts of the same organization;
5. People can become productively involved with organizations on the basis of many different kinds of motives;
6. Employees can respond to many different kinds of managerial strategies.

Rather than, in practice, using a single concept (e.g., needs) or, more specifically still, that of a single theory (e.g., Hierarchy of Needs) of workplace behavior the practitioner should maintain in mind a model of the dynamic (with all integral aspects in view). Rather than a single concept of how individuals act in organizations there is a dynamic of numerous interacting aspects at play. This was suggested in the early work of E.E. Lawler and L.W. Porter which I have illustrated in Figure 2. I have as well graphically captured a model which is suggested by my literature review (see Figure 3), and my developed "Human Dynamic" (McElroy's Dynamic?) model based on my understanding of the dynamic psychological and environmental influences at play in the workplace (see Figure 4). The "Human Dynamic" model provides a guide for this essay and our workshop session where we will review individuals in the workplace. As well, I hope, this model can aid future students in their exploration of individuals in the workplace.

With a model (essentially, constituting a map), in place the question becomes "where to start?" Simplistically, one could start anywhere, at any element within the dynamic. One would

then work from that selected point on throughout the model. For our work, I have started with motivation. It is, in my opinion, one of the most talked about and investigated aspects of the workplace human dynamic.

Understanding individual's motivation (i.e., perceive, think, act, learn, change, and adapt) in an organizational setting is a complex exercise. Motivation has only recently – within the last 40 years – been approached in a systematic fashion, "in the 1950s and 1960s, the study of motivation in North America psychology was not considered a respectable pursuit" (Locke & Latham, 2002). Motivation, it seems, is a cybernetic action whereby the individual continuously adjusts to feedback, to stimuli (see Morgan, 1997, pp. 83-86) (see also Learning section). Kalat teaches that "people who attempt a task that is too easy or too difficult learn little about their competence" (Kalat, 1993, p. 485). Based on *competency interpretation,* people prefer intermediate task whereby they can learn based on results. This cybernetic process allows learning (though the cycle of action, feedback, adjustment).

Much of the research has been dedicated to understanding specific elemental contributors to the phenomenon of motivation, but it is, in fact, a complex dynamic centered on the individual's cognitive processes (i.e., the process of thinking, the processes of knowing). Motivation, as an example, while "hard to state precisely" (Kalat, 1993, p. 445) is generally accepted to be an intrinsic influence borne of the individual's perception of circumstances. Motivation does not exist as an independent entity, but rather is a psychological manifestation within an individual borne of perceptual process relative to stimuli. Perception is reality. As Robbins states specifically of the motivation's expectancy theory, "reality is not relevant here; the critical issue is what the individual employees perceive the outcome to be, regardless of

whether her perceptions are accurate" (Robbins, 2003, p. 52). This concept is powerfully explored in Maxwell Maltz' classic Psycho-Cybernetics (1960). As Maltz explains:

> Your nervous system cannot tell the difference between an imagined experience and a "real" experience. In either case, it reacts automatically to information which you give to it from your forebrain. Your nervous system reacts appropriately to what "you" think or imagine to be true (1960, p. 32).

Sigmund Freud believed the same thing; "there are… two kinds of reality: actual and psychic" (Hothersall, 1990, p. 243)

Recent research in neuroplasticity (Schwartz & Begley, 2002) suggests a basic neurological foundation for this concept. Neuroplasticity refers to the "ability of neurons to forge new connections, to blaze new paths through the cortex, even to assume new roles" (Schwartz & Begley, 2002, p. 15). Schwartz comments on landmark research in this area which proves "mindfulness" (i.e., thoughts and feelings as passing, ephemeral "mental events" rather than as accurate reflections of reality), "can alter brain circuits" (2002, p. 249). Locke and Latham also suggest this; they stated in their review of motivation that "people have the power to actively control their lives through purposeful thought; this includes the power to program and reprogram their subconscious" (Locke & Latham, 2002).

It is theorized that the success of all therapeutic procedures is a function of neuroplasticity, "Successful therapeutic techniques may be successful because of their very ability to change brain chemistry in a manner that enhances neural plasticity" (Cozolino, 2002, p. 300). It also may be so for creating a motivated state in the individual; perhaps facilitated, changed neuro-networks allow for different belief systems, different concepts of truth, and, thereby, modified expectations and resultant behavior. "It seems a simple fact that human

behavior is affected by conscious purposes, plans, intentions, tasks and the like… conscious goals affect action" (Locke & Latham, 2002) (see also Frankl, 1984).

The individual consciously and subconsciously designs behaviors that are in accordance with and supportive of their perceptions of reality. Understanding individuals in the workplace, and as the research is generally aimed – to better understand how to manage people in the organization – begins and ends with psychology; "to understand a person's behavior, we must understand the person's definition of the situation" (Schein, 1980, p. 41).

This workshop supporting essay is not, however, meant to explore the depths of the psychology of worker (as illustrated in Figure 5). It is, rather, developed as an aid to help us understand exhibited organizational behavior and to grasp, however how tenuous, means to predict, manage, and control it. It is, then, focused on theories of motivation, behavior, perceptual processes, and learning within a workplace setting. This is not the forum for scholarly pursuits of the workplace-relevant aspects of general, organizational, or neurological psychology. References to and explorations of deeper psychological aspects of the exhibited behavior will be left, necessarily so, to other essays.

This essay will systematically and sequentially review each major element of individual life in the organization. We'll briefly explore the history behind each, the seeds of theories which have been planted, the contemporary beliefs or those theories that survived and taken root, and the practical applications of each.

Cognition

It is interesting, and necessary, to start our exploration of the cognitive process integral to organizational behavior by first reviewing behaviorism. But much of the developments in this area have only recently (20-30 years) evolved due to a near 100-year old battle between behaviorism and cognitive psychology, started between John B. Watson (1878-1958, father of the psychology of behaviorism) and Edward Titchener (1867-1927, his psychology concerned with the generalized mind), and continued by two firmly-entrenched groups of psychologists, the behaviorist led by B.F. Skinner.

Behaviorism, with its early 1900s root in animal learning borne of Darwin's theories of evolution (Kalat, 1993), has dominated much of the field of psychology (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). J.B. Watson, "wanting to start a revolution in psychology," founded behaviorism (Hothersall, 1990, p. 376). He argued that "psychology should abandon all concern with the mind and study only behavior" (Hothersall, 1990, p. 2). Behaviorists have, as a core theme in their endeavors, a goal of establishing the science foundation for psychology with the central support structure that of behaviorism. This deeper aspect of behaviorism led B.F. Skinner, the most influential of all behaviorists (Kalat, 1993) and successor to Watson (Hothersall, 1990), to state, "Behaviorism is not the science of human behavior; it is the philosophy of that science" (Skinner, 1974).

Much of the study of motivation we have been witness to for nearly eight decades seems to be founded on the principles of behaviorism; basic needs drive behavior which can be controlled and/or modified externally with the application of the correct stimulus. Behaviorist were taught from the earliest stage of behaviorist psychology that "introspection forms no

essential part of its methods" (see "Watson's Behaviorist Manifesto" in Hothersall, 1990, p. 375). The introspective study of consciousness, cognition, was to suffer a tremendous setback by this turn-of-the-century debate.

While behaviorism continues to draw attention today (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003), there has been a general reaction against and acceptance of the its tenets (Hodgkinson, 2003), with "most psychologist" wanting to modify it (Kalat, 1993). The last two decades have seen a significant increase in interest in a "cognitive emphasis" in the study of organizational behavior (Hodgkinson, 2003), with the "study of the 'mind' in the form of cognitive psychology… experiencing a renaissance within psychology" (Hothersall, 1990, p. 2).

While in the following sections we will explore a few of the identifiable aspects of the cognitive process, it is wise for the practitioner to maintain in mind, as I mentioned earlier in this essay, a view of the dynamic at play. No element can be adequately understood in independent, static condition.

Motivation

Early theoretical work by Robert Sessions Woodworth laid the foundation for motivation studies (Hothersall, 1990, pp. 310-317). At Columbia University (1899-1939) he introduced the term *drive* to explain basic biological needs (e.g., food, water). He challenged other psychologists to more deeply explore the stimulus-response (S-R) relationship from the perspective of the studied organism (O):

> The O inserted between the S and R makes explicit the obvious role of the living and active organism in the process; O receives the stimulus and makes the response. This formula suggests that psychologists should not limit their investigations to the input of stimuli and the output of motor responses. They should ask how the input can possibly

give rise to the output; they should observe the intervening processes if possible or at least hypothesize them and devise experiments for testing the hypothesis (Hothersall, 1990, p. 316).

Build upon the foundation established by Woodworth were motivation studies such as those by Elton Mayo in the 1927 Hawthorne studies (conducted at the Western Electric's plants near Chicago) (see Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, pp. 56-59; Johns, 1981, pp. 36-38; Schein, 1980, pp. 56-59), see Appendix A. Researchers, studying productivity, discovered that fundamental psychological issues were at play. Mayo, a professor at the Harvard Graduate School of Business, and his colleagues found that changing the work environment, positively or negatively, had a resultant positive effect on worker attitude and output. They theorized that industrial life had removed meaning out of work (Schein, 1980, p. 62), frustrated employees basic social needs, and found that manager's beliefs about the employees were that they were unorganized individuals, interested primarily in self, and dominated by basic needs (see "Rabble Hypothesis" Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 58).

They found that workers responded to how they internally perceived their relationship to the organization and not, as predicted, how the organization could externally manipulate the environment and "motivate" the worker to greater productivity and efficiency. The workers had interpreted any attention to be positive; the worker was seen as important.

Human motivation studies had emerged.

Manager's Human Nature Assumptions

Whether explicitly stated or not, attempts to "motivate" employees are attempts to influence human nature (and the individual's manifestation of it). In establishing methods to influence individual's motivation managers have made assumptions about human nature. This is necessary. Man has attempted to answer the question "what in the nature of human beings makes them behave in certain ways," but the answer "continues to elude" (Schein, 1980, p. 38),

Theory X – Theory Y. These dual, contradictory theories of human nature were developed by Douglas McGregor in his classic 1960 analysis of organizational approaches toward people. The two illustrate polar opposites of human nature, with Theory X the harshest critic, assumes that people, by nature, are lazy, self-centered, focused on safety, and seek direction. Theory Y, conversely, assumes positive attributes drive individuals. They are not lazy and can be self-directed and creative (see Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, pp. 59-62; Johns, 1981, pp. 149-151; Robbins, 2003, p. 45; Schein, 1980, pp. 53-68).

Table 1. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Assumptions about Human Nature
(adaptation of Table 3-1, Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 60)

Theory X	Theory Y
1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.	1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.	2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.	3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety levels.	4. Motivation occurs at the social, as well as at the physiological and security levels.
5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational	5. People can be self-directed and creative at

objectives.	work if properly motivated.

Theory X assumes that “lower-order needs dominate individuals” (Robbins, 2003, p. 45), “employees are primarily motivated by economic incentives… [their] feelings are, by definition, irrational… organizations can and must be designed in such a way as to neutralize and control people’s feelings” (Schein, 1980, p. 53), and “punishment, threat, and close supervision may be necessary” (Johns, 1981, p. 149).

Theory Y, conversely, assumes that “higher-order needs dominate individuals” (Robbins, 2003, p. 45), “the individual seeks to be mature on the job and is capable of being so… people are self-motivated… there is no inherent conflict between self-actualization and more effective organizational performance” (Schein, 1980, p. 68), and “work is inherently motivating” (Johns, 1981, p. 150). Practical application of management practices reflective of Theory Y are employee involvement programs (e.g., participatory management, representative participation, employee stock ownership plans). Employee involvement programs are “participative process that uses the entire capacity of employees and is designed to encourage increased commitment to the organization’s success” (Robbins, 2003, p. 62).

Rational-Economic. “The assumptions underlying rational-economic people are very similar to those depicted by McGregor’s Theory X. In essence, people are seen as primarily motivated by economic incentives” (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 478). As Schein explains (1980), this doctrine evolved from the philosophy of hedonism, “which argues that people act to maximize their self-interests” (1980, p. 52). More explicitly, the doctrine of hedonism suggests that “(1) all pleasure is good, and (2) only pleasure is intrinsically good – that is, worth having

for its own sake" (Hospers, 1967, p. 584). The individual steeped in rational-economic principles would appear, I believe, self-absorbed, self-centered, and somewhat shallow.

Social. Aspects of the individuals social constructs are exemplified in the Hawthorne studies (see Appendix A). "People are social animals" (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 41), and as such ill-prepared to contradict the social norms established in the workplace. This system of social norms "actually influences how the work is performed" (Schein, 1980, p. 62). Schein believes that, relative to maintaining ones adherence to social norms, "pride and dignity are powerful feelings" (1980, p. 42) and may be the strongest motivators.

Self-Actualization. Schein's theory of the self-actualized individual (Schein, 1980, pp. 68-72), reflects the employee attributes suggested by Theory Y. These individuals are "seeking meaning and accomplishment in their work" (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 478).

Content Theories of Motivation, Overview

From the early work of Elton Mayo and his Harvard colleagues in the 1920's, many researchers and theories followed. Early work suggested that an individual's needs formed the primary motivational driver. McDougal in 1932, Young in 1936, Murray in 1938, and Madsen in 1959 all developed similar, extensive list of such needs (see Kalat, 1993, pp. 449-451). While their individual lists have unique listings, they generally agree on the basic needs of sex, food, security, and rest. The list of needs developed by these individuals was considered to of "academic interest but that do not provide any readily usable tool for understanding the everyday task performance of people at work" (Hampton, Summer, & Webber, 1987, p. 5). They lacked "structure and organization" (Kalat, 1993, p. 450). However, few of those conducting this early research took center stage in establishing needs as the accepted driver of motivation. The most

referenced “needs” theorists are accomplishing this task were Maslow, Alderfer, Herzberg, and McClelland.

Table 2 is an adaptation of that provided by Schein showing the basic needs structure suggested by each.

Table 2. Comparison of Basic Motivational Categories
(adaptation of Table 5.1, Schein, 1980, p. 86)

Maslow Hierarchy of Needs	Alderfer ERG Needs	McClelland Theory of Needs	Herzberg Motivation/Hygiene
1. Physiological needs	Existence needs		Working conditions
2. Safety needs (material)			Salary & benefits
Safety needs (interpersonal)		Power	Supervision
3. Affiliation, love, social needs	Relatedness needs	Affiliation	Fellow workers
4. Self-esteem needs (feedback from others)			Recognition
Self-esteem (self-confirming activities)	Growth needs	Achievement	Advancement Responsibility
5. Self-actualization			Job challenge

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory has been the chief motivational theory taught in management classes for over four decades (Craig, 1987). Thousands of today's business leaders were taught the fundamental tenets of this concept, which continues to be espoused as "simplicity itself" (Hampton et al., 1987, p. 6). The "best-known approach to motivation" (Robbins, 2003, p. 43), many consider the hierarchy of needs to be "the most influential conceptual basis for employee motivation to be found in modern industry" (Craig, 1987, p. 143). The principle challenge to this concept, however, as with most singular concepts of individual motivation, is that there is very little clear and validating research support for them (Johns, 1981, p. 161; Robbins, 2003, p. 44; Schein, 1980, p. 39)[1].

Given the concept's popularity (see Table 3, ABI/Inform database search of articles about individual or individual's theory for 10-year periods 1983-1993 & 1993-2003), the contemporary organization scholar-practitioner should be familiar with it. While "we have developed more valid explanations of motivation" (Robbins, 2003, p. 43), Robbins gives two primary reasons for why one should know the these early theories:

1. they represent a foundation from which contemporary theories have grown, and
2. practicing managers regularly use these theories and their terminology in explaining employee motivation (2003, p. 43).

Table 3. Literature Review, Academic Interest Comparison

Herzberg			Alderfer			McClelland			Maslow			TOTAL		
Period		Change	Period		Change	Period		Change	Period		Change			
83-93	94-03	%	83-93	94-03	%	83-93	94-03	%	83-93	94-03	%	83-93	93-03	Change
6	5	-16.7%	0	0		2	1	-50.0%	9	32	255.6%	17	38	123.5%

During the period 1937-1951, Maslow, involved in the humanistic psychology movement, conducted research with his colleagues at Brooklyn College. Their focus was primarily that of developing human potential (Craig, 1987), how the personality develops and its relationship to motivation. He found people to be "psychological organisms struggling to satisfy needs" (Morgan, 1997, p. 36), that "human beings are wanting animals and are forever striving for goals" (Craig, 1987, p. 143), and that these needs have "primary influence" (Hampton et al., 1987, p. 6).

Maslow believed that there is a hierarchy of five fundamental needs common to all people, each only considered as the next lower need is satisfied. Motivation, then, "depends upon the worker's position in the need hierarchy" (Johns, 1981, p. 157), where "satisfaction at each level activates a new higher-level need" (Hampton et al., 1987, p. 6). Robbins explains the structure of the hierarchy as:

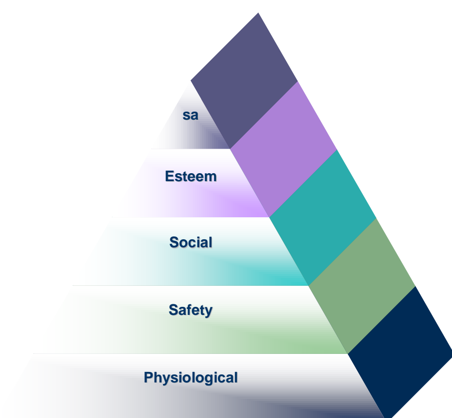
Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower order. Physiological and safety needs were described as lower-order needs; social, esteem, and self-actualization were categorized as higher-order needs. The two orders were differentiated on the premise that higher-order needs are satisfied internally, whereas lower-order needs are predominately satisfied externally (2003, p. 44).

The fundamental concepts of Maslow's theory are:

1. Needs are arranged in a hierarchical order (low to high);
2. Lower order needs must be satisfied first;
3. Higher order needs become dominant only after lower order needs are satisfied;
4. Generally, higher order needs are filled internally (e.g., job challenge);
5. Generally, lower order needs are filled externally (e.g., pay).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Model

1. Self-Actualization (sa)
2. Esteem
3. Social
4. Safety
5. Physiological



Hierarchy of Needs, Application. Morgan suggests that Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs model provides the framework by which today's managers can provide a logical, motivating workplace structure (1997, pp. 36-37). Below, I offer an adaptation of his exhibit in which he summarizes these workplace programs.

Table 4. Practical Application of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
(adaptation of Exhibit 3.1, Morgan, 1997, p. 37)

Need	Workplace Programs
Self-Actualizing	• Encouragement of complete commitment • Job a major expressive dimension of employee's life
Esteem (Ego)	• Creation of jobs with scope for achievement, autonomy, responsibility, and personal control • Work enhancing personal identity • Feedback and recognition for good performance
Social, Belongingness	• Work organization that permits interaction with colleagues • Social and sports facilities • Office and factory parties and outings
Safety, Security	• Pension and health care plans • Job tenure • Emphasis on career paths within the organization
Physiological	• Salaries and wages • Safe and pleasant working conditions

Alderfer ERG Theory. Clayton P. Alderfer based his ERG (Existence-Relatedness- Growth) motivation theory extensively on the earlier work of Abraham Maslow. In fact, with few modifications he provides a "compression of Maslow's five-category need system" (Johns, 1981, p. 158), and "groups them into three more basic categories" (Schein, 1980, p. 85). It is interesting to note that of the eight referenced texts in this essay related to organization behavior that only two mention Clayton Alderfer. Subsequent database searches (see Table 3) revealed no articles on Alderfer or his ERG theory since 1983. It appears that interest in and following of Alderfer's ERG theory is weak.

Alderfer suggests that his *existence needs* correspond to Maslow's physiological and safety needs (which are satisfied by material conditions rather than interpersonal relations) (see Table 5). The ERG *relatedness needs* correspond with Maslow's social and esteem needs. His *growth needs* closely correlates to Maslow's self-actualization needs. John's suggest only two points on which Alderfer significantly differs from Maslow:

1. ERG theory does not assume that lower level need must be gratified before a less concrete need becomes operative,
2. ERG theory assumes that if the higher-level needs are ungratified, individuals will increase their desire for the gratification of lower-level needs (1981, p. 158).

Table 5. Maslow-Alderfer Theory Relationship
(Adaptation of Exhibit 6-2, Johns, 1981, p. 158)

	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	Alderfer's ERG Theory	
Higher Order Needs ↕	Self-Actualization	Growth	Intrinsic Motivation ↕
	Esteem		
	Social	Relatedness	
	Safety		
	Physiological	Existence	

Lower Level Needs Extrinsic Motivation

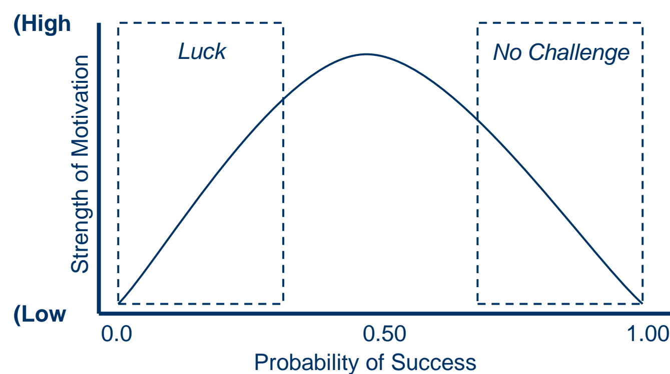
McClelland's Theory of Need. David McClelland, a Harvard psychologist, has worked for "several decades [over 30 years] studying the human need structure and its implications for motivation" (Johns, 1981, p. 159). His primary focus is that of achievement. Most of the current research built upon McClelland's theory has a similar focal point (see Ambrose, 1999). Ambrose comments that "recent research on needs focused primarily on need for achievement" (1999, p. 3). Her article *Old Friends, New Faces: Motivation Research in the* 1990s, reviewing 200 workplace motivation studies, when critiquing contemporary interest in needs-based motivation, Abrose only mentions McClelland (absent were any reference to Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg) (1999). This seems natural given the research supported correlation between the achievement need and resultant performance and the aforementioned lack of research support for others. Robbins suggests that "an extensive amount of research indicates that some reasonably well supported predictions can be made on the basis of the relationship between achievement need and job performance" (2003, p. 48).

McClelland bases his needs theory on the "stable personality characteristics" which one develops as part of "early life experience and exposures to selected aspects of one's society" (Johns, 1981, p. 159). He believes, then, that needs are not solely biological in nature, but rather learned in life. His needs theory suggests three individual motives: power, affiliation, achievement (see Table 2). Hersey and Blanchard expand on this concept when they state, "achievement-motivated people [the principle focus for McClelland] are more likely to be developed in families in which parents hold different expectations for their children than do other parents" (1993, p. 47). McClelland, in fact, theorizes that "achievement pressure in the first two years of life was associated with adult [parent] need for achievement" (Ambrose, 1999, p. 3).

It seems clear that these early life experiences influence individuals toward an achievement-oriented personality, which further suggests that achievement can be taught. This is the position to which McClelland evolved; “McClelland was convinced that this [learn and develop achievement motive] can be done” (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 48). He believed that “motivation is changeable even in adulthood” (Schein, 1980, p. 87), and that one can “stimulate their achievement need” (Robbins, 2003, p. 48). Blanchard suggests that McClelland’s developed achievement training programs may have “tremendous implications for training and developing human resources” (1993, p. 48).

McClelland does not ascribe to the foundation concepts of Maslow’s and Alderfer’s theories suggesting that needs appear in a structured, hierarchical order. He contends that all exist simultaneously with one being dominant. Relative to his research focus, he believes that the “need for achievement is a distinct natural motive” (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 46). He further contends that “people are not highly motivated if a goal is seen as almost impossible or virtually certain to achieve” (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 29), but rather reach a peak of motivation if there is an approximate 50/50 chance of success (see Table 6). Individuals tend to attribute very probable success to low challenge (and perhaps not worthy) endeavors while those that are very unlikely are attributed to luck.

Table 6. Success Probability – Motivation



How do we know the dominant motive in McClelland's theory of needs model? Can one be tested to determine their relative needs orientation? McClelland suggests yes. He typically uses the testing procedure *Thematic Apperception Test* (see Appendix C), or TAT, which solicits creative feedback relative to a picture. This test was originally conceived by Morgan and Murray and later taken from clinical to a research instrument by David McClelland (Winter, 1998). Kalat explains the procedure:

> Investigators show people pictures… and ask them to tell a story about each picture, including what is going on, what led up to this scene, and what will happen next. The investigators then count the number of times each person mentions striving for goals and achievement (1993, p. 484).

The test also measures "the subject's temperament, level of emotional maturity, observational ability, intellectuality, imagination, psychological insight, creativity, sense of reality, and factors of family and psychic dynamics" (Sweetland & Keyser, 1991, p. 228).

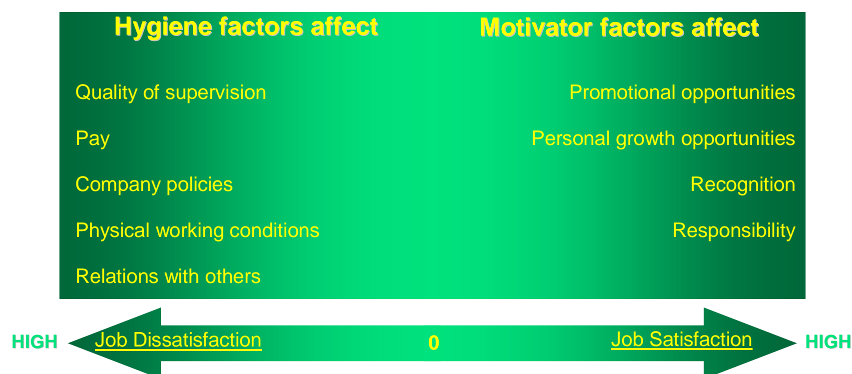
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Frederick Herzberg started his work on motivation by concentrating on the factors of esteem and self-actualization. He conducted "the most interesting series of studies" (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993, p. 69) at the Psychological Service of Pittsburg, studying 200 engineers and accountants in 11 industries. As can be seen in Table 2, Herzberg's needs are job related and "reflect some of the concrete things people want from their work" (Schein, 1980, p. 87). The basic premise of this theory is that "an individual's relation to work is basic and that one's attitude toward work can very well determine success or failure" (Robbins,

2003, p. 45), that “what motivated them most was job challenge and accomplishment” (Schein, 1980, p. 71).

Herzberg’s needs theory differs markedly from that of Maslow. Herzberg similarly theorizes a hierarchical arrangement of needs. However, he believes that the two groups of needs (motivating and hygiene) are distinctly different. They operate independently. Herzberg believes, as illustration, that hygiene or extrinsic factors, related to job dissatisfaction are those most associated with Maslow’s physiological or lower-level needs (e.g., workplace or work environment factors of pay, working conditions, and supervision). Adequately removing the dissatisfying job characteristics (e.g., providing adequate pay) does not create satisfaction. It simply causes the employee to be NOT dissatisfied. So, the opposite of “dissatisfied” is “no dissatisfaction” (versus “satisfied”) (see Robbins, 2003, pp. 45-47).

Conversely, motivator or intrinsic factors, related to job satisfaction more closely approximate Maslow’s higher-order needs of self-actualization and esteem (e.g., job factors of achievement, recognition, increased responsibility). Removing satisfying job characteristics (e.g., little recognition, not offering promotion opportunities, no sense of achievement) does not cause job dissatisfaction. It simply causes the employee to be NOT satisfied. So, the opposite of “satisfied” is “no satisfaction” (versus “dissatisfied”). Herzberg’s “dual continuum” is:

- the opposite of “dissatisfied” is “no dissatisfaction”
- the opposite of “satisfied” is “no satisfaction”



Source: Robbins, S.P. (2003). Essentials of Organizational Behavior. Delhi, India:

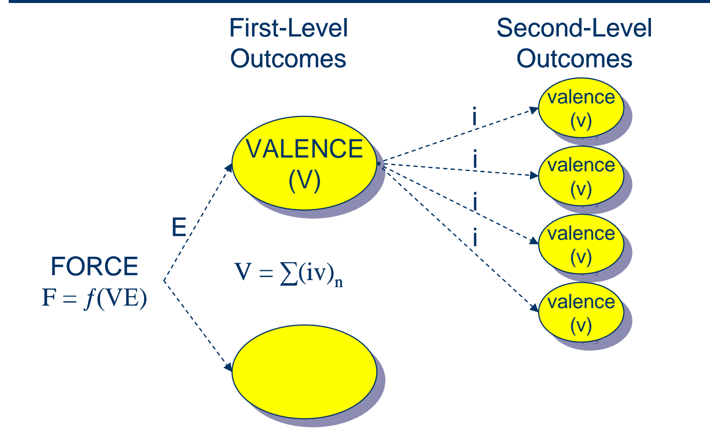
Typically, when people feel satisfied with their work they credit themselves. When they feel bad, they cite (blame?) workplace-related factors (e.g., supervision, policies, pay). It is interesting to note, that, as Robbins states, "When things are going well, people tend to take the credit themselves, but they blame failure on the extrinsic environment" (2003, p. 46). This "rationalization" is a "human tendency to protect and bolster self-esteem through psychological defense mechanisms" (Hampton et al., 1987, p. 11). The self-esteem correlation is explored by Schein in *Organizational Psychology*:

> Pride and dignity are powerful feelings, and the desire to maintain one's dignity or "face" may be a far more powerful motivator than any of the ones we typically find in the lists put together by personality psychologists, for example, needs for power, achievement, security, and so on (1980, pp. 43-43). The ultimate motivator for human adults, therefore, can be thought of as the need to maintain and develop one's self-concept and one's self-esteem (1980, p. 77).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (or Motivation-Hygiene Theory) "continues to have considerable intuitive appeal" (Ambrose, 1999, p. 4). As can be seen in Table 2, interest in Herzberg and his theory lags only that of Maslow (admittedly by a large margin).

Process Theories of Motivation, Overview

Expectancy Theory. Expectancy theory is considered the "most comprehensive explanation of motivation" (Robbins, 2003, p. 52), "holding a major position" (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996, p. 575) in the study of motivation. Unlike most other previous theories, significant research evidence supports this theory (Ambrose, 1999; Robbins, 2003; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Development of the first complete version of this theory is attributed to Victor Vroom, psychologist, who theorized that "motivation is determined by the outcomes that people expect to occur as a result of their actions on the job" (Johns, 1981, p. 163). More explicitly, he



theorized that the strength of one's motivation and resultant force applied (F) is a function of the expectancy (E) held that a "first-level" outcome can be achieved, the instrumentality (I) or probability that the first-order outcome will result in a particular, valued second-level outcome, and the "valence" (V) or value of that outcome. This theory, understandably enough, is also referred to as Vroom's VIE model (Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy model). It suggests "bottom-up processing" whereby "incoming environmental stimuli influences actors' cognitions and actions directly" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 4) (versus a "top-down" using long-term memory to trigger actions with previous success history). Vroom's model is graphically illustrated in Table 7. Johns explains the theory this way, "people will be motivated to engage in those work activities that they find attractive and that they feel they can accomplish. The attractiveness of various work activities depends upon the extent to

which they lead to favorable personal consequences" (1981, p. 165). Most students of expectancy theory ascribe to this basic notion (Robbins, 2003). Fundamental to the expectancy model is one's beliefs (Johns, 1981).

Risking a too-deep excursion into philosophy, it seems that belief plays a major role in this motivation theory. To "expect" is to believe that a thing will happen, and "belief" a feeling that a thing is real and true (Dictionary, 1980). But, what is belief? Chalmers explains it this way:

> Belief is most often regarded as a psychological property. On this view, at a rough first approximation, to believe that a proposition is true is to be in a state wherein one acts in a way that would be appropriate if it were true, a state that tends to be brought about by its being the case, and a state in which one's cognitive dynamics of reasoning reflect the appropriate interaction of the belief with other beliefs and desires. The functional criteria for belief are very subtle, however, and no one has yet produced anything like a complete analysis of the relevant criteria. All the same, there is reason to believe that this view captures much of what is significant about belief. It is related to the idea that belief is something of an *explanatory construct*: we attribute beliefs to others largely to explain their behavior (1996, p. 19).

To expect is to believe. To believe is to feel that something is true. To feel, which is stimulus whereby environmental energies are converted into signals for the nervous system (Kalat, 1993), is the causation for behavior. So, to have expectations is to act in a congruent manner with one's beliefs and, thereby, cause them to become true.

Are the contemporary views into belief-established behavior new? I suggest not. In Maltz' 1960 classic *Psycho-Cybernetics* he suggests that "realizing that our actions, feelings and behavior are the result of our own images and beliefs gives up the lever that psychology has always needed for changing personality" (p. 34). His assertion was four years before Vroom's book *Work and Motivation*. As Combs and Snygg taught about individual behavior more than four decades ago, "A fact is not what is; a fact is what one believes!" (1959, p. 307). Two millennium ago, Mathew wrote, "If you believe, you will receive" (Thompson's Chain-Reference Bible, 1984, Mathew 21:22), and Mark, "Everything is possible for him who believes" (Thompson's Chain-Reference Bible, 1984, Mark 9:23) and "Whatever you ask for in prayer, believe that you have received it, and it will be yours" (Thompson's Chain-Reference Bible, 1984, Mark 11:24).

It seems belief alone (a psychological state) is force enough to change physical circumstances. Schwartz, quoting Henry P. Stapp – physicist and scholar of the interpretation of quantum mechanics – explains that "in quantum theory, experience is the essential reality, and matter is viewed as a representation of the primary reality, which is experience" (Schwartz & Begley, 2002, p. 278). Schwartz goes on to explain that "quantum theory allows intention, and attention, to exert real, physical effects on the brain" (Schwartz & Begley, 2002, p. 289).

A major obstacle in the proper application of the expectancy theory, and constituting an on-going discussion, is the proper "operationalization[2]" of the model's components (e.g., valence) (Ambrose, 1999; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Basically, operationalization is the adequate defining of the employed concepts.

Ambrose suggests that interest in and use of the expectancy theory is waning. There were 74 empirical studies on expectancy theory prior to 1990, but Ambrose reports that only 10 have

been conducted since (Ambrose, 1999). This is the basis for Ambrose' contention that "work on expectancy theory declined substantially in the 1990s" (1999, p. 4). However, Van Eerde and Thierry believe that it continues to be a "rich source for theoretical innovations" (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). I found a similar phenomenon in the decreasing level of general interest. I conducted an ABI/Inform literature review of "expectancy theory" for each of four 10-year periods starting with the 1960s and including the 2000-2003 period year-to-date (YTD). I found, that, on average, there were 19 articles per year in the 1980s referencing expectancy theory. It was to be the high-water mark for interest in expectancy theory. Interest today in this theory is only approximately 40% of what it was then (with an average of 0.7 articles per month YTD versus 1.6 throughout the 1980s).

Table 8. Literature Review, Academic Interest in Expectancy Theory

	60's	70's	80's	90's	00's
Articles, TOTAL	0	92	190	85	31
Articles/Yr, AVG	0.0	9.2	19.0	8.5	8.3
Articles/Mth, AVG	0.0	0.8	1.6	0.7	0.7

Goal-Setting Theory. The goal-setting theory, well-substantiated by research (Ambrose, 1999; Robbins, 2003) unlike other theories of motivation, is considered "among the most valid and practical theories of employee motivation in organizational psychology" (Locke & Latham, 2002). This was espoused by Viktor Frankl in his classic *Man's Search for Meaning*. He said, "What man actually needs is… the striving and struggling for a worthwhile goal, a freely chosen task" (Frankl, 1984, p. 110). The basic premise of the goal-setting theory is that "specific goals lead to increased performance and that difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than easy goals" (Robbins, 2003, p. 48). Locke and Latham suggest that the mechanism by which this occurs is four-fold:

1. <u>Goals serve a directive function</u>, they direct attention and effort toward goal-oriented activities;
2. <u>Goals have an energizing function.</u> High goals lead to greater effort than low goals;
3. <u>Goals affect persistence</u>. When participants are allowed to control the time they spend on a task, hard goals prolong effort;
4. <u>Goals affect action</u> indirectly by leading to the arousal, discovery, and/or use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies (2002). Gellatly and Meyer support this concept when they state, "goal setting may produce a normative shift that shapes beliefs about one's task-relevant capabilities and personal goal choices" (1992, p. 694).

They also suggest four moderators for the goal-setting theory:

1. Goal commitment;
2. Feedback;
3. Task complexity;

4. Personal goals (or Self-set).

Goal commitment: We know that "the relationship between assigned goals and performance is thought to be moderated by the degree of commitment to the goal" (Tubbs, 1993). Ambrose substantiates this, reporting that there is "agreement on goal commitment's theoretical importance." However, she also describes the on-going discussion relative to how commitment is most "appropriately operationalized" (Ambrose, 1999): a. self-reported commitment to an assigned goal; b. self-reported commitment to a personal or self-set goal; or c. the calculation of discrepancies between assigned and personal goal. Proper operationalization continues to surface as an unresolved issue in the field of motivation studies[2].

Locke and Latham provide two key factors which they believe facilitate commitment: importance and belief (2002, p. 706). These factors and their relationship to the expectancy theory suggest that an integral aspect of the goal-setting theory is expectation. The two theories differ on narrow specifics (e.g., McClelland's curvilinear function of the performance-to-success probability relationship, see Table 6, versus a linear function associated with the relationship in goal-setting) (Locke & Latham, 2002). However, the two theories agree on the broader aspect of importance or (using expectancy theory terminology) valance. Both suggest that the importance value is a function of the individual's perspective.

Hollenbeck and his colleagues suggest that there are four additional "keys" to commitment. They theory is based on the earlier work of Salancik (Staw & Salancik, 1977) who proposed that "people have a strong desire to appear rational and consistent to other people" (Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989, p. 18). Because of the social nature of the process, he proposes that the goal commitment enhancing hypothesis include:

1. Commitment to difficult goals is greater when goals are made public;
2. Actions undertaken of one's own free will are stronger;
3. Commitment to difficult goals is positively related to need for achievement (suggesting validity for McClelland's achievement need theory);
4. Commitment to difficult goals is negatively related to externality (positive to those with an internal locus of control and feel that accomplishment is within their control) (Hollenbeck et al., 1989, p. 19).

Tubbs challenges the single-construct concept of commitment (i.e., pre-choice attitude, expectation). Locke and Latham, as previously discussed, ascribe expectancy theory aspects to goal commitment. Tubbs suggests that there may, in fact, be three viable constructs of goal commitment (Tubbs, 1993), including those of expectation. In his *Journal of Applied Psychology* article, Tubbs proposes that the three constructs are:

1. Expectancy and valence associated with the goal (prechoice);
2. Degree of discrepancy between personal and assigned goals (choice);
3. Resistance to changing a goal (choice maintenance).

Tubbs argues that the "single-construct interpretation of commitment is inconsistent with conceptual and empirical evidence" (1993, p. 86) and that clearly differentiating it will allow future moderation hypothesis to be "more clearly stated and tested."

Feedback: Most scholarly explorations of goal-setting discuss the importance of feedback (Ambrose, 1999; Locke & Latham, 2002). Ambrose reports on earlier research on the

moderators of goal-setting that "…the effects of feedback were additive. Outcome feedback tells a person that change is needed, but process feedback tells the person how to change" (1999, p. 245), or, as Locke and Latham explain it, they need "summary feedback" (2002, p. 708). Locke and Latham suggest that such feedback provides a "discrepancy-creating process," allowing the implementation of positive and constructive changes based on the reported variance.

Task complexity: Gellatly and Meyer report that "The beneficial effect of a specific, difficult goal on task performance is perhaps the most robust finding reported in the industrial and organizational psychology literature" (1992, p. 694). This is a generally accepted concept (Ambrose, 1999; Gellatly & Meyer, 1992; Hollenbeck et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 2002; Robbins, 2003). The mechanism at play, however, does not seem to be, strictly, the complexity of the task, but rather the individual's position and response relative to it. Locke and Latham suggest that "measures of task strategy often correlate more highly with performance than do measures of goal difficulty" (2002, p. 710). This appears to be a function of "underlying psychological mechanisms that mediate goal effects on task performance" (Gellatly & Meyer, 1992). Gellatly and Meyer reference eight independent research studies that strongly support this concept. It is interesting to note that the two "psychological mechanisms" to which they refer are "self-efficacy" (beliefs about one's capabilities, suggestive of expectancy theory), and "personal goal" (achievement intent or need, suggestive of McClelland's Theory of Needs).

Personal goals (or Self-set): There is evidence that aligning personal goals to be congruent with assigned goals has a positive effect one's goal commitment (Ambrose, 1999). This is supported by Tubbs (discussed in a previous section) when he proposed that two of the three viable constructs of goal commitment are the positive impact of alignment of personal goal and the to expectancy (self-efficacy or belief in one's capability). Some author's speculate that

one’s participation in goal setting may lead to increase acceptance of and commitment to the goal. However, the “evidence is mixed” (Robbins, 2003, p. 49). It appears that participation in not the sole function of commitment and, in the final analysis, commitment is the critical aspect (regardless of the means to secure it).

Behavior

Personality

Defined

What is personality? Personality has been commonly defined as a person's character, style, or demeanor. Deeper academic exploration of personality suggests that personality is only such when perceived by others (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993), is consistent (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993; Kalat, 1993), differs from that of others (Dictionary, 1983; Kalat, 1993), and, collectively, is the total of one's behavior (Blanchard & Hersey, 1993; Dictionary, 2003). The Oxford Dictionary of Psychology defines personality as:

> The sum total of the behavior and mental characteristics that are distinctive to an individual (2003).

It seems, then, that one's personality is unique, externally-perceived, habitual behavior patterns.

It is commonly accepted that the personality construct consists of two distinct yet neurologically interrelated elements: chemicals (e.g., hormones and neurotransmitters) and experience (Kalat, 1993). Both act to establish unique neurological networks. Relative to personality, psychiatry seeks for explanations in the individual's genetic inheritance… and the determining effect upon the maturing nervous system of the recording of the individual's life experiences (Kolb, 1968).

Historical Concepts of Personality

Early theories of personality centered on the ways in which one attempts to satisfy a central motive (Kalat, 1993), or, more specifically, the ways in which people routinely act. Robbins suggests that personality is simplistically the categorization of people by their exhibited

personality traits (discussed later). Personality theories span the 20th century with five distinct historical concepts evolving:

1. Sigmund Freud, Psychosexual Development (~1905)
2. Alfred Adler, Individual Psychology (~1911)
3. Carl Jung, Collective Unconscious (~1913)
4. John Watson, Behaviorism (~1913)
5. Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, Humanistic Psychology (~1950-1960)

Psychosexual Development. Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) was the first and most influential pioneer in this area. Following the work of fellow psychiatrist Josef Breuer in Vienna, Freud adopted his "talking cure" which laid the foundation for psycholanalysis, to which "psychoanalysts remain loyal" to this day (Kalat, 1993, p. 537). Breuer "…played important roles in Freud's developing interest in… the formulation of psychoanalysis" (Hothersall, 1990, p. 238). It was from this work that Freud went on to develop his well-known theory of personality.

Freud's "psychosexual" theory (~1905) of personality suggests that people progressively pass through five stages of development: oral, anal, phallic, latent, and genital (see Hothersall, 1990; Kalat, 1993). Each stage, characterized by a "conflict between the gratification of instincts and the limitations of the external world" (Hothersall, 1990, p. 245) with a "characteristic sexual focus" (Kalat, 1993, p. 539), determines adult personality. Listed in Table 9 are the developmental stages with corresponding age range, stage development contributors, and the proposed adult personality traits. However, it is important to note that, as Kalat states, "to the extent that Freud's theory of psychosexual development is testable, the evidence is as yet unconvincing" (Kalat, 1993, p. 541). Freud's early theories remain academically interesting, but not well accepted as a contemporary, practical guide to personality.

Table 9. Freud's Psychosexual development stages

Stage	Age	Contributor	Adult Trait
Oral	< 1 year	Derives pleasure from stimulation of the mouth. Too little or too much opportunity for sucking.	Emphasis on the mouth, deriving pleasure from eating, drinking, smoking, kissing. Lasting concerns with dependence and independence.
Anal	1 – 3 years	Enjoy the sensation of either excreting feces or the sensation of holding them back. Fixation associated with toilet training.	Orderly, stingy, and stubborn.
Phallic	> 3 years	Pleasure from playing with genitals. Fixation associated with parent shame feedback.	Difficult to experience closeness and love.
Latent	5-6 yrs to adolescence	Self-suppress psychosexual interests. Play with same-sex peers.	No fixations at this latent period.
Genital	Puberty and on	Strong sexual interest.	Primary satisfaction from sexual intercourse.

Individual Psychology. Alfred Adler (1870-1937), psychiatrist, meeting each Wednesday with Freud and three others, formed what became known as the Wednesday Psychoanalytical Society. They met in Freud's Vienna house, continuing their collaboration and friendship, the group quickly growing to over 20. However, by 1911 Adler had become disillusioned by Freud's sexual theories. He left their association to further explore his psychology concepts (see Hothersall, 1990, pp. 246-249; Kalat, 1993, pp. 548-549).

Adler founded a school of "individual psychology" (also known as Adlerian psychoanalysis) emphasizing the "psychology of the person as a whole rather than a psychology of parts, such as id, ego, and superego" (Kalat, 1993, p. 548). Adler's fundamental concept was that people try to overcome weakness. Some, unsuccessful, suffer from *inferiority complex* (Kalat, 1993), or "complex or emotionally toned ideas arising from repressed fear and

resentment associated with real or imagined inferiority" (Dictionary, 2003, p. 364). Like Freud, Adler believed that these personality traits were borne of childhood experiences.

Collective Unconscious. Carl Jung was Freud's heir apparent (Kalat, 1993). They remained in close friendship and collaboration starting in 1906 until, in 1913, a bitter estrangement developed (Hothersall, 1990). A primary contributing factor to this "estrangement" was Jung's break with Freud and his development of the concept of "collective unconscious" (~1913).

Much like Freud, Jung believed that beneath one's conscious state was a second, deeper "sub-conscious." However, Jung also believed that there exists a third level, underlying the conscious and sub-conscious state, a "collective unconscious." Collective unconscious is "a part of the unconscious additional to the personal unconscious, containing memories, instincts, and experiences that are shared by all people" (Dictionary, 2003, p. 144) which "represents the cumulative experience of preceding generations" (Kalat, 1993, p. 546). Jung followed much of Freud's theory of personality development with the exception of his concept of the "collective unconscious." With it, Jung put a greater emphasis on "people's search for a spiritual meaning in life and the continuity of human experience" (Kalat, 1993, p. 546).

Contemporary use of Jung's concept is mixed. Most psychotherapists are aware of it, some using it extensively. A major challenged of greater use of it is that "his ideas are vague and mystical… and difficult to deal with scientifically" (Kalat, 1993, p. 548).

Behaviorism. John Watson (1878-1958) had a radical break with classical experimental psychology. He launched his school of psychology in 1913 centered on the prediction and control of behavior. Watson believed that behavior is a product of learning and learning consists of conditioning (see Dictionary, 2003, pp. 83-84). Behaviorists believe that "A self or

personality is at best a repertoire of behavior imparted by an organized set of contingencies… genetic endowment is nothing until it has been exposed to the environment, and the exposure immediately changes it" (Skinner, 1974, p. 149-150). Personality is then a function of environmental experiences.

Humanistic psychology. Humanistic psychology proposes that "personality depends on what people believe and how they perceive the world" (Kalat, 1993, p. 549). A more contemporary, accepted view of personality development, humanistic psychology "was influenced by existentialism and phenomenology, stressing individual free will, responsibility, and self-actualization" (Dictionary, 2003, p. 340). They believe that personality is "the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life" (Valle & Halling, 1989, p. 182). Valle and Halling contend that human behavior has to be interpreted within context and not as events, "psychiatry is the study of interpersonal relations and not the study of personality *per se*" (1989, p. 182).

Two champions of the humanistic psychology movement were Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow (previously discussed in motivation section).

Contemporary Concepts of Personality

Development. Many believe that the contemporary study of personality began with the 1937 effort of Gordon Allport and H.S. Odbert. In their review of personality they identified 17,953 words describing personality referenced in an English dictionary (Kalat, 1993). They further reduced this initial extensive list to 4,505 (removing redundancies, evaluative words, synonyms, etc.), to finally develop clusters of 35 personality traits. Using factor analysis, Allport and Odbert finally established what has become know as the "Big Five" personality traits (Kalat, 1993; Zuckerman, 1993). This system is considered today the best paradigm for

personality structure (Zuckerman, 1993), and is widely accepted as the fundamental dimension of human personality (Dictionary, 2003). We will explore the "Big Five" and current evolutionary changes to it (see section Personality Traits), but first it is interesting to note that, in fact, contrary to popularly belief in the United States, the study of personality started much earlier (Lombardo & Foschi, 2003).

Lombardo and Foscht explore the earliest roots of personality study back to Ribot in 1870 France. Ribot is credited with creating in France a "positive psychology founded on the study of personality" (Lombardo & Foschi, 2003, p. 124). The French tradition of positive psychology and personality, interestingly, significantly differs from the German concentration on psychopathological concepts.

Much like Freud, contemporary theories of personality also suggest that fundamental personality styles are derived from early experiences (Blatt, S., & Levy, 1997). Blatt and colleagues suggest that this early experience is that of the infant-caregiver relationship, establishing mental representations of self and others from these early attachment patterns. These mental schemas are "heuristic guides that organize experience, modulate effect, and provide direction for subsequent behavior" (Blatt et al., 1997, p. 354).

Personality Traits

Model: Conventional Big-Five. According to Kalat (1993):

1. Neuroticism: Tendency to experience unpleasant emotions relatively easily.
2. Extraversion: Tendency to seek new experiences and to enjoy the company of other people.
3. Agreeableness: Tendency to be compassionate toward others and not antagonistic.

4. Conscientiousness: Tendency to show self-discipline, to be dutiful, and to strive for achievement and competence.
5. Openness to experience: Tendency to enjoy new experiences, especially intellectual experiences.

Model: Alternative Big-Five. According to Zuckerman (1993):

1. ImpUSS (Impulsive Unsocialized Sensation Seeking): The impulsivity items involve a lack of planning and the tendency to act impulsively without thinking. Most can be described as experience seeking, or the willingness to take risks for the sake of excitement or novel experience.
2. N-Anx (Neuroticism-Anxiety): These items describe emotional upset, tension, worry, fearfulness, obsessive indecision, lack of self-confidence, and sensitivity to criticism.
3. Agg-Host (Aggression-Hostility): Readiness to express verbal aggression, rude thoughtless, or antisocial behavior, vengefulness, and spitefulness.
4. Act (Activity): Need for activity and an inability to relax and do nothing when the opportunity presents itself.
5. Sy (Sociability): Number of and time spent with friends, preference for being with others as opposed to being alone and pursuing solitary activities.

Model: Big-Three.

1. Extraversion-Introversion (ranging from desire to seek new experiences and to enjoy the company of other people to a predominant concern with one's own thoughts and feelings)

2. Neuroticism (ranging from one extreme of neuroticism, including such traits as nervousness, tenseness, moodiness, and temperamentality, to the opposite extreme of emotional stability)
3. Psychoticism (characterized by traits such as aggressiveness, coldness, impulsiveness, antisocial behavior, tough-mindedness, and creativity)

Personality Assessment

The mention of personality test conjures up images of lab-coated facilitators administering standard written tests. One could easily assume that these test, chronicled in countless movies and stories, are all the same. However, a recent review revealed that there are over 270 personality tests (Sweetland & Keyser, 1991). However, some such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)[3], have no supporting evidence that suggests that it is valid (Robbins, 2003).

All of these test are "standardized tests" in that they are "administered according to specific rules and whose scores are interpreted in a prescribed fashion" (Kalat, 1993, p. 563) and norms have been established (Dictionary, 2003). Kalat suggests that most of the popular personality tests have been developed with "almost no theoretical basis" (1993, p. 563). How accurate they are, then, is called into question. New, theory-based test, however, are being developed. Some of the more popular tests include:

- MMPI. See Appendix E
- 16PF. See Appendix F
- TAT. See Appendix C
- Rorchach. See Appendix G

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Appendix A, Hawthorne

Manufacturing Knowledge: A History of the Hawthorne Experiments.
By Richard Gillespie New York: Cambridge University Press, 1991. x + 282 pp. ISBN 0-521-40358-8.

Reviewed by Gitelman, H M. Business History Review. Boston: Autumn 1992. Vol. 66, Iss. 3; pg. 590, 3 pgs

Because the central questions raised by the Hawthorne experiments remain unanswered, many people with diverse interests are likely to want to read this account. What are the main influences on worker performance? And how can managers and supervisors employ their understanding of these influences to generate the results they desire? Each of us has probably formulated our own answers to these questions, which in one way or another harken back to what has been written or said about Hawthorne. As a student of industrial relations, I had always believed that the main message coming out of the experiments was that mutual respect was the key to worker performance and that, with few exceptions, American managers found that too high a price to pay for the collaboration they desired. One of the many virtues of Richard Gillespie's careful examination of both the experiments and the experimenters is that it reveals how many interpretations of the evidence there have been.

The experiments at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant took a variety of forms that sometimes bore little relation to one another. They began with a series of lighting tests that discontinuously spanned the period from November 1924 to May 1927. These were followed by the establishment of the Relay Assembly Test Room (April 1927 to February 1933), the Interview Program (September 1928 to January 1931), the Mica Splitting Test Room (October 1928 to March 1931), and the Bank Wiring Test Room (November 1931 to May 1932). The two experiments most often discussed are the Relay Assembly, which involved five women, and the Bank Wiring, which involved fourteen men. Rarely have the day-to-day activities of so few workers been made to bear such a load of intellectual and social consequences.

Gillespie explains the provenance of each experiment and, in the case of the Relay Assembly, has re-examined the original experimental data. This has led him to the critical discovery that the replacement of two of the original participants was surrounded by more controversy than the primary published account--Fritz Roethlisberger and William Dickson's Management and the Worker (1939)--admits. He infers that this event probably had consequences for the participants that were also glossed over.

But the main drama in Gillespie's volume surrounds the question of who would interpret the mountain of experimental data. Company officials thought they understood many of the factors that were influencing worker performance. They were also perplexed by the realization that the data seemed open to many competing interpretations. It was at this juncture, in April 1928, that Elton Mayo paid his first visit to Hawthorne.

Gillespie does an admirable job of sketching Mayo's intellectual development and explaining why his ideas (which now seem bizarre) won him such wide and powerful support. With financial backing from Rockefeller sources, a position on the Harvard Business School faculty, and ties through the Special Conference Committee to a powerful circle of corporate leaders, Mayo was given control over the interpretation of the Hawthorne data. The story is very much one of intellectual conjuncture--of Mayo's saying what a number of intelligent and influential people obviously wanted to hear.

Even within the framework of Mayo's dominance, however, competing factors of various sorts--Lloyd Warner's anthropology, the theories of Vilfredo Pareto, and the ravages of time, among them--arose to push the interpretations in different directions. These factors are smoothly integrated into the narrative and add to the richness of its texture. The volume closes with useful surveys of the subsequent impact of the official interpretations on management practice and on academic, mainly sociological, thought.

Readers should not be put off by Gillespie's insistent rediscovery of the principle that experimental data must always be interpreted and that the interpreters are never value-free. Nor should the slight edge of disdain present in the early sections (and happily absent from the concluding chapters) be permitted to detract from an otherwise accomplished piece of work. There is, however, something profoundly academic about discussions of worker motivations and managerial strategies in an economy that all too frequently subjects large elements of the labor force to the pain and frustrations of unemployment.

Appendix B, Maslow

Rethinking Maslow's Needs
Kathy Wachter. Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences. Alexandria: Apr 2003. Vol. 95, Iss. 2; pg. 68

The body of knowledge and human needs can be viewed from several perspectives. Maslow's hierarchy is one example. Literature on Maslow's needs hierarchy is unclear on the universality of the concept (Seeley, 1992). Porter et al. (1991) suggest that Maslow's needs hierarchy has limits. Schneider et al. (1973) in addition did not find strong support for the five needs. A study conducted in Latin America (Aram et al., 1978) using Maslow's needs hierarchy, consumption patterns, and socio-economic variables, discovered four needs rather than five. Alderfer (1969) proposed a three-needs model: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (ERG). This model further condenses and incorporates Maslow's five needs. The ERG Model is neither hierarchical nor linear, and can operate simultaneously based on the situation.

A challenge for needs research is the universality of models primarily derived from Western thought. Maslow (1954) indicated that the needs hierarchy is a cultural universal. If this is true, then all cultures would support the needs hierarchy. This may hold true for Western individualist cultures; however, if the culture is collectivist or group focused, Maslow's model may not reflect needs across cultures. Seeley (1992) believes needs are expressed and influenced by learning, tradition, and culture. Different behaviors satisfy needs.

Technology, communication, and transportation systems encourage interdependence among countries and people around the world. The global environment and behavior in context of culture encourages thinking about how ecology (global resources) and social structures (systems to produce within the context of individuals, family, friends, peers, community, nation, world), develop a framework that promotes a worldwide view of global interdependence (Triandis et al., 2002; Evan, 1997; Steers et al., 1991). Interdependence considers how individuals, families, communities, friends, and peers within the systems theory develop similar meaning around the globe. We may need to think of our discipline as a collective in view of the family and community. Sharing ideas, stability, group social and political decisions for the global good of all promotes a collective view.

McClelland et al. (1953) suggested that needs are learned. Culture may be viewed as the learned content of symbols that have shared meaning and value. The symbols, meanings, and values can vary and distinguish one group or culture from another. Can Maslow's basic human needs, developed in the United States, be a global needs hierarchy? In cultures where the group or collectivist is valued, the self or individual is part of the group, thus interdependence is valued over the individual (Hui, 1988). Hui (1988) found that the collective aspect of culture had greater value for the Chinese compared to Americans under conditions of shared responsibility. Herzberg et al. (1959) and Hofstede (1980) identified quality of life (and by inference family and community) as having greater value/need in countries such as Sweden and Denmark versus the value of productivity (and by inference, individual) in the United States. The level of economic development within a culture/country will influence needs and their preference/order (Ronen, 2001; Steers et al., 1991; Aram et al., 1978). The individuals' behavior within the family, with peers, friends, and the community are culture bound (O'Reilly et al., 1973).

What other interpretations might encourage discussion of the needs construct and global interdependence within the body of knowledge of the FCS discipline? In parts of the world where the group or collective is valued, esteem and self may never be realized as the individual is viewed as non-conforming. Seeley (1992) says capitalist/competitive systems such as that in the U. S. promote esteem and the self. Triandis et al. (2002) supports this saying North America, along with Northern and Western Europe, consider how the personal self, or 'I,' interacts with the environment. Individual success becomes the incentive in these cultures. Countries in which the societal orientation is belonging (e.g., Asia, Africa, South America); the collective or my in holistic thought becomes a motivation factor from failure rather than success (Triandis et al., 2002; Seeley, 1992). Seeley (1992, p. 137) indicates that "situational determinants of behavior [needs] are important universally."

Research on needs is inconclusive and therefore it is important to continually monitor or engage in studies. Frameworks such as Evan's (1997) that incorporate the global village should be examined.

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Appendix C, TAT

Source: http://www.healthatoz.com/healthatoz/Atoz/ency/thematic_apperception_test.html

THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST (TAT)

Definition

The thematic apperception test (TAT) is a projective personality test that was designed at Harvard in the 1930s by Christiana D. Morgan and Henry A. Murray. Along with the MMPI and the Rorschach, the TAT is one of the most widely used psychological tests. A projective test is one in which a person's patterns of thought, attitudes, observational capacity, and emotional responses are evaluated on the basis of responses to ambiguous test materials. The TAT consists of 31 pictures that depict a variety of social and interpersonal situations. The subject is asked to tell a story about each picture to the examiner. Of the 31 pictures, 10 are gender-specific while 21 others can be used with adults of either sex and with children. As of 2001, the TAT is distributed by Harcourt Brace Educational Measurement.

Purpose

The original purpose of the TAT was to reveal the underlying dynamics of the subject's personality, such as internal conflicts, dominant drives and interests, motives, etc. The specific motives that the TAT assesses include the need for achievement, need for power, the need for intimacy, and problem-solving abilities. After World War II, however, the TAT was used by psychoanalysts and clinicians from other schools of thought to evaluate emotionally disturbed patients. Another shift took place in the 1970s, when the influence of the human potential movement led many psychologists to emphasize the usefulness of the TAT in assessment services-that is, using the test to help clients understand themselves better and stimulate their personal growth.

The TAT is widely used to research certain topics in psychology, such as dreams and fantasies, mate selection, the factors that motivate people's choice of occupations, and similar subjects. It is sometimes used in psychiatric evaluations to assess disordered thinking and in forensic examinations to evaluate crime suspects, even though it is not a diagnostic test. As mentioned earlier, the TAT can be used to help people understand their own personality in greater depth and build on that knowledge in making important life decisions. Lastly, it is sometimes used as a screener in psychological evaluations of candidates for high-stress occupations (law enforcement, the military, religious ministry, etc.).

Precautions

The TAT has been criticized for its lack of a standardized method of administration as well as the lack of standard norms for interpretation. Studies of the interactions between examiners and test subjects have found that the race, sex, and social class of both participants influence both the stories that are told and the way the stories are interpreted by the examiner. Attempts have been made to design sets of TAT cards for African American and for elderly test subjects, but the results have not been encouraging. In addition, the 31 standard pictures have been criticized for being too gloomy or depressing, and therefore limiting the range of personality characteristics that the test can assess.

Description

There is no standardized procedure or set of cards for administering the TAT, except that it is a one-on-one test. It cannot be administered to groups. In one common method of administration, the examiner shows the subject only 10 of the 31 cards at each of two sessions. The sessions are not timed, but average about an hour in length.

Preparation

There is no specific preparation necessary before taking the TAT, although most examiners prefer to schedule sessions (if there is more than one) over two days.

Risks

The chief risks involved in taking the TAT are a bad "fit" between the examiner and the test subject, and misuse of the results.

Normal results

Since the TAT is used primarily for personality assessment rather than diagnosis of mental disorders, it does not yield a "score" in the usual sense.

Key Terms

Apperception
The process of understanding through linkage with previous experience.

Human potential movement
A movement in psychotherapy that began in the 1960s and emphasized maximizing the potential of each participant through such techniques as group therapy and sensitivity training.

Projective test
A type of psychological test that assesses a person's thinking patterns, observational ability, feelings, and attitudes on the basis of responses to ambiguous test materials. It is not intended to diagnose psychiatric disorders.

Appendix D, McClelland

Source: http://www.mcclellandmedia.com/psych.html

David McClelland (1917-1998) Is a Boston-based Psychologist whose behavioural science work has influenced three generations of organisational behaviour specialists. His extensive research covers several areas of business-related and organisational behaviour issues. An expert on human behaviour, McClelland is a distinguished Research Professor of Psychology at Boston University and a Professor Emeritus of Psychology at Harvard University in Cambridge Massachusetts. He also founded and directs Mcber, a human resources management-consulting firm.

McClelland's central disciplines are human behaviour and sociology. He is internationally acclaimed for his early work in measuring human needs and motivation. He has also achieved recognition for his studies in human competence and qualifications as central factors in personnel selection.

Human Needs and Motivation.

During the 1940's, McClelland and a group of experts revolutionised the field of organisational behaviour studies through their experimentation with the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). This methodology involved measurement of human needs and motivation through the usage of pictorial displays. McClelland's innovative conclusions from the Tat Studies indicated that people acquired different needs over time as a result of life experiences. He identified three needs that affect motivation of organisational behaviour both of individuals and organisations:

Need for Achievement - The desire to do something better or more efficiently to solve problems, or to master complex tasks.

Need for Affiliation - The desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with others.

Need for Power - The desire to control others, to influence their behaviour, or to be responsible for others

At that time, his results were tested on social environments in developed and developing countries with meaningful and effective results. In his preeminent book "The Achieving Society" (1961, Van Nostrand), McClelland isolated certain psychological factors to demonstrate by rigorous quantitative methods that the needs above are generally but positively linked to economic development. During the 1970's, McClelland applied his research findings to private and public organisations. Initially, McClelland profiled behaviour and motivation patterns in managers through defining three characterisations:

Institutional Management - High in Power Motivation and Inhibition.

Affiliative - High in Affiliation Motivation

Personal Power - Inhibition Is Low and Motivation for Personal Power Is High.

McClelland refined these conclusions and, in several articles, indicated that the need for power is the most important characteristic for a manager's success. He claimed that the need for achievement alone would not make a person a good manager. While achievement motivated people to "to do things for themselves and want concrete short-term feedback on their performance so that they can tell how well they are doing,"[1] the manager's job seemed to call more for someone who can influence people than for someone who does things better alone. That is why, in motivational terms, McClelland expected the successful manager to have a greater need for power than a need for achievement. Recently, [2] McClelland complemented his twenty-year old argument with additional knowledge about companies where decentralisation has taken place and has become a dominant factor. He asserted that the decentralisation of functions can cause the need for achievement to become a critical contributor to managerial success.

Hunt, Osborn, and Schermerhorn have synthesised McClelland's work with that of Frederick Herzberg and others. Hunt, et al, believe that McClelland's findings are particularly useful when each need is linked with a set of work preferences such as individual responsibility, challenging but achievable goals, interpersonal relationships, influence over other persons, attention and recognition. In addition, they have indicated that learning about these needs would make possible to relate every Individual with the need profiles required to succeed in various types of jobs.

Human Competence and Qualifications as Central Factors in Personnel Selection.

The relationship between truly acquired human needs and job design links McClelland's needs and motivation theory to his latest research topic: Personnel Selection and Competencies. In an article in the Financial Times (October 12, 1994), Richard Donkin and McClelland analysed this area of organisational behaviour and concluded that "Value-adding"qualities in an individual are not totally related with academic achievement. They indicated that, from a cost effectiveness stand-point, it Is better to hire for core motivation and trait characteristics and

develop knowledge and skills. Chris Dyson, a colleague of McClelland at Hay/Mcber in the United Kingdom explained, "you can teach a turkey to climb a tree, but it is easier to hire a squirrel."

McClelland criticises psychometric testing as a way to predict what a person can do if asked to do it. He remains convinced that the best approach is to study the way people do their work in order to find how they do it best. Hence his definite position on using competencies in assessment of job performance.

Source: http://www.aaml.org/MMPI.htm

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)

Article by: Cheryl L. Karp, Ph.D., Leonard Karp, J.D.

INTRODUCTION:

The MMPI is the most frequently used clinical test. Therefore, it is employed quite often in court cases to provide personality information on defendants or litigants in which psychological adjustment factors are pertinent to resolution of the case. It is easy to administer and provides an objective measure of personality. Since it is such a well-researched and highly reliable instrument, it is often used in custody evaluations. It provides clear, valid descriptions of people's problems, symptoms, and characteristics in broadly accepted clinical language. The profiles are easy to explain in court and appear to be relatively easy for people to understand. However, with any psychological instrument, it is important to acquaint yourself with the background of the test and to acquaint yourself with the assets and liabilities of any test used to assess your client.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, or MMPI, was developed in the late 1930s by a psychologist and a psychiatrist at the University of Minnesota. It was originally intended for use with an adult population, but was then extended to include teenagers, mostly for teens in the middle years, about 15 and 16. It required at least a sixth grade reading level, so it was definitely not applicable for average children below the age of about 13 or for retarded persons. The MMPI was sometimes given to bright children of 11 or 12 years, but then great caution was exercised in the interpretation of the results. When the MMPI was completely revised in 1989 (see MMPI-2, next section), adolescent norms were not developed. The new instrument was not intended to be used for adolescents. Therefore, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-Adolescent (MMPI-A) was developed. Although the MMPI has undergone a complete revision, resulting in the MMPI-2, the MMPI is discussed here since many psychologists still report results from the MMPI and it forms the basis for the MMPI-2.

The MMPI has ten clinical scales and three validity scales plus a host of supplementary scales. The clinical scales were originally intended to distinguish "pure" groups with psychiatric disorders. Therefore, the actual names of the scales assert bold and, sometimes, exotic sounding psychiatric labels. For example, Scale 1 is referred to as the hypochondriasis scale, Scale 8 is labeled the schizophrenia scale, Scale 9 is labeled the hypomania scale, Scale 4 is the psychopathic deviate scale, and Scale 7 is the psychasthenia scale. Other scales reflect more understandable symptoms such as Scale 2, depression; Scale 3, hysteria; Scale 5, masculinity-femininity; Scale 6, paranoia; and Scale 0, social introversion.

Researchers quickly found out that the scales were not able to be "pure" measures of the psychiatric diagnostic groups (in part this is due to the overlap in symptoms in some of the disorders). Thus, an elevation on Scale 8 did not mean that the client was definitely schizophrenic. As a result, the numbers of the subscales quickly replace the psychiatric labels in common usage. Thus, instead of talking about the hypochondriasis scale, the clinician will talk about Scale 1.

Researchers also found out that it was common for people to score high on more than one scale at the same time and that interpretations using two or more scales tended to be more sophisticated or refined, more useful, and more accurate. Therefore, patterns of elevations were distinguished, and the numbers were used as a shorthand to describe the elevations. Thus, a 2 4 meant that there were elevations above the "normal" range on scales 2 and 4, and 2 was the higher elevation. When the elevations are noted (either as done here or when presented as a graph), the result is called a "profile." Researchers literally went out and gathered data on the personality characteristics of those who scored high on the 2 4 or any other combination (sometimes relevant clustering involving three scales, such as a 4 6 8). The amount of research is impressive.

As mentioned earlier, the MMPI is vulnerable to faking because of the transparency of some of the items. The three validity scales are designed to help the psychologist identify abnormal response sets that might suggest "faking good" or "faking bad." In spite of these special scales, it is easier for the client to slant answers to give a favorable or unfavorable impression with the MMPI than with the Rorschach, for example. On the other hand, it is much more difficult to consistently bias the MMPI than an instrument of less complexity and more transparency, such as the Thematic Apperception Test (the TAT).

The nature of the instrument, with true and false answers and patterns readily identifiable, has prompted the development of books to supply interpretations of the results. The information is given in the form of descriptive statements that tend to be true of clients whose scores yield certain profiles. These books tend to be called "cookbooks" by psychologists. Thus, if the result shows a 2 4 profile, one can look in any number of "cookbooks" to find the personality descriptors attached to elevations on 2 and 4 alone and then as a combined pattern.

In the hands of a skilled and experienced psychologist, the MMPI is a powerful instrument and allows for powerful presentation in court. However, the MMPI must be interpreted in light of the biographical and other information about the client. "Blind interpretations," where nothing is known of the client except perhaps gender, may be useful for testing a psychologist's memory about the descriptive statements attached to certain individual scale elevations or certain profiles. They are not useful, and may be dangerous, in interpreting MMPI results for forensic work or any other professional psychology work. For example, an elevation on Scale 8 (*schizophrenia*) may have a different interpretation if the client is in a psychiatric hospital than if the person is a respected professor at a university, with no history of psychiatric disorder, who is interested in yoga or some other occult or esoteric study.

The psychologist administering and interpreting the MMPI must pay attention to all relevant factors, including age, sex, education, social class, religious background, place of residence, and other historical data. This information must be integrated correctly with research data, such as is found in the "cookbooks," in order for the interpretation to be valid.

Computer use has brought other problems to the area of MMPI interpretation. Computer programs have been developed to allow computers to score the raw data (anywhere from 399 true and false answers for the "abbreviated" MMPI form to almost 600 answers for the full MMPI form), produce the files in printed graph form, and do the work of fetching interpretative information from "cookbooks." Undeniably, the computers save valuable time for psychologists. Yet, their use with the MMPI has opened the way for some serious problems.

This advanced technology lends an image of "truth" or "accuracy" to the printout results that may mislead even psychologists. Also, this technology is more readily available to nonpsychologists than is wise. Persons with no or minimal training in psychology and psychological testing may use a computer report to make statements about a person's personality functioning that sound definitive or are presented as such. Even generally competent and respectable practitioners in fields normally thought to be "allied to" psychology, such as psychiatry or clinical social work, can make the grievous error of believing that they have acted responsibly or done a good job when they make conclusions about a client based solely or predominantly on the MMPI, using a computer to produce scores and interpretations. The MMPI needs to be interpreted in light of many factors often not considered by the computer programs. Computer programs frequently require only information about the client's sex, age, and achieved education level, not other factors such as current life stressors or other life experiences or environmental factors.

Furthermore, when used as part of a testing battery, the MMPI results must be integrated with all the testing and historical data and finally interpreted in light of all of the psychologist's psychological knowledge. Doing this may alter the psychologist's original interpretation of the MMPI, as will be discussed below in the section on the interpretation of the Rorschach. Nonpsychologists should not and usually cannot administer a whole test battery and interpret it appropriately.

Secondly, many computer reports focus mainly on giving statements about the elevation of each individual scale, with perhaps cursory statements about the highest two scales considered together. Unfortunately, there is not a statement at the beginning of the computer printout explaining whether the statements are from research with a normal or abnormal population. For example, an elevation on Scale 4 (the *psychopathic deviate* scale) may yield statements about interesting personality qualities such as "independence" or "anger." (one psychologist working with a codependency program was heard repeatedly calling Scale 4 the "anger" scale, an interesting oversimplification.) Such single scale interpretative statements may be of help describing a normal person who is an independent thinker, who follows society's mores and laws, but reserves the right to make his or her own moral judgments and may lawfully and appropriately challenge authority. It does not begin to do justice to the "independence" from

society's norms seen in a person with a history of seriously breaking society's mores and rules, such as the person expelled a number of times from school for various offenses or the person with a long history of violence or trouble with the law.

Thus, one can have the undesirable result that a psychologist may erroneously (and incompetently) use single statements from a computer to present someone accused of molestation in a rather favorable light, ignoring the fact that the overall pattern of the 4 9, combined with a history of violence against others and minor legal charges and convictions, demands a more serious and less favorable view of the client. On the other hand, you can have a parent with an elevation on Scale 4 labeled a probable antisocial personality (formerly known as psychopath or sociopath), while the elevation really suggests less sinister characteristics.

Antisocial persons and persons recently traumatized in some manner in interpersonal interactions (e.g., a rape victim or a man or woman recently divorced) may superficially share some characteristics reflected in an elevation on Scale 4, which can confuse interpretation of MMPI results. An elevated Scale 4 may suggest that the client does not allow himself or herself to become significantly close to others emotionally, has a lot of anger, and may be likely to misrepresent or lie about circumstances. A closer look at this is warranted.

A person with an antisocial personality disorder typically shows interpersonal distancing, that is, does not allow himself or herself to become significantly close to others. The person recently traumatized may likewise keep people from getting close. However, the similarity may end on the surface, because the antisocial personality may be charming in person but unable to bond. The traumatized person may be less charming in person and may be quite able to bond but fearful of doing so because of the trauma. Likewise, persons with antisocial personality disorders usually have a more or less disguised well of anger, typically feeling mistreated by society and entitled to act out against individuals or institutions. It is easy to see that a rape victim might have a well of anger, sometimes directed against the perpetrator and sometimes directed inwardly.

Persons with antisocial personality disorders typically lack guilt about their exploits; they simply hate being caught. Rape victims typically experience inappropriate guilt and hate what has happened and what they have "become." A convicted felon may have a 2 4 elevation, suggesting significant depression (the 2 is the "depression" scale), while sitting in a county jail on murder 1 charges or charges of domestic violence. Persons with personality disorders often develop real and significant depressions when caught and suffering the consequences of their misbehaving or criminal acts. Yet, a victim of domestic violence might just as easily have a 2 4 elevation, but the interpretation of the two profiles would or could be very different.

When it comes to the characteristic of lying and breaking society's mores and laws, the superficial similarities are likely to end. Persons with antisocial personalities may, indeed, lie about the legal charges confronting them and, for that matter, about many things. Like the antisocial personality, the rape victim may be putting emotional distance between herself and others and also may have a lot of anger. However, it does not follow, therefore, that, like the antisocial personality, the rape victim is also likely to lie and misrepresent circumstances and is also likely to have broken society's laws in the past or likely to break them in the future.

The best and most significant computer programs are extremely complicated and sophisticated. The good programs integrate the elevations from all the scales to eliminate contradictions that one can find looking only at individual scales (one scale may suggest that the person is depressed, while another scale may suggest that the person is optimistic). The most commonly used computer services are probably the ones from Minnesota (from the National Computer Service, with James Butcher, one of the experts in MMPI work as developer and advisor) and the one from Los Angeles (developed by Alexander Caldwell, another giant in the field of the MMPI).

The importance of having a skilled and competent psychologist to interpret testing results, including the computerized MMPI, cannot be stressed enough. Here are some things to watch for in evaluating whether a psychologist is adequately handling the MMPI:

1. Most psychologists trained in clinical psychology refer to the MMPI scale evaluations by numbers (2 4 or 4 6 8). If the psychologist mainly uses the scales' official names or stresses these official names, look further; the psychologist's primary training may not have been in the field of clinical psychology.

2. If the psychologist does not readily integrate the MMPI scale information, but is content with mainly single scale descriptors, take care in using the psychologist. Not only may the psychologist be ineptly interpreting the MMPI, but the psychologist's testimony would be very vulnerable to attack by a skillful cross examination or on rebuttal by a competent psychologist.

3. If the psychologist does not integrate the MMPI data with historical information and other testing data, and account for anomalies, then the work is not adequate.

4. To be most helpful, your psychologist consultant should be acquainted with the major developments in MMPI interpretation. The psychologist should be acquainted with the work of the Minnesota group and the Caldwell group and those associated with the work of those two groups. Caldwell has developed an alternative way of looking at and interpreting the scales that helps one understand that the 2 4 of the rape victim is different from the 2 4 of the convicted felon and helps one understand why that is so.

Custody evaluations or domestic violence litigation would be simpler and easier if there were MMPI patterns or profiles reliably correlated with the "perfect parent" or conviction for domestic violence or, better yet, highly correlated with admission of guilt in domestic violence cases. There are no such "molester" or "domestic abuser" profiles identified yet, but there may be in the future.

There has been research seeking to identify profiles of molesters. The populations studied have mainly been men in custody who are nonfamily molesters or are a mixed group of nonfamily molesters and incest molesters. This population may be very different from the general population of domestic violence abusers, molesters, or physical abusers of spouses or children. Furthermore, the number of people in the group studied have been too small for much weight to be given to the conclusions in terms of generalizing to other groups or the population at large. Some of the elevations seen on the profiles of the convicted offenders are not surprising; for example, an elevation on Scale 4 is common. One would never be surprised to see someone convicted (often of multiple offenses) scoring high on Scale 4 of the MMPI, but that would be common for anyone in penal custody.

Appendix F, 16PF Test

Source: http://www.pearsonassessments.com/assessments/tests/sixtpf_5.htm

The 16PF Tests

The 16PF Fifth Edition questionnaire, an assessment from Pearson Assessments, represents a controlled, natural evolution of the 16PF assessment. (The 16PF Fourth Edition is still available.) Continuing to assess the 16 factors first identified by Dr. Cattell over 40 years ago, the Fifth Edition helps measure levels of warmth, reasoning ability, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule consciousness, boldness, sensitivity, distrust, abstractedness, privateness, worrying, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension.

The Fifth Edition of the 16PF assessment also has five additional Global Factors on which related primary scales cluster together. These are Extraversion, Anxiety, Tough-Mindedness, Independence, and Self-Control. The five Global Factors help to show the relationships among the 16 primary scales. Composite scores for creativity, adjustment, and numerous other criterion-related scales are also available.

Norm Groups

A stratified random sampling that reflects the 1990 U.S. Census was used to create the normative sample, which consisted of 2,500 subjects (1,245 males and 1,255 females), ages ranged from 15 to 92. Years of education completed ranged from 7 to 25. The sample consisted of 321 African Americans, 76 Asians, 2010 Caucasians, 58 Native Americans, and 35 others. Norms are provided for three groups: males, females, and combined gender.

Scales

Bipolar Dimensions of Personality
Factor A Warmth (Reserved vs. Warm)
Factor B Reasoning (Concrete vs. Abstract)
Factor C Emotional Stability (Reactive vs. Emotionally Stable)
Factor E Dominance (Deferential vs. Dominant)
Factor F Liveliness (Serious vs. Lively)
Factor G Rule-Consciousness (Expedient vs. Rule-Conscious)
Factor H Social Boldness (Shy vs. Socially Bold)
Factor I Sensitivity (Utilitarian vs. Sensitive)
Factor L Vigilance (Trusting vs. Vigilant)
Factor M Abstractedness (Grounded vs. Abstracted)
Factor N Privateness (Forthright vs. Private)
Factor O Apprehension (Self-Assured vs. Apprehensive)
Factor Q1 Openness to Change (Traditional vs. Open to Change)
Factor Q2 Self-Reliance (Group-Oriented vs. Self-Reliant)
Factor Q3 Perfectionism (Tolerates Disorder vs. Perfectionistic)
Factor Q4 Tension (Relaxed vs. Tense)

Global Factors
EX Extraversion
ANX Anxiety
TM Tough-Mindedness
IN Independence
SC Self-Control

Criterion Scores
SE Self-Esteem*
EA Emotional Adjustment*
SA Social Adjustment*
EE Emotional Expressivity*
ES Emotional Sensitivity*
EC Emotional Control*
VE Social Expressivity*
VS Social Sensitivity*
VC Social Control*
EM Empathy*
LP Leadership Potential*
CP Creative Potential*
CA Creative Achievement*
DAS Dyadic Adjustment*

Vocational Themes
REA Realistic*
INV Investigative*
ART Artistic*
SOC Social*
ENT Enterprising*
CON Conventional*

Validity Scales
Factor IM Impression Management
Factor INF Infrequency
Factor ACQ Acquiesence

Degree of Compatibility
DOC Degree of Compatibility*

Couple's Compatibility Score
COM Couple's Compatibility*

Leadership Scores
L1 Assertive*
L2 Facilitative*
L3 Permissive*
L4 Leadership Style*

Appendix G, Rorschach Test

Source: http://www.pearsonassessments.com/assessments/tests/sixtpf_5.htm

The Rorschach Inkblot Test

The Rorschach inkblot test is a psychological projective test of personality in which a subject's interpretations of ten standard abstract designs are analyzed as a measure of emotional and intellectual functioning and integration. The test is named after Hermann Rorschach (1884-1922) who developed the inkblots, although he did not use them for personality analysis.

The test is considered "projective" because the patient is supposed to project his or her real personality into the inkblot via the interpretation. The inkblots are purportedly ambiguous, structureless entities which are to be given a clear structure by the interpreter. Those who believe in the efficacy of such tests think that they are a way of getting into the deepest recesses of the patient's psyche or subconscious mind. Those who give such tests believe themselves to be experts at interpreting their patients' interpretations.
What evidence is there that an interpretation of an inkblot (or a picture drawing or sample of handwriting--other items used in projective testing) issues from a part of the self that reveals true feelings, rather than, say, creative expression? What justification is there for assuming that any given interpretation of an inkblot does not issue from a part of the self bent on deceiving others, or on deceiving oneself for that matter? Even if the interpretations issued from a part of the self which expresses desires, it is a long jump from having desires to having committed actions. For example, an interpretation may unambiguously express the desire to have sex with the therapist, but that does not imply either that the patient has had sex with the therapist or that the patient, if given the opportunity, would agree to have sex with the therapist.

Rorschach testing is inherently problematic. For one thing, to be truly projective the inkblots must be considered ambiguous and without structure by the therapist. Hence, the therapist must not make reference to the inkblot in interpreting the patient's responses or else the therapist's projection would have to be taken into account by an independent party. Then the third person would have to be interpreted by a fourth ad infinitum. Thus, the therapist must interpret the patient's interpretation without reference to what is being interpreted. Clearly, the inkblot becomes superfluous. You might as well have the patient interpret spots on the wall or stains on the floor. In other words, the interpretation must be examined as if it were a story or dream with no particular reference in reality. Even so, ultimately the therapist must make a judgment about the interpretation, i.e., interpret the interpretation. But again, who is to interpret the therapist's interpretation? Another therapist? Then, who will interpret his? etc.

To avoid this logical problem of having a standard for a standard for a standard, etc., the experts invented standardized interpretations of interpretations. Both form and content are standardized. For example, a patient who attends only to a small part of the blot is "indicative of obsessive personality;" while one who sees figures which are half-human and half-animal indicates that he is alienated, perhaps on the brink of schizophrenic withdrawal from people (Dawes, 148). If there were no standardized interpretations of the interpretations, then the same interpretations by patients could be given equally valid but different interpretations by therapists. What empirical tests have been done to demonstrate that any given interpretation of an inkblot is indicative of any past behavior or predictive of any future behavior? In short, interpreting the inkblot test is about as scientific as interpreting dreams.

To have any hope of making the inkblot test appear to be scientifically valid, it was essential that it be turned into a non-projective test. The blots can't be considered completely formless, but must be given a standard response against which the interpretations of patients are to be compared as either good or bad responses. This is what John E. Exner did. The Exner System uses inkblots as a standardized test. On its face, the concept seems preposterous. Imagine admitting people into med school on the basis of such a standardized test! Or screening candidates for the police academy! ("I didn't get in because I failed the inkblot test.")
The Rorschach enthusiast should recognize that inkblots or dreams or drawings or handwriting may be no different in structure than spoken words or gestures. Each is capable of many interpretations, some true, some false, some meaningful, some meaningless. It is an unprovable assumption that dreams or inkblot interpretations issue from a source deep in the subconscious which wants to reveal the "real" self. The mind is a labyrinth and it is a pipe dream to think that the inkblot is Ariadne's thread which will lead the therapist to the center of the patient.

Footnotes

1. While there continues to be significant interests in needs theories of motivation (see Table 3), there is little research support for them. Schein argues that specific or individual aspects of needs-based research may be proven, that each theory is "partially true in that it explains the behavior of some employees or some managers some of the time" (1980, p. 39). However, Schein contends that the theories cannot be generally validated and, as suggested by Robbins, "[there is] little substantive evidence exists to indicate that following the theory will lead to a more motivated workforce" (Robbins, 2003, p. 44). Schein suggests that this may be based on the fallacy of the underlying assumptions. He suggests that human behavior is more strongly influenced by "learned motives and responses, which reflect our culture, our family situation, our socioeconomic background, and the actual here-and-now forces operating within any given life situation" (Schein, 1980, p. 40) than it does on inner needs.
2. Adequate means to operationalize concepts within the expectancy theory continues to be controversial (Ambrose, 1999). Operationalize, simply, is the construction of actual, concrete measures in the design of research (Babbie, 1998). Significant emphasis is placed in properly operationalizing the research project in that it forms the foundation upon which can be constructed clear and consistent research results. Differences in operationalization may cause inconsistent research effects (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).
3. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. One of the most popular personality questionnaires, especially in commercial and industrial contexts, designed to implement the theory of function types first suggested in 1923 by the Swiss psychologist Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961). It contains 126 items in its standard form (G) and 132 in its advanced form (K), all the items being concern with preferences and inclinations, and it measures four bipolar dimensions:

extraversion (E) versus introversion (I), sensing (S) versus intuition (N), thinking (T) versus feeling (F), and judging (J) versus perceiving (P) (Dictionary, 2003, p. 473).

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Suggested approaches to organizational studies are many and, together, form a confusing array of options.

Figure 1. Approaches to Organizational Studies

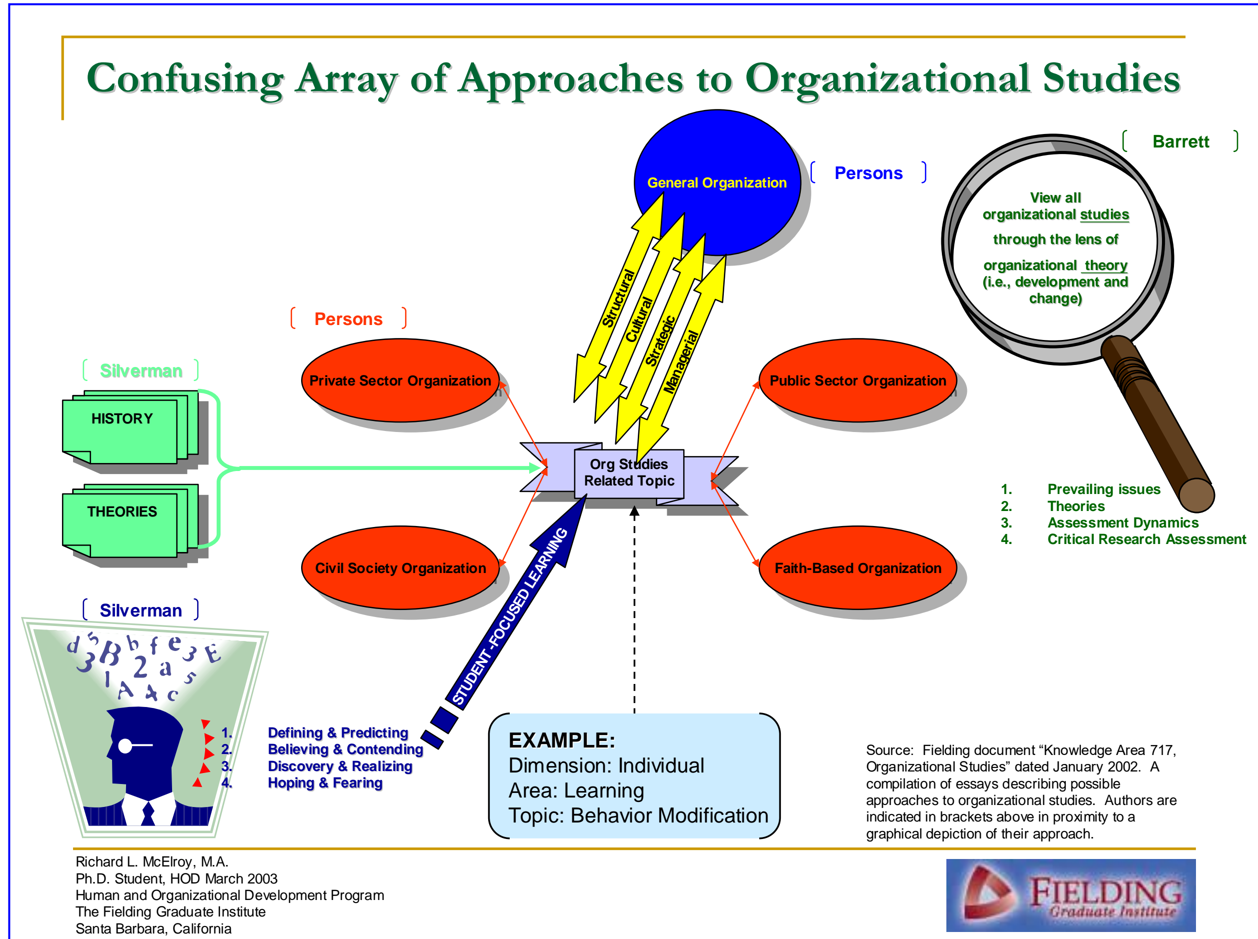

Figure 2. Lawler Model

(adapted from Exhibit 6.5, Johns, 1981, p. 173)- To Be Provided

Figure 3. Literature-Suggested Model

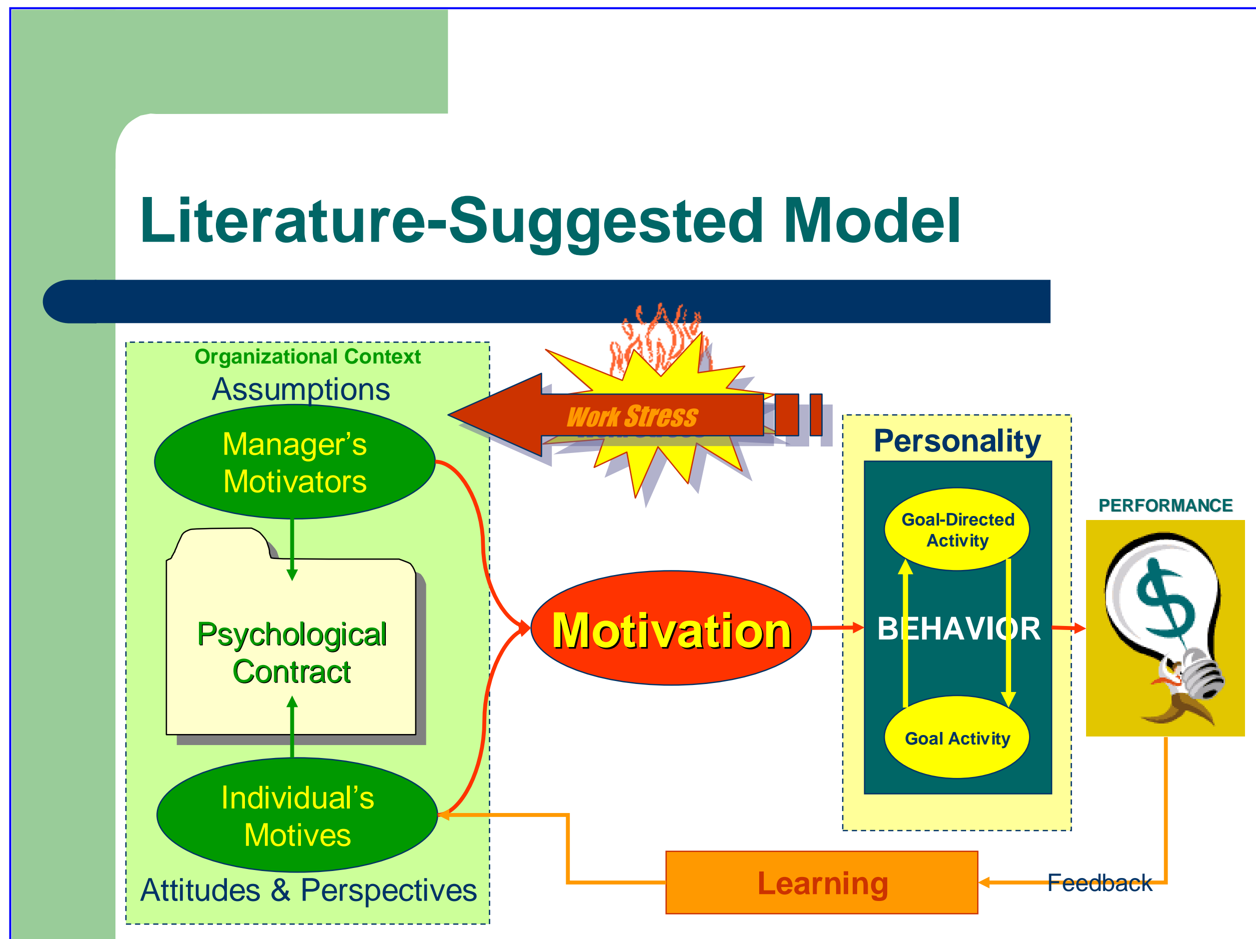

Figure 4. "Human Dynamic" Model

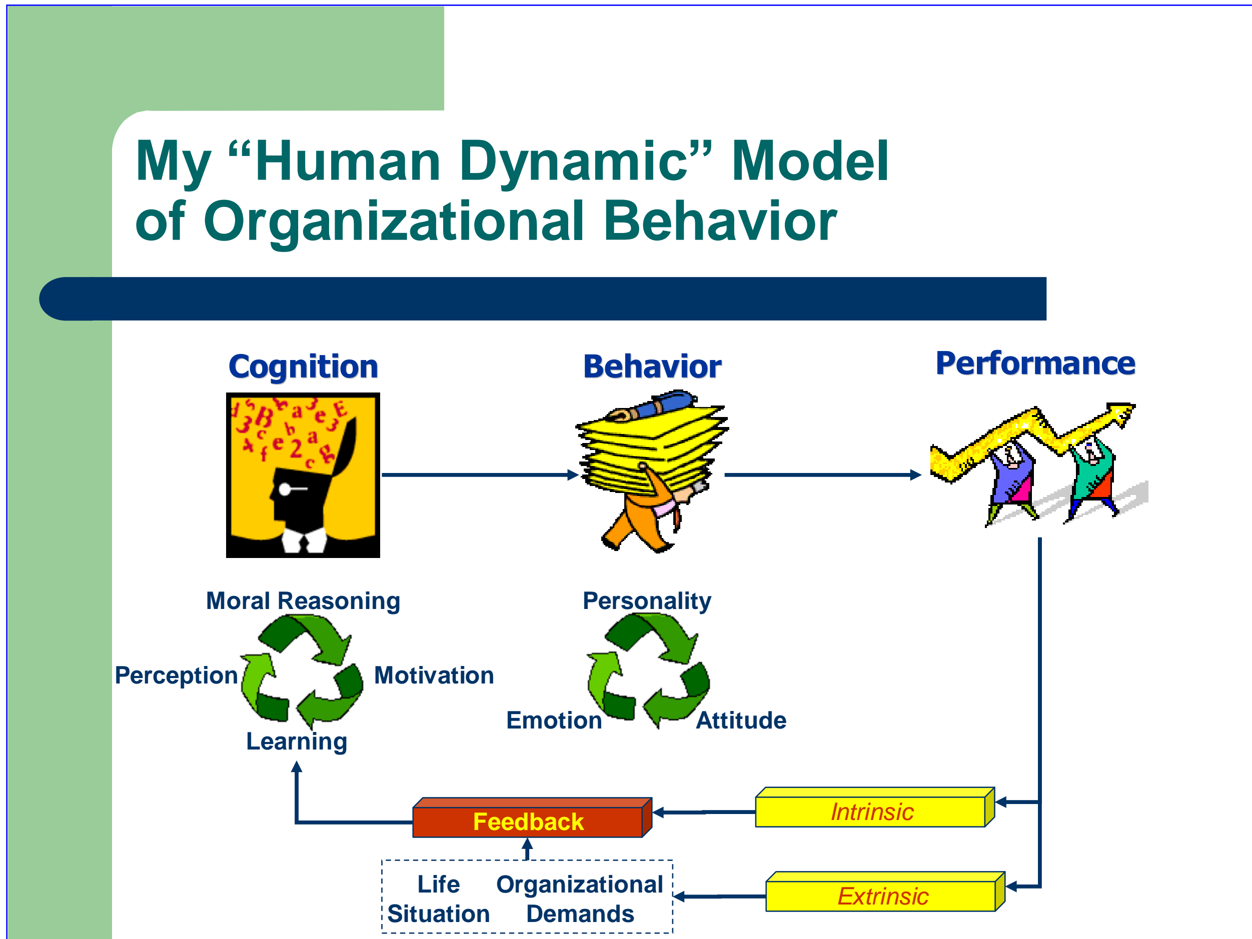

Figure 5. Depths of Necessary Study