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**THE COMBINED INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION AND
PERSONALITY ON JOB PERFORMANCE**

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Emotional Stability**

An individual's personality determines what motivates him. The personality of an individual, however, is what makes him unique and different from other persons, and this actually explains why what motivates one person may not motivate the other. Since motivation channels the inner drives of the workers to behave in a desired manner, then, it is not out of context to say that motivation affects job performance.

The interplay of motivation and personality as it affects job performance can be postulated thus;

$$\begin{array}{lcl} & P & = f(P^*, m) \\ \text{Where} & P & = \text{Job performance} \\ & P^* & = \text{personality} \\ & M & = \text{Motivation} \end{array}$$

The above equation portrays job performance as a function of motivation and Personality.

This paper intends to give an insight into: Motivation and personality, viz-a-viz some review of relevant literature on

personality theories (Psycho analytic approach, trait theory, social cognitive theory, humanistic approach, evolutionary/biological approach) on one side, and a Para-phrase of the motivational theories because the latter had been adequately handled by relevant authors in the areas of psychology and organizational behaviour (see Kreitner, Gibson, Worthman and Vroom studies).

- ✓ A brief review of the 'big five' dimensions of personality postulated by the traits theorists (extroversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, Conscientiousness and openness to ex theorists).
- ✓ Personality dimensions and job performance,
- ✓ Type 'A 'and Type 'B 'personality forwarded by Friedman and Rosenman in the 1950s and finally,
- ✓ Emotions and motivation.

INTRODUCTION

Motivation and personality continue to be topical issues in organizational setting because today's managers are less interested in an applicant's ability to perform a specific task than with his or her flexibility to meet changing situations. However, most of the prevailing theories in motivation are focused on individual motivation. They prescribed various techniques that can stimulate workers to work harder but most of them made scant reference to the individual's ability or its limits, general energy level as well as predisposition for working harder. Hence, some researchers have shown that mental and physical abilities (that is personality characteristics) can be reliable predictors of job performance (Robbins, 2001; Staw, 1986 and Dunnetter 1976).

Operationalization of Concepts

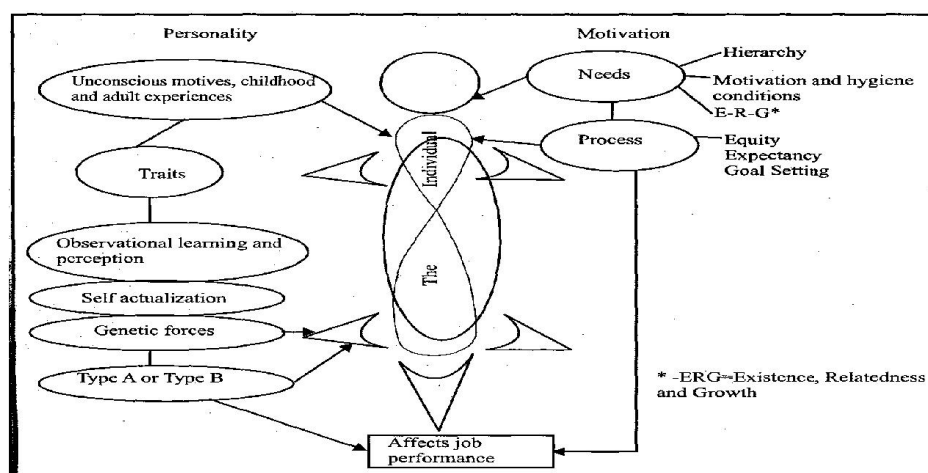
Motivation

Motivation could be defined as that which gives impetus to behaviour by arousing sustaining and directing it towards the attainment of goals. It is affected by emotions and deeply-held values of the individual. Motivation is the term used to describe those processes, both instinctive and rational, by which people seek to satisfy the basic drives, perceived needs and personal goals, which trigger human behaviour (Cole, 1995).

Personality

Personality consists of all the relatively stable and distinctive styles of thought, behaviour and emotional response that characterize a person's adaptations surrounding circumstances (Madd, 1976, Cen and Mischel, 1976). From a more precise perspective, personality denotes "those characteristics and qualities of a person seen as a whole; which differentiates him from another person.

Fig 1: A Model of Motivation and Personality



Source: Adapted and revised from Kreitner (1999), Gibson et al (1997), and Watson and Clark (1994).

Explanation:

What 'motivates' an individual depends on his 'personality'? An interplay of these two factors, (i.e. motivation and personality) affects individual's performance on the job.

A Review of Literature

Motivation Theories

Motivational theories are usually categorized into two groups: content and process (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976). The content theories identified central human needs such as lower/basic and higher order needs. Notable scholars in this category are Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Alderfer's E - R - G theory, and McClelland's three needs theory.

The process theories of motivation in contrast emphasized variables that are posited to determine cognitive choices for action. Such theories include Vroom's Expectancy theory, Porter and Lawler's expectancy theory, Stacy Adams' equity theory, Locke's goal-setting theory, etc (for more detailed overviews on motivational

Theories see Kreitner et al 1999, and Gibson et al, 1997 and V. Vroom and E.L. Deci, 1970).

However, the limitations of both content and process theories became apparent as critics argued that prevailing theories on motivation cannot predict performance and job behaviour, for example, why are some people successful as sales managers and some as managers? Second, needs are not universal'. For instance, the needs of African workers differ from those of European workers. Third, the theorists assumed that job performance is always under the control of the individual. Lastly, the theories in general have limited applicability to developing and underdeveloped nations since they did not consider cultural and ideological factors (Poole and Warner, 1998).

Complementary to the prevailing motivational theories mentioned above, there is the psychological domain, which involves Sigmund Freud's unconscious motives, drive-reduction theory by Clark Hull et al, the optimal arousal theory, etc, which emphasized drives and reinforcements as basis for motivation (see Worthman et al (1999) for further details). The obvious inability of prevailing motivational theories to predict job behaviour and job performance makes it expedient for us to examine the personality issues that under the job performance.

Personality Theories

There are five major perspectives in personality. These are the:

- ✓ Psychoanalytic approach
- ✓ Social Cognitive Theories
- ✓ Humanistic approach
- ✓ Evolutionary/Biological approach
- ✓ Trait Theory

The Psychoanalytic approach

This approach posited that the unconscious motivate human actions and also stressed the role of childhood experiences in shaping adult personality. Sigmund Freud is the originator of the psychoanalytic school and he regarded the human mind (Psyche) as an enormous part of the body that consisted primarily of unconscious thoughts. Consciousness represents only a small part of the psyche. The unconscious, Freud maintained, is a vast reservoir of instinctual drives and a storehouse of all the thoughts and wishes that are concealed from conscious awareness because they cause psychological conflict. He distinguished three parts of the human mind which he called the Id, Ego and Super ego. But these three elements are not distinct entities and have been separated by Freud for analytical purposes. The Id is the aspect of mind that contains the need for basic necessities life, such as need for sexual gratification, water, warmth avoidance of pain, etc. is operates on pleasure principles, that is, it seeks only the gratification satisfaction of the needs that arises from biological drives. Unlike the Id that is present at birth, the Ego does not become apparent until the child is about six old and operates on the reality principle. In order words, the Ego tells the Id where how its demands should be satisfied. While doing this, the Ego takes experiences and situations into consideration.

The Ego cannot however, prevent the Id from achieving its demands. It can only advice that they should be met through legitimate or acceptable and safe means. In addition to regulating the Id's impulses, the E must also contend with the super ego, which is the third structure of the mind and it represents the ideals and moral standards of the society, as internalized by the child through the parents during the process of socialization. The super ego is the equivalent of the conscience. The super ego, like the Id does not operate on reality principle. The super ego is harsh and punitive and does not consider either the individual capabilities or the limitations of a situation. It is only interested in ensuring that the moral standards are absolutely complied with. Thus, the Ego tries to balance

the pleasure seeking demands of the Id and the equally powerful perfection seeking commands of the super ego. While trying to maintain a balance between the demands of the Id and those of the super ego.

Conflict may sometimes occur; the individual experiences a state of psychic distress called anxiety. Anxiety is the inner struggle that arises when the ego realizes that the expression of an Id impulse will lead to some kind of harm or that the superego is making an impossible demand. In order to resolve the conflict between the Id and the superego, the ego resorts to a defense mechanism, that is, a mental strategy that blocks the harmful Id impulse while at the same time it reduces anxiety. The various types of defense mechanism include repression, regression, denial reaction formation, displacement, sublimation, rationalization and projection.

However, defense mechanisms are counterproductive when they become the primary means of coping with problems or interfere with abilities, Freud equally claimed that there are five developmental/stages, viz oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital (see Worth man et al, 1999 for further reference). Freud stressed that if the conflict bringing the three structures of the mind on one hand, and the developmental stages on the other hand, are successfully resolved in childhood, the person becomes capable of forming relationships and function in a productive way, which he believed are the hallmarks of adequate personality development. Therefore, those who cannot maintain relationships or are not productive are victims of abnormal personality development. Some of Freud's ideas were considered to be outrageous. Subsequently, some highly creative students of Freud expanded and modified his ideas. These students are referred to as Neo-Freudians. For instance, the role of the Ego which was minimized by Freud was emphasized by the 'Neo-Freudians and they argued that personality development does not stop at puberty but continues throughout life. They also emphasized the importance of social interaction.

generally, the psychoanalytic approach have been criticized for their use of case studies and unrepresentative sample as well as the fact that most of their concepts: cannot be falsified. Nonetheless, Freud has succeeded in creating the awareness at unconscious thoughts motivate behaviour and whether or not an adult is productive is a function of childhood experiences. Social Cognitive Theories.

Social cognitive theories emphasized the active, conscious aspect of personality. In other words, what individuals think about them and their experiences affect the way they behave. The cognitive approach in psychology is credited to Julian Rotter (1954) and George Kelly (1955). They asserted that individuals may

interpret the same event quite differently based on different memories, beliefs and expectations. Individuals' personal interpretations of the event affect the way they behave which also affects their experience of the event. Social cognitive theorists Like Albert Bandura (1977, 1982, 1986) maintained that self-efficacy, a belief that we can perform adequately in a particular situation influences people's perception, motivation and performance,. however, the cognitive theory has been criticized for neglecting the emotions. It portrays human beings almost as information-processing robots, calculating the best strategy to achieve a given task. Little attention is paid to such emotions as joy, love, hate and sorrow. Despite the criticism, cognitive theory has been able to show that the environment (including problems and everyday tasks) influences the way people device strategies for attaining their goals.

Humanistic Approach

Prominent scholars in this approach are Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow and Don McAdams. Carl Rogers like Maslow believed that what spurs people into action is the motive to fulfill one's capabilities and achieve one's total potential. Rogers referred to this life long motive as thriving towards self-actualization. He went further that self-actualization is often thwarted by a narrow and restricting self- concept. Hence people that can function adequately well are those who have incorporated few and reasonable conditions of worth (that is, strong ideas about which thoughts and behaviors will bring positive regard and they also learn Suppress or deny those feelings and experiences that prevent positive regard. When conditions are too restrictive (that is, many thoughts and actions of the person are prohibited), self-actualization will be blocked. Such people are anxious fearful, Defensive, conforming and unrealistic in the demands they place on themselves. But Rogers believed that people can break from beliefs and feelings that hamper their growth.

Don McAdams in contrast opined that they key issue in personality is identities. For example, the stories that people tell about themselves include the past, present arid anticipated future. These stories provide lives with a sense of unity and purpose Instead of self-actualization; he proposed that human beings have a drive for se coherence. At each point of life, people revise and rewrite their life story to meet current needs.

However, the humanistic approach is too simplistic as all human behaviors are explained in terms of self-actualization, self-fulfillment on identity. It does not explain where drives come from. On the other hand, the approach emphasized human freedom and creativity.

Evolutionary! Biological Approach

Biological views of personality can be divided into three viz., evolutionary, behavioral genetic and psycho-physiological approach. Basically the biological theorists emphasized that the composition of certain fluids or humors (such as phlegm black bile blood and yellow bile) in the body survival strategies and genetic contributions motivate people (Worthman et al, 1999)

Trait Theories

Trait theorists are concerned with the basic components of personality. Trait is “any relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another” (Guilford, 1959). Trait theorists argued that though behaviour varies across situations, on average people will act the same way in many different situations. This view has been supported by research such as Mancy Canter and Mischel (1977) who found that college students use consistent strategies to pursue varied goals such as getting good grades and making friends. Moreover, personality traits are relatively stable over time and individual differences are the result of difference in the strength and combination of traits. Some notable trait theorists include Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell and Hans Eysenck. Allport combed an unabridged dictionary for words that are used to describe people and found that people tend to use similar words which fall into general categories such as honest, gregarious and independent. He called these central traits. He equally stressed that people who possess the same trait often express that trait in different ways so far for example, a successful athlete is likely to be a successful businessman. Cattell contended that personality is composed of sixteen primary traits which he described in terms of opposing tendencies such as reserved/outgoing, humble/assertive, group dependent/self sufficient, placid/apprehensive, conservative/experimenting, etc. in which one individual differs from another” (Guilford, 1959). Trait theorists argued that though behavior varies across situations, on average people will act the same way in many different situations. This view has been supported by research such as Mancy Canter and Mischel (1977) who found that college students used consistent strategies to pursue varied goals such as getting good grades and making friends. Moreover, personality traits are relatively stable over time and individual differences in strength and combination of traits.

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Eysenck contrasting Cattell, reduced essential dimensions of personality to:

- Neuroticism versus emotional stability
- Extroversion versus introversion
- Psychoticism or psychopathology

A consensus later emerged among trait theorists and they introduced the “Big five dimensions of personality” these are:

Extroversion socially active, assertive, outgoing, talkative, fun-loving. Introverts tend to be reserved, timid and quiet.

- Emotional stability this dimension taps a person’s ability to withstand stress. People with positive emotional stability tend to be nervous, anxious and insecure
- Agreeableness: this dimension refers to an individual’s propensity to differ from others. Highly agreeable people are cooperative, warm, and trusting. People who score low on agreeableness are cold, disagreeable and antagonistic.
- Conscientiousness: This dimension is a measure of reliability. A highly conscientious person is responsible, organized, dependable and persistent. Those who score low on this dimension are easily distracted, disorganized and unreliable.

Openness to experience: This addresses an individual’s range of interest.

Extremely open people are creative, curious and artistically sensitive. Those at the opposite end are conventional and find comfort in the familiar. (Worthman, 1999 and Robbins, 2001).

Personality Dimensions and Job Performance

Research on the big five dimensions of personality found important relationships between these personality traits and job performance. Job performance defined in terms of performance ratings, training proficiency (performance during training programs) and personal data such as salary level. A vast spectrum of occupations was examined: professionals (including engineers, architects

accountant, attorneys) police, managers, sales people and semi skilled and s employees. Evidence showed that individuals who are dependable, reliable, careful, thorough, able to plan, organized, hardworking, persistent and achievement oriented tend to have higher job performance in most occupations

In addition, employees who score more highly in conscientiousness develop higher levels of job knowledge. Furthermore, extroverts excel in managerial and sales positions. Likewise, openness to experience was found to be important in predicting training proficiency. Lastly, people with an averagely high score on emotional stability are calm and secure and retain their jobs (Mount et al, 1994 and Organ 1994).

Type “A “And Type “B” Personality

In the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman, from the observation of their patients developed the concept of Type “A” and Type “B” personality. Friedman and Rosenman (1974) maintained that Type A’s:

- Are always moving, walking and eating rapidly.
- Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place.
- Strive to think or do two things at once.
- Cannot cope with leisure time.
- Are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how many or how much of everything they acquire.

In contrast to the Type A personality is the Type B. Type Bs:

- Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience
- Feel no need to display or discuss their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation.
- Play for fun and relaxation rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost. Can relax without guilt.

The managerial implication of Type “A” and Type “B” trait is that the former are fast workers and they emphasize quantity over quality. In managerial positions, they demonstrate their competitiveness by working long hours and sometimes they make poor decisions because they make them too fast. Types “A” are also rarely creative. They are more concerned with quantity and speed as well as rely on past experiences when faced with problems. Most times, they do not vary their responses to specific challenges, hence their behaviour is easier to predict than that of type B’s.

But the Type B's are the ones that make it to the top in organizations, that is, they are usually senior executives while Type A's are usually successful sales persons. Type B's who are usually tactful, creative and wise are frequently promoted than Type A's.
(Robbins, 2001).

Generally, there are also some personality attributes that have been found to be powerful predictors of behaviour in organizations. These include locus of control, Machiavellianism, self-esteem, self monitoring and risk taking (see Robbins, 2001 and Gibson et al 1997 (for details).

In another dimension, some personality disorders have been identified as hindrances to employee effective job performance. Personality disorders can be defined as “an enduring pattern of inner experience and behaviour that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture, is pervasive and inflexible, has an onset in adolescence or early childhood, is stable over time, and leads to distress or impairment (American Psychological Association, cited in Wortman et al, 1999).

Such personality disorders include: paranoid, schizoid, avoidant, dependent, Borderline, histrionic, narcissistic, obsessive-compulsive and antisocial personality disorder. (for their symptoms, manifestations and remedies see Fajana 2002 and Worthman et al, 1999).

Emotions and Motivation

Kreitner et al (1999) identified emotions as one of the historical roots of motivation.. Similarly, Worthman et al (1999) stressed that we are often motivated by “feeling” associated with events or situations. However, little attention is given to emotions in the field of organizational behaviour, this neglect, Robbins (2001) attributed to myth of rationality and the belief that emotions of any kind were disruptive. The myth of rationality implied that organizations, since the rise of scientific management were specifically designed to control emotions and a well-run organization is one that has succeeded in eliminating frustration, anger, fear, love hate, joy, grief and other related feelings.

Secondly, emotions, particularly negative ones are said to interfere with employee's ability to perform his/her job effectively. Thus, researchers and managers tried to create organizations that are emotions free which obviously is

herculean task as employees bring an emotional component with them to work everyday.

Emotions are reactions to an object, that is they are object specific. David Watson and Lee Ann Clark (1994) identified three central components of emotions. The first is the type of expression, usually a facial expression, second, the type physiological changes evoked (such as an increase in heart rate). Lastly, emotions are accompanied by a subjective state or feeling such as fear, anxiety or excitement.

A concept commonly used in organizational behavior is emotional labour, which is when an employee expresses organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions. The concept was originally used in service jobs. Airline flight attendants, for example, are expected to be charming and cheerful undertakers sad and doctors emotionally neutral. In recent times, the concept related to almost all jobs as employees are expected to be courteous and hostile in interactions with co-workers. Likewise leaders are expected to draw on emotional labour to “charge the troops”, that is, influence subordinates.

Sometimes, emotional labour creates dilemmas for employees when their job requires them to exhibit emotions that are at variance with their actual feelings. It is necessary to distinguish between felt emotions and displayed emotions. Felt emotions are an individual's actual emotions while displayed emotions are those that are organizationally required and considered appropriate in a given job and are learned. For example, effective managers may have to appear serious when giving an employee a negative performance evaluation and the salesperson that finds it extremely difficult to smile is not likely to last long on sales jobs.

Although, there is no specific standard of emotions that workers in all organizational settings are expected to display, there is a bias against negative and intensive emotions such as fear, anger, etc. Daniel Goleman, the author of the best seller, emotional intelligence, summarized insights into the role of emotions in people's interactions. People who excel in real life, whose innate relationships flourish, who are stars in the workplace, possess emotional intelligence which includes self awareness, impulse control and self-motivation.

In contrast to the image of the worker created by prevailing work motivation theories which presumed that the average worker is involved in an exchange relationship of effort for pay security, promotions, etc, people are not “unfeeling machines”. their perceptions and calculations of situations are filled with emotional content that significantly influence how much effort they exert. More

so, many people who are 'highly motivated in their jobs are emotionally committed.

CONCLUSION

Conclusively, therefore, a review of the personality theories offer guidelines that can lead to effective job performance because personality characteristics provide a framework for predicting employee behaviour and their reactions to organizational settings. But given the complexity of today's work environment and the diversity of today's workforce, it is impossible to have an ideal personality profile that fits all work situations.

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