THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY PREFERENCE AND

CAREER ANCHORS AMONGST POLICE OFFICERS WITHIN THE

WESTERN CAPE

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DECLARATION

I declare that the relationship between Personality Preference and Career Anchors amongst Police Officers within the Western Cape is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

VANESSA VAN SITTERT   NOVEMBER 2006

Signed …………………………..

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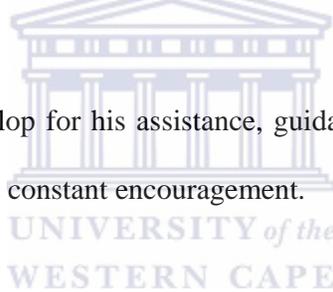
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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY PREFERENCE AND CAREER ANCHORS AMONGST POLICE OFFICERS WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE

The objective of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between the personality preference and career anchors of police officers. The idea that personality relates meaningfully to the kinds of careers people choose and how they perform in these careers, has a long history in career psychology. A large body of empirical evidence suggests that the career choice behaviour of individuals can be predicted through personality assessment (Tokar, Fischer & Subich, 1998). Increasing research is being done on the role of personality in adapting effectively to new career demands.
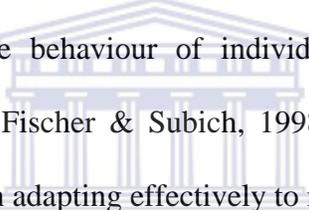
The operating environment of the South African Police Service is both challenging and demanding; often putting the life of the active police officer in great danger (Marks, 2003). This begets the question why any person would choose the career of being a police officer, what type of personality preference would the person choosing such a career have and what career anchors would have an influence in this choice of career. It is anticipated that the results of this study can provide more clarity and assist police officers in planning their career.

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A convenience sample of (n=84) police officers, attending the Police Academy for training purposes, was selected to participate in this study. The Jung Type Indicator (JTI) was used to measure the personality preferences of police officers, and the Career Orientation Inventory (COI) of Schein (1993), was used to determine each respondent's dominant career anchor. Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments. In addition, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients and Multiple Regression Analysis was used to assess whether relationships exist between the variables.

To determine the proportion of variance in the dependent variable, which is career anchors, that are predicted by the independent variable, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was also conducted. The results revealed that a significant relationship exists between personality preference and career anchors. As indicated, this study was conducted amongst members within the South African Police Service and all information dealt with was handled with the highest level of integrity and police officers' were ensured that their responses would be treated with absolute anonymity and confidentiality.

KEY WORDS

Career anchors, personality preference, personality characteristics, career, career orientation, career motivation, Police service, Jung Type Indicator

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Since the late 1970's, economic recessions, industrial restructuring, technological change, and intensified global competition have dramatically changed the nature of work (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). There is also substantial evidence to suggest that the nature of work has changed dramatically for those who remain employed. These changes imply that employees have to remain flexible in making career decisions. However, employees' ability to remain flexible may be influenced by their career anchors and personality characteristics (Andersen, 2000; Rothmann, 2001).
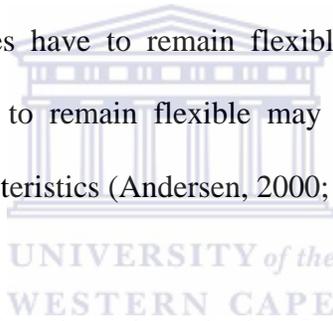
Tokar et al. (1998) posit the view that a large body of empirical evidence suggests that assessment of personality is significantly predictive of career choice behaviour, other career-relevant individual difference variables (vocational interests and work values) and aspects of career adjustment (satisfaction, performance and stress). Increasing research is being done on the role of personality in adapting effectively to new career demands (De Fruyt & Mervielde, 1999; Rust, 1999; Tokar & Subich, 1997).

The notion that personality relates meaningfully to the career choice of people and their eventual career success has a long history (van Rensburg & Rothmann, 2003). Parsons (cited in Mc Daniels, 2000) who proposed the Trait and Factor Theory, shared the idea

that personality relates to career choice, noting that the choice of a career depends on an accurate knowledge of the self, a thorough knowledge of job specifications and the ability to effect an optimal match between them (Mc Daniels, 2000). Jarlstrom (2000) postulates that people will be more likely to select a career which will result in satisfaction of personality related behaviours. Research (Schein, 1996) further indicates that people are likely to enter a career that reflects their personality and since individuals differ in personality, their career orientation is likely to be different. According to Holland (1985), career choices are expressions of personality, ability and the appropriate environment. It is also evident that assessment of personality is significantly predictive of career choice (Tokar et al., 1998). Warr (2004), concurs that personality measures can be used not only to predict behaviour in a job but to determine a candidate's fit in an organisation's culture.
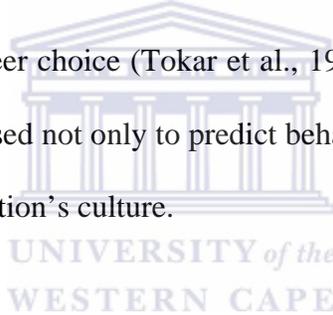
Schein (1993) concluded that when individuals have identified their career anchor they empower themselves to confront career choices and decisions in a manner consistent with what their values are and how they see themselves. While Super (1980) is of the opinion that the more a person's abilities and interests find ready and temporary outlets in the full range of the activities engaged in, the more successful and satisfied that person will be. Therefore, if the abilities, motives and personality preference are known, it would be easier to determine whether their career choice to enter the police service, are expressions of their personality. Furthermore, the Theory of Work Adjustment postulates that patterns of personality related variables (needs, interests) differentiate

people predominating one occupational group from those predominating others (Davis Lofquist, 1984).

It is evident from research, that having an understanding of personality would enable individuals to make the career choice most suited to their personality. Tokar et al. (1998) maintains that personality is likely to make an independent contribution to work outcomes.

Jung (1971) as cited in van Rensburg, (2001), postulates that personality is defined as the configuration of unique and enduring internal characteristics and behaviour that influence an individual's orientation to life and interaction with the environment. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM 1V, 2000) describes personality traits as prominent aspects of personality that are exhibited in a wide range of important social and personal contexts, this means that individuals have certain characteristics, which partly determine their behaviour.

In spite of the various definitions of personality, it can be deduced that personality is unique to each individual and that differences exist between individuals. For the purpose of this study, Jung's definition of personality will be used since it has been used as a basis for the construction of the Jung Type Indicator.

1.2 The eight personality types as defined by the Jung Type Indicator (JTI):

- *Extraversion* is the orientation towards the external world. People preferring this attitude would spend time interacting with the outer world, rather than the inner world of subjective experiences or mental events.

- *Introversion* is orientated towards the inner, subjective world. People preferring this attitude like to spend time quietly reflecting and contemplating. Introverts are quiet, introspective people who do not feel the constant need for contact with the outer world of people.

- *Thinking* involves strict principles in terms of cause and effect. People preferring this form of judging approach life rationally and analytically.

- *Sensing* involves receiving information directly through the senses. People preferring this form of perceiving tend to focus on facts in a specified situation.

- *Feeling* involves the emotional value attached to events and objects.

- Individuals who prefer this kind of *Judging* are more concerned with what they feel about an event or person rather than what they can learn about it through rational reasoning.

- *Perceiving* involves directly receiving information without evaluation. These people normally put off decision-making until they have enough information as possible.

- *Intuition* involves going beyond the information provided by the senses to discover information that might not be immediately obvious from sensory data (JTI Manual, n.d.).

According to Myers (1980) identified in Coetzee (1996), knowledge and the understanding of personality types enhance individual self- awareness, which will in turn enable individuals to develop a strong inner sense of direction and identity. Having a sense of values, talents and abilities will therefore provide one with a greater sense of direction in choosing the career, which is likely to lead to feelings of self-fulfillment and satisfaction. Hence, Jung's concept of personality types can contribute to enhancing individual self-insight into career experiences and preferences.

1.3 Defining Career

Super (1977) described career as a course of events in one's life which includes the series of occupations and roles assumed which is combined, and expresses one's dedication to work in his or her entire self-development. Career has further been described as a planned direction that an individual follows over time and space, which includes involvement in a specific role (Schein, 1977).

According to Schein (1996), individuals are anchored in a specific career orientation which he called career anchors, defined as a person's self-concept; consisting of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values and the developed sense of emotions and needs applicable to his/her career.

1.4 Types of Career Anchors

Figure 1.1 outlines Schein's (1996) career anchors:

SCHEIN'S CAREER ANCHORS

FIGURE 1.1

CAREER ANCHORS
TECHNICAL/FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCE
GENERAL MANAGERIAL COMPETENCE
AUTONOMY/INDEPENDENCE
SECURITY/STABILITY
ENTREPRENEURIAL CREATIVITY
SENSE OF SERVICE/DEDICATION TO A CAUSE
LIFESTYLE
PURE CHALLENGE

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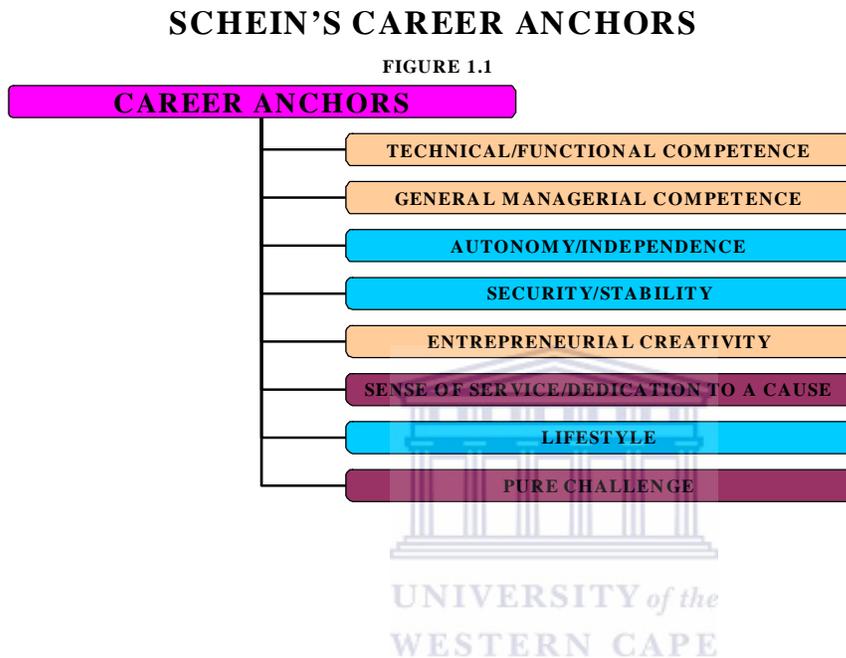
Kniveton (2004) refers to Managerial Competence, Technical/ Functional and Entrepreneurial Creativity as *Talent-based anchors*; security, autonomy and lifestyle are referred to as *Need-based anchors* and pure challenge and service career anchors are categorized as *Value–based career anchors.*

These career anchors have been described as stabilising forces in guiding future career directions that can be thought of as the values and motives that the individual will not give up if forced to make a choice. Hence, career anchors hold significant consequences for an individual's job satisfaction and job stability (Tan & Quek, 2001). According to

van Rensberg & Rothmann (2003), empirical evidence exists of a relationship between a person's personality preference and his/her career anchors.

1.5 Motivation for this study

The police service plays a critical role in society and since its operating environment is both challenging and demanding, it would be vital to recruit and further develop an individual with a personality that would endure this formidable environment, as opposed to employing an individual who joins the police service because it is seen as a secure job.

- This would give rise to the question of why any person would choose the career of a police officer;
- The type of personality preference the person choosing such a career would have; and
- What career anchors would have an influence in this choice of career.

It is thus the intention of this study to investigate the career orientation of a selected group of police officers and their personality preferences. It is also the purpose of this study, to investigate whether a relationship exists between the personality preferences of police officers and their career anchors. It is anticipated that the results of the study could provide more clarity and assist police officers in their career planning.

1.6 Objectives of the study

The following research objectives have been identified for the purpose of this study:

1.6.1 Primary Objectives

1. To determine the career anchors of a selected group of police officers;

2. To ascertain the personality preference of a selected group of police officers;

3. To assess the relationship between the personality preferences and the career anchors of a selected group of police officers.

1.7 Hypotheses

   Hypothesis 1

A significant relationship exists between the personality preference and the career anchors of police officers.

   Hypothesis 2

The career anchors of police officers will not be statistically explained by personality preference.

Hypothesis 3

There are statistically significant differences in career anchors based on biographical variables (gender, race, age, education and rank).

1.8 Overview of the Chapters

This chapter has provided a succinct overview of the motivation for the study, problem statement, personality, career anchors, as well as hypotheses of the study.

Chapter 2 presents reviewed literature, which explores the concepts applicable to this study. Chapter 3 deals with the methodology, research instruments, the sample and procedure that were followed. Chapter 4 further expounds on research findings in relation to the hypotheses of the study. The study will be concluded in Chapter 5, which will look at implications for the South African Police Service and recommendations for future studies.
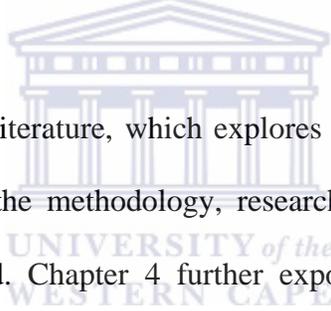
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INRODUCTION

This study explores personality, by looking particularly at personality preferences, as defined by the Jung Personality Indicator, based on Jung's psychological type theory (1921), in order to provide a better understanding of the concept and how it relates to career orientation, according to Schein's (1978) career anchor theory.
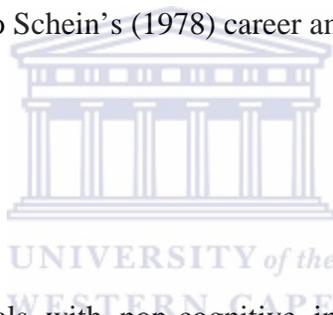
2.2 PERSONALITY

The study of personality deals with non-cognitive individual differences which is mainly concerned with aspects of behaviour such as, sociable, persistent and anxious (Eysenck, 1975). The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines personality, as a distinctive personal character. According to Herr (2001), personality is defined as an integrated dynamic organisation of an individual's psyche, social, moral and physical characteristics interacting with the environment. Prince (as cited in Allport, 1949), defined personality as the sum-total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites, instincts of the individual and the acquired dispositions and tendencies acquired by experience. Personality characteristics, needs, attitudes,

preferences and motives are described by House, Shane and Herold, (1996), as "dispositional variables" that result in a tendency to react to situations.

Personality is further defined by Ivancevich and Matteson (1993) cited in La Grange and Roodt, (2001) as tendencies and temperaments that have been formed by social, cultural and environmental factors which are responsible for contributing towards the set of relatively stable characteristics defined as personality. They are, however, of the opinion that attempting to understand the relationship between personality and work behaviour in an organisational setting, is a complex matter.

2.2.1 Police Personality
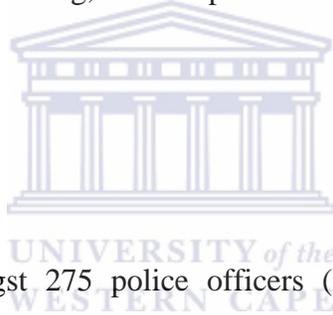
In a study conducted amongst 275 police officers (Lorr & Strack, 1994) it was postulated that there is a distinct personality profile exists for police. Having used the 16 Personality Factors (16 PF), a clear personality profile was reported. The major findings were that individuals wishing to gain entry into the police fell into three categories, however, only the largest subgroup will be highlighted here. Lorr and Strack (1994) describe the 'good' cop; the group reported to be self-discipline (control), socially bold (independent), extraverted, emotionally tough and low in anxiety.

Wagner (2005) argued the concept of 'rescue personality', a personality that characterises the type of individual that would choose rescue-related work. The writer is

of the opinion that emergency response work, no matter what area or nature of service, is difficult and emotional. Mitchell and Bray (1990) cited in Wagner (2005) described emergency response workers as inner - directed, action orientated, obsessed with high standards of performance, traditional, socially conservative, easily bored and highly dedicated. They also added that emergency workers are people who like control and want to feel needed.

Furthermore, in a single study, having used the 16PF to measure personality of police officers, it was found that aggressiveness and tough-mindedness were significant predictors of superior performance amongst police (Fabricatore, Azen, Schoentgen & Snibbe, 1978). While having used the Eysenk Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) on 548 males, police personnel scored lowest on the neuroticism scale than non-police persons (Fenster & Locke, 1973 cited in Wagner, 2005).

2.3 TRAIT THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

The personality of an individual is often described by trait names, for example, sporty, reliable or sociable. Traits are descriptive characteristics of an individual; it is the behaviour that manifests in a variety of situations (Colman, 1994). Traits may therefore be referred to as the summation of states, meaning that an individual who often shows anxiety, is considered to demonstrate the trait of anxiety. According to Eysenck (citied in Colman, 1994) traits correlate into certain patterns:

- Extraversion-Introversion (E) - some defining traits are lively, assertive, sensation-seeking; carefree, dominant;

- Neuroticism – Stability (N) – anxious, depressed, low self-esteem, irrational, moody, emotional;

- Psychoticism-superego control (P) - aggressive, cold, egocentric, impersonal, antisocial, unempathic.

In line with the information above, Eysenck (1947) has shown from an extensive body of research (based on a number of factor analytic studies), that a typology is simply a higher-order organisation of personality traits. The four levels of personality description proposed by Eysenck (1975) explain that the lowest level is the person's specific responses to specific situations. The second level, describes habitual responses to similar situations. While at the third level, the habitual responses are organised into personality traits, these are the primary factors that emerge from a factor analysis of personality test items. Finally, the highest level consists of the organisation of these personality traits into a general type (JTI Manual, n.d.).

2.3.1 ALLPORT'S TRAIT THEORY

Feldman (1999) reports that Allport's theory originated when he identified 4 500 words, describing personality. To simplify this further, Allport (1961) then categorised traits into three basic categories: cardinal, central and secondary traits, which vary in degrees of intensity:

- **Cardinal traits** are the dominant or pervasive traits that stand out in an individual's life. It is a trait that cannot be hidden for long; an individual is known by it and may even become famous for it. Such a master quality has been referred to as the ruling passion. For example, a totally selfless person my direct all his/her energies toward humanitarian activities (Feldman, 1999). Not all people develop cardinal traits that are all-inclusive, instead they possess a handful of **Central traits** which make up the core of their personality. These are traits such as honesty and sociability, which are the major characteristics of an individual. Finally, **Secondary traits** are traits that are on a less important level, these are less conspicuous, less generalised and less consistent (Allport, 1949). These are less influential than central or cardinal traits, for example, a dislike of ice-cream or a preference for modern art (Feldman, 1999).
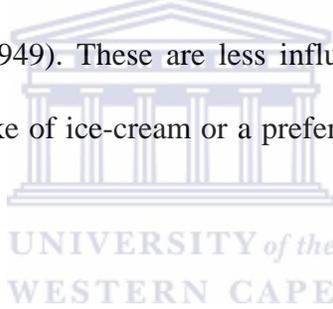
2.3.2 CATTELL'S THEORY

According to Feldman (1999), in (1965) Cattell used factor analysis whereby a large number of variables are summarised into a fewer, more general pattern. He suggested that the characteristics observable in a given situation represents forty–six surface traits. Having engaged in further factor analysis, he arrived at sixteen source traits which he used to develop the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF).

According to Abrahams (1996), Cattell viewed personality as a differentiated and complex structure of traits, with an individual's motivation being dependent to a large

degree on a subset of these traits which were called dynamic traits. He referred to traits as basic structural elements of personality, defining them as a collection of reactions or responses bound in a kind of unity, which permits the responses to be gathered under one term and treated in the same manner for most purposes (Cattell, 1946 in Abrahams, 1996).

Traits were classified as either common or unique. Common traits are those possessed to some degree by all people, whereas unique traits are distinct to a particular individual and cannot be found in others in the exact form. Common traits are the individual's general mental capacity, while unique traits are the more prominent areas of interest and attitudes. Unique traits were further divided into *intrinsic traits*, which are the genuinely different trait, possessed by no other person and *relative traits*, which is a slight variation from the pattern of common traits. Cattell's theory further explains source and surface traits. *Surface traits* match the observable behaviours that are less stable and more descriptive, often referred to as syndromes in abnormal psychology. *Source traits* on the other hand is an association of varying behaviours to form an independent dimension of personality, described as the real structural influences underlying personality, these are necessary to deal with in development problems, psychosomatics and problems of dynamic integration (Abrahams, 1996).

2.3.3 GOLDBERG'S THEORY

Goldberg, a trait theorist known for his "Big Five" model which is a system that originated from a survey of adjectives related to personality and favoured five factors (Colman, 1994).

Factor I – Extraversion

Extraversion includes traits such as assertiveness, sociability and talkativeness, it is also characterised by feelings of optimism (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bing & Lounsburg, 2000). Extraverts are further described as energetic and optimistic (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). According to Clark and Watson (1991), extraverts are characterised by positive feelings and experiences and are therefore seen as having a positive affect. Introverts, on the other hand are reserved, independent, even-paced individuals. The study which investigated openness and job performance, reported that extraversion was found to be a valid predictor of performance on jobs, which entailed social interaction (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bing & Lounsburg, 2000).

Factor II – Agreeableness

Agreeable people are usually sympathetic to others and eager to help, believing that others too are helpful. Conversely, the disagreeable/antagonistic person is egocentric,

sceptical of others' intentions and competitive instead of co-operative (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Tett (1991) found agreeableness to be a significant predictor of job performance.

Factor III – Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to self-control, the process of planning, organising and carrying out tasks. According to Rothmann and Coetzer (2003), the conscientious person is determined, achievement orientated, dependable and orderly. Sackett and Wanneck (1996) reported significant correlations between conscientiousness and job performance. They attribute this to the relationship between conscientiousness and integrity. Barrick and Mount (1991) concurred that conscientiousness was found to be the best predictor of job performance.

Factor IV – Neuroticism

This personality dimension includes a tendency to experience negative feelings such as fear, sadness, anger and guilt. Individuals who score high on this dimension are prone to irrational ideas and deal poorly with stress. A low score on the other hand, is indicative of emotional stability (Hough, 1990). According to Judge, Higgins, Thoresen and Barrick (1999), neuroticism negatively affects job performance.

Factor V – Openness to Experience

Individuals who demonstrate openness to experience, show a preference for variety, active imagination, attentive to inner feelings, intellectual curiosity and independence of judgment. Low scores refer to individuals being conservative in their outlook, preferring the traditional, rather than innovative approach. High scorers are unconventional and are willing to experience positive and negative emotions (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). Hamilton (1988) found openness relates to success in consulting.

2.4 Evaluating Trait approaches to Personality
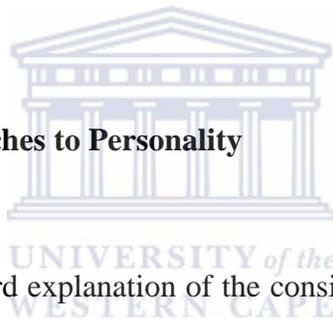
Traits provide a straightforward explanation of the consistencies in people's behaviour. Traits also allows for the comparison from person to person. As a result, the conception of traits has resulted in the development of various personality measures. On the other hand, there are also drawbacks where various trait theories arrive at different conclusions about which traits are most essential and descriptive, this in turn has lead some personality psychologists to question the validity of trait conceptions of personality. An additional criticism is that traits do not provide explanations for behaviour, they merely describe it (Feldman, 1999).

According to Coertse and Scheepers (2004), the basis of Trait and Factor theories is the assumption that there are unique traits that can be measured, and that it is possible to match a person's traits to his/her occupational profile. Other researchers (Herr 2001; Langley, du Toit & Herbst, 1996) concur that a close match between the person's traits and his/her occupational profile will positively correlate with occupational success and satisfaction.

Langley et al. (1996) is of the opinion that the Trait and Factor Theories was a short range, static view mainly orientated towards the needs of the organisation rather than the individual's needs. Thus prompting that in order to identify the individual's needs the concept of personality first needed to be reviewed.
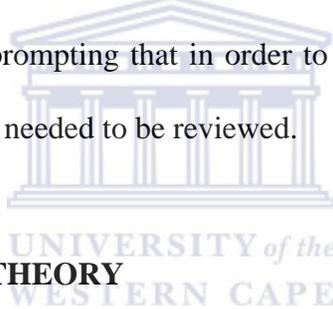
2.5 PERSONALITY TYPE THEORY

2.5.1 Personality Preferences

Jung's theory of psychological type explains that predictable differences in individuals are caused by differences in the way people prefer to use their minds to take in information, to organise that information and reach conclusions. His theory postulates two attitudinal orientations and four basic psychological functions. The attitudinal orientations comprise introversion (I) and extraversion (E), which relate to the focus of attention and flow or psychic energy of an individual. The extraverts' attention is externally focused, while the introvert is inwardly focused (Jung, 1990).

The basic psychological functions relate to perceptual functions which mediate the way in which information is handled by the individual. Jung (1990) proposes that people develop one of two dominant preferences for information used in perceiving their world: sensation (S) or intuition (N). Sensation-dominant people prefer precise, specific data that is typically derived from their senses. In contrast, intuition-dominant people seek holistic information that reflects possibilities; the pattern of data is more important than the specific data points. Jung (1990) also proposed that people develop one of two dominant ways of judging information in order to reach decisions and take action: thinking (T) or feeling (F). Thinking-dominant people stress logic in their reasoning; they generalise and abstract. Feeling–dominant people stress value judgements in their reasoning; they think of things in human terms and emphasise how others may respond.
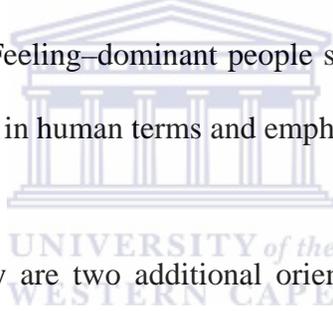
Implied from Jung's typology are two additional orientations relating to the way in which individuals approach the outer world in terms of judgment or perception. These were made explicit by Myers (1987), who labeled them as judging (J) and perceiving (P). Judging was described as being related to the evaluation of external stimuli and orientation to cope with these via structure and control. Perceiving was described in terms of receptivity to stimuli and seeking to understand and adapt to life on these stimuli. By adding the judging- perceiving dichotomy, Jung's model was refined by Briggs and Myers (Myers, Mc Caulley, Quek & Hammer, 1998) so as to describe sixteen personality preference types. These sixteen personality types are measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Coertzee, Martins, Basson & Muller, 2006).

There are various personality tests based on Jung's theory of personality types, the two of interest and which this study will make reference to are the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1962 cited in Frazer, 1994) and the Jung Type Indicator (JTI Manual, n.d.). Both of these were developed to measure the four personality dimensions, based on Jung's theory of personality types. These dimensions are Extraversion-Introversion (El), Sensing-Intuition (SN), Thinking-Feeling (TF) and Judgment-Perception (JP) (JTI Manual, n.d.).

Jung (1990) postulates that personality may be divided into various personality types, namely in terms of attitudes and functions, extraversion and introversion, being the two basic attitudes. He defined extraversion as outgoing, adaptable to change, candid and sociable. Introversion was defined as introspective, withdrawn and slightly defensive.

Furnham, Moutafi and Paltiel (2005) motivate that Judging and Perceiving are two processes whereby individuals perceive information then take action. Perceiving is therefore receiving information directly without evaluation, while Judging is concerned with organising and processing information. Sensing and Intuition are two alternative ways of perceiving information; Sensing involves receiving information directly through the senses. Intuition, on the other hand, involves finding possibilities not immediately obvious from sensory data.

Finally, Thinking and Feeling are two alternative ways of judging information; Thinking involves the logical analysis of information according to principles of cause

and effect and Feeling entails recognising the emotional value attached to objects or events (Furnham et al., 2005). The table below provides a description of the various personality preferences.

Table 2.1: The four Personality Preferences

INDEX	DESCRIPTIONS	
E/I	*Extraversion (E): People who prefer extraversion tend to focus on the outer world of people and the external environment.* Extroverts: • Like variety and action • Dislike complicated procedures • Are impatient with long, slow jobs • Are interested in the results • Of their jobs • Do not mind interpersonal interruptions • Act quickly, sometimes without thinking • Like to have people around • Usually communicate freely	*Introversion (I): People who prefer tend to introversion focus more on their own inner world.* Introverts: • Like a quiet environment • Tend to be careful with details • Do not mind working on a project for a long time • Are interested in the idea behind their jobs • Dislike intrusions and interruptions • Like to think a lot before acting • Do not mind to work alone • Have some problems communicating
S/N	*Sensing (S): sensing people use their eyes, ears and other senses to tell them what is actually there and actually happening. Sensing types:* • Dislike new problems • Like established order of doing things • Enjoy using skills learned previously • Work steadily with realistic time frames • Reach conclusions step by step • Are patient with routine details • Are impatient with complicated details • Are not often inspired • Are good with precise work	*Intuition (N): the other way to find out is through intuition, which shows the meanings, relationships, and possibilities beyond the information from the senses. Intuitive types:* • Like solving new problems • Dislike doing the same thing repeatedly • Enjoy learning a new skill more than using it • Work in burst of energy • Reach a conclusion quickly • Are impatient with routine details • Are patient with complicated situations • Follow their inspirations • Dislike taking time for precision
T/F	*Thinking (T): one way to decide is through thinking. Thinking predicts the logical consequences of any particular choice or action.* • Are uncomfortable with feelings • May hurt others' feelings without knowing like analysis and logical order • Tend to decide impersonally • Need to be treated fairly • Are able to reprimand people • Tend to be firm	*Feeling (F): the other way to decide is through feeling. Feeling considers what is important to the self or to others, and decides based on person-centered values. Feeling types:* • Tend to be aware of other people and their feelings • Enjoy pleasing people • Like harmony • Tend to decide on likes and dislikes • Needs occasional praise • Dislike telling people unpleasant things • Tends to be sympathetic
J/P	*Judgement (J): Those who take a judging attitude tend to live in a planned, orderly way, wanting to regulate life and control it. Judging types:* • Work best when they plan work • Like to get settled and finished • May decide too quickly • Dislike interruptions on projects • May not see the need for change • Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgement	*Perception(P): Those who prefer a perceptive process like to live in a flexile, spontaneous way. They prefer gathering information and keeping options open. Perceptive types:* • Adapt well to changing situations • Do not mind leaving things open for alterations • My have trouble making decisions • May have difficulty in finishing projects • May postpone unpleasant jobs • Prefer to be open to new alternatives

Source: Adapted from van Rensburg, 2001

Table 2.2: Likes and Dislikes associated with Personality Preference

Extroversion	Introversion
Like variety and action	Like quiet for concentration
Often impatient with long, slow jobs	Tend not to mind working on one project for a long time uninterruptedly
Are interested in the activities of their work and in how other people do it	Are interested in the facts/ideas behind their work like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting
Often act quickly sometimes without thinking	When concentrating on a task find phone calls intrusive
When working on a task, find phone calls a welcoming diversion	Develop ideas by reflection
Develop ideas by discussion	

Sensing	Intuition
Like using experience and standard ways to solve problems	Like solving new complex problems
Enjoy using developed skills more than learning new ones	Enjoy learning new skills more than using it
May distrust and ignore their inspirations	Prefer change, sometimes
Seldom make errors of fact	May follow their inspirations, good or bad
Like to do things with a practical bent	Frequently make errors of fact
Like to present details of their work first	Like to do things with innovative bent
Prefer continuation of what is with fine tuning	Like to present an overview of their work first
	Prefer change, sometimes radical to continuation of what is

Thinking	Feeling
Use logical analysis to reach conclusions	Use values to reach conclusions
Can work in harmony	Work best in harmony with others
May hurt people's feelings without knowing it	Enjoy pleasing people, even in unimportant things
Tend to decide impersonally sometimes paying insufficient attention to people's wishes	Often let decisions be influenced by their own and other people's likes and dislikes
Tend to be firm-minded and can give criticism when appropriate	Tend to be sympathetic and dislike, even avoid, telling people unpleasant things
Look at the principles involved in the situation	Look at the underlying values in the situation

Judgement	Perception
Work best when they can plan their work and follow their plan	Enjoy flexibility in their work
Like to get things settled and finished	Like to leave things open for last-minute changes
May not notice new things that need to be done	May postpone unpleasant tasks that need to be done
Tend to be satisfied once they reach a decision on a thing, situation, or person	Tend to be curious and welcome a new light on a thing, situation or person
Reach closure by deciding quickly	Postpone decisions while searching for options
Seek structure and schedules	Adapt well to changing situations and feel restricted without change

Source: Adapted from Van Rensburg, 2001

Newman (1995) highlighted the differences between Trait theory and Personality Type theory. The former being that individual differences reflect that many people show a greater or less than average expression of a dimension, this accounts for individual differences. Trait theory therefore assumes that most people are simply 'average' in personality. On the other hand, Type theory assumes that personality consists of a particular combination of traits, not just a variation from the average. Meaning that one pole of a personality dimension is preferred over the other. According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2002), the theory of Personality Types is concerned with the conscious use of functions, of perceptions and decision-making/judgement. The personality type of an individual will therefore be defined by combining the person's dominant attitude and function, which ultimately is the manner in which the person prefers to perceive and make judgements of the world and assign meaning to each experience.
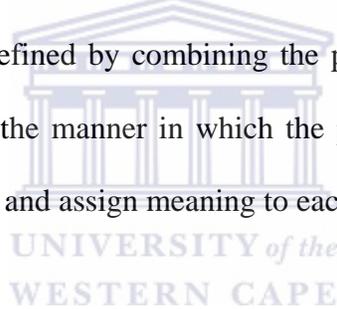
Introvert and Extrovert characteristics are part of every personality, except that one attitude, for example, introversion is dominant and conscious while the other is subordinate and unconscious and vice versa. It is therefore clear that the two attitudes are not distinct categories but can been seen as if on a continuum (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002).

Similarly, Ring (1998) proposes that as individuals we use all type preferences and processes at varying times and that each is appropriate as the situation dictates. It is

however, one's innate preferences that will dictate which will be most used and therefore best developed.

2.5.2 Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) versus the Big 5

McCrae and Costa (1989) noted that to some degree the Big 5 factors overlap with the MBTI dimensions. They therefore suggested that the MBTI could be reinterpreted from the point of view of the Factor Five Model (FFM). Their findings were that El correlated with Extroversion, SN with Openness, TF with Agreeableness and JP with Conscientiousness. Subsequent studies reveal the same findings (McDonald, Anderson, Tsagarakis & Holland, 1994; Fumham et al., 2003, Fumham 1996, while Fumham et al. (2005) further found Neuroticism to be negatively correlated to both El and TF.
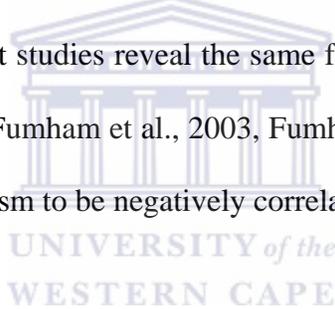
Prior to the 1990's the general view amongst researchers was that personality was not a valid predictor of job performance. Guion and Gottier (1965) in La Grange and Roodt (2001) posit that personality measures could not provide recommendations for people to make employment decisions. This view changed in the post 1990's when researchers such as Predmont and Weinstein (1994) and Dale (1995), amongst others, provided evidence in support of using personality traits to predict job performance.

Similarly, Barrick and Mount (1991) and Hogan and Nicholson (1988) motivated that personality constructs can be measured with sufficient reliability and personality

measures useful in predicting prospective employees in certain settings. It can therefore be deduced that personality measures can be used to provide reliable information regarding career choice and job performance. Furthermore, Hogan, Hogan and Roberts (1996) postulate that personality measures, unlike cognitive measures, do not negatively impact previously disadvantaged individuals.

In light of the various studies on personality, it can be inferred for this study that personality can be used to predict career choice behaviour and by having knowledge and an understanding of an individual's personality, the person would be in a position to make a more informed career choice. Myers and Mc Caulley (1992) reported that according to Personality Type theory, career choice is motivated by an individual's desire for work that is both intrinsically interesting and satisfying, as well as allowing him/her the opportunity to exercise his /her preferred functions and attitudes.

2.6 CAREER PSYCHOLOGY

Coetzee (1996) postulates that career psychology is the study of career development and career behaviour as integral parts of human development. According to Herr and Cramer cited in Coetzee (1996), career development refers to psychological, sociological, cultural and economic inputs which with time results in outcomes such as effective vocational behaviour, decision-making ability and vocational maturity. "Vocationalisation" has to do with the processes and factors which aid or hamper people acquiring values, knowledge and skills which lead to effective vocational

behaviour. Vocational behaviour is the result of a development process during which career maturity and concomitant skills are progressively developed and acquired (Coetzee, 1996).

For the purpose of this study, the terms vocation, career and occupation are used interchangeably, while being mindful that there are differences according to literature but it is not the intention of this study to highlight the differences.

2.6.1 Careers

Super's definition of career embodies a lifespan, life-style approach which is a combination and sequence of roles played by a person during the course of a lifetime (Super, 1980). According to the person-environment fit model, the degree of 'congruence' or 'correspondence' between workers and their environments is said to be the main construct for understanding career decision-making. Warr (2002) is of the opinion that the person-environment fit model tends to ignore the contribution of personality fit, in spite of the fact that personality is advocated as being able to make an independent contribution to work outcomes irrespective of fit.

Ackerman and Heggestad (1997) cited in Warr (2002) believe that abilities, interests and personality develop in tandem, such that ability levels and personal dispositions

determine the probability of success in a particular task domain and interests determine the motivation to attempt the task.

Furthermore, cognizance should be taken of the fact that in many developing countries jobs are scarce therefore many people have to take career opportunities that come their way, without considering how well the characteristics of the working environment can be integrated with their interests, values and abilities (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001).

2.7 SUPER'S THEORY
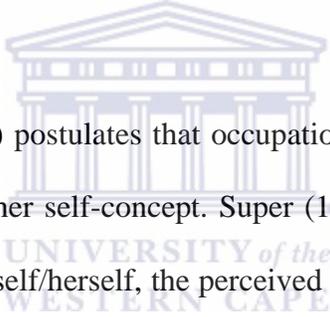
Super (1990 in Coetzee, 1996) postulates that occupational choice enables a person to play a role appropriate to his/her self-concept. Super (1962), defined 'self-concept' as the individual's picture of himself/herself, the perceived self with accrued meanings. A person's self concept is therefore made up of attributes people believe they have – their personality, traits, abilities, interests and needs. It would therefore be logical to conclude that as individuals' skills levels develop, their self-concept would change leading them to seek work, which matches the self-concept.

Schein (1996) postulated that as a career evolves, the person develops a self-concept that includes some explicit answers to the following questions:-

- What are my talents, skills?
- What are my main motives, needs?

- What are my values?

The individual's self-concept is therefore said to be mature only if he/she has enough real occupational experience to know his or her talents, motives. Schein (1996), claims that such learning could require up to ten years or more of actual work experience.

2.8 OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE AS A MATCHING PROCESS

Theories of occupational choice advocate that individuals choose occupations which match their unique set of motives, values, needs and talents (Greenhaus, 1987). While Coetzee (1996) is of the opinion that no occupation provides a perfect match between personality type preferences and work tasks, she believes that good occupational choices can, however, prevent major mismatches. Mismatches between personality type and occupation cause a feeling of tiredness and inadequateness and fatigue is often experienced since it is more tiring to use less preferred processes (Myers & Mc Caulley, 1992).

The trait and factor theory is most explicit in this regard; motivating that an individual consciously analyses his/her vocational 'assets' and 'liabilities', accumulates information about occupations and arrives at a decision. He/she would be expected to identify his or her abilities, needs, values, select appropriate career goals and then choose an occupation thought to be most compatible with these goals (Greenhaus, 1987).

2.9 THEORIES OF CAREER ORIENTATION

Traditional career theories were defined in terms of extrinsic factors where, salary, promotion and status were important visible components. Researchers later investigated careers from an internal perspective and the individual's role within that career (Kim, 2005). These researchers included:

- Schein (1978) who identified the career anchor which he maintained provided guidance, stability and constraint in the person's career. He initially identified five – and later added three career anchors.

- De Long (1982) coined the term 'career orientation" which refers to the individual's ability to select certain features of an occupation in accordance with his/her motives, interests and competencies. He added three new orientations (identity, service and variety) to Schein's (1978) five original anchors.

- Driver (1982) identified four 'career concepts'; transitory, steady-state, linear and spiral, these were based on the individuals perspective of self and included habits of thought, motives and decision-making styles.

- Derr (1986) used 'career success orientation" which looked at how people defined work success. He was of the opinion that career success reflected the personal

values, attitudes and motives with regard to people's work and life. His five 'career success' orientations are :

1. *Getting ahead:* typically for people who want to succeed in their career. These individuals desire upward movement in organisations; status, authority, wealth and prestige are attractive to them.

2. *Getting free:* they pursue personal freedom at work, avoiding any restrictions. Autonomy at work is the strongest work value.

3. *Getting secure:* they value stability and guaranteed long-term job security is desirable. They are loyal and commit themselves to their organisation, for them career success is gaining a secure job and being recognized by the organisation.

4. *Getting high:* these individuals pursue technical/functional expertise in one area and want to test their talents and skills. They dedicate themselves to self-renewing experiences since continued growth is important to them. Their career goal is being an expert in their field.

5. *Getting balanced:* individuals with these characteristics want a balanced professional and personal life. To them career success cannot be separated from the value of family and personal relationships (Derr, 1986).

Derr (1980, 1986) and Schein (1983) however disagree concerning career anchors/ orientations. Derr (1986) believes that the 'career success orientations' change in the course of an individual's life, impacted by age and due to external influences.

According to Schein (1996), career anchors remain constant throughout life. Schein (1990; 1996) is of the opinion that career anchors may appear to change through work experience, this leads to greater self-discovery, which ultimately allows the original anchor to emerge.

Hall (1976) also investigated career from an internal point of view. He introduced the 'protean career', whereby the individual manages his/her career, focusing on personal rather than organisational needs. Baruch (2004 cited in Kim, 2005) identified self-development targets, employability, lateral transitions for enrichment, amongst others, as measures of individual career success. **Table 2.3 below, provides a comparison of career orientation.**

Types	Description of Common characteristics	Schein's (1978) Career anchors	Delong's (1982) career orientations	Driver's (1980) career concepts	Derr's (1986) Career success orientation
Type 1	• Advancing up the organisational hierarchy • Increased responsibility, authority • High status, prestige, income	General management competence	Managerial competence/ identity	Linear	Getting ahead
Type 2	• Recognized expertise in one area • Excitement to test one's talents and skills • Continued growth and experience	Technical/functional competence or pure challenge	Technical/ Functional competence	Spiral	Getting high
Type 3	• Stability, predictability, security • Long-term commitment, loyalty	Security/stability	Security	Steady-state	Getting secure
Type 4	• Maintenance of freedom, avoidance of restrictions • Creation of own service or product • A variety of different experiences	Autonomy /independence or Entrepreneurial creativity	Autonomy, Creativity, or variety	Transitory	Getting Free
Type 5	• A balanced life • Respect for personal and family life • Flexible time and job sharing	Lifestyle			Getting Balanced
Other types	• Dedication to a cause, making a contribution to improve the world	Service/ dedication to a cause	Service		
Criteria of Typology		Self-perceived talents, values and motives	Self-perceived Attitudes, values and needs	Frequency, time, direction of career change	Subjective definition of success

Source: Kim (2004). Career success orientation of Korean women bank employees. Career Development International, 9 (6), p. 598.

This study will focus on Schein's career anchors (1990; 1993; 1996) and will provide more in-depth information with regard to promotional systems that the person with the most dominant anchor, would prefer.

2.10 SCHEIN'S CAREER ANCHOR THEORY

Zunker (2006) reported that Schein (1990) suggests that career anchors are formed during career experiences and situations encountered early in the workplace.

The concept of career anchors is based on the formation of occupational self-concept which is driven by talents and abilities developed in real world situations, motives and needs that are illuminated by work experiences, and attitudes and values learned from interactions in the workplace. The interactive influences from work situations facilitate individual career choice in the establishment transitional process, with career anchors playing an influential or restraining factor in career choice. Individuals are argued to seek out work environments in which they have experienced success and avoid those that have the potential of resulting in failure. According to this theory, early work experiences and encounters are very influential in establishing a career direction (Scandura, 2002).

Mondy, Noe and Premeaux (1999) postulate that individuals have different aspirations, backgrounds, and experiences and that personality is molded, by the results of their

interactions with the environment as well as the career-impacted life stages they experience.

Schein (1993) initially referred to individuals as having one career anchor. However, Feldman and Bolino (1996, in Tan & Quek, 2001) contend that individuals can have multiple career anchors rather than just one career anchor. They maintain that it is possible for individuals to have both primary and secondary career anchors. Accordingly, career anchors can be talent-based, need-based or value-based, or alternatively, individuals may have high levels of personal ambivalence and be torn between two equally attractive goals. Warr and Pearce (2004) concur that the weighting of all eight-career anchors should be considered, acknowledging the value of each and that the strength of preferences will differ for each anchor.
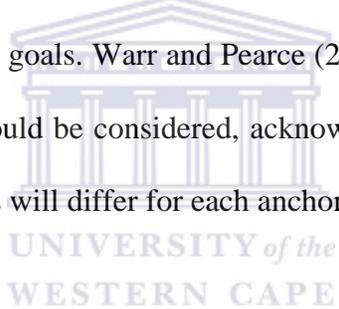
Muchinsky, Kriek and Schreuder (2002), conceptualise career anchors as part of a self-concept in which talents and skills, motives, needs, goals and values are integrated. A career anchor may take ten years or more to develop through actual work experience and remains relatively stable over time, even if work situations do not facilitate its effectiveness. A career anchor becomes an issue if the individual feels his or her real self is not engaged in the work (Schein, 1990).

Origin of the Concept

Schreuder and Theron (1997) maintain that career anchors have the function of organising a person's experience, identifying the individual's long-term contributions and establishing criteria for success by which individuals can measure themselves.

The theory is rooted in the tradition of the trait and factor theories, which focuses on the the identification of individual differences in values, motives and abilities. Career anchor theory relates individual differences to differences in career decision-making processes and career progression, and not to attitudes for particular work (Coetzee, 1996). The label "career anchor" indicates an area of such paramount importance to a person that he or she would not give it up. The person comes to define his or her basic self-image in terms of that concern, and it becomes an overriding issue at every stage of the career. The career anchor is that one element in a person's self-concept that the individual will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices. Career anchors are therefore 'inside' the person and influence career choices and decisions (Schein, 1978).

Schreuder and Theron (1997) and Schein (1978) defined a career anchor as a pattern of self-perceived talents, motives and values, which guide, constrain, stabilise and integrate the individual's career. Without knowledge of his/her career anchor, the employee could land up in a work situation that is not satisfactory and might feel that 'this is not really me'.

Kniveton (2004) believes that the concept of career anchors is inappropriate since no attempt is made to categorise the whole person, but merely outlines their orientation towards one very focused aspect of their lives which is their work.

According to Yarnall (1998), the other main criticism of Schein's (1975) research is that it took place on a fairly small sample of highly educated people, who were all men in their late 20s/early 30s was used, which means the transferability to women, racial groups, or less educated groups is therefore in question.

2.10.1 Development of a Career Anchor
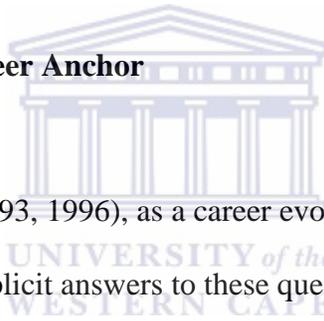
According to Schein (1990; 1993, 1996), as a career evolves, the person develops a self-concept that includes some explicit answers to these questions:

1. What are my talents, skills, and areas of competence? What are my strengths and weaknesses?
2. What are my main motives, needs, drives, and goals in life? What do I want or not want, either because I have never wanted it or because I have reached a point of insight and no longer want it?
3. What are my values–the main criteria by which I judge what I am doing? Am I in an organisation or job that is congruent with my values? How good do I feel about

what I am doing? How proud or ashamed am I of my work and career? (Schein, 1990; 1993). **Figure 2.1** provides an overview of the formation of career anchors.

Figure 2.1 The formation of the career anchor pattern
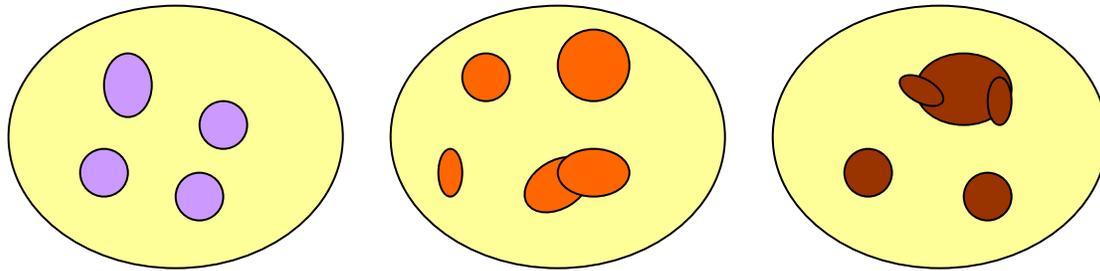
1a: Pre Career patterns	1b: Beginning career anchor patterns	1c: Complete career anchor patterns

Source: Derr (1980). Work, family and career: New frontiers in theory and research. p. 183 – 185.

This self-concept builds on whatever self-insight an individual has acquired from the experiences of youth and education. However, it cannot be a mature self-concept until a career occupant has had enough real occupational experience to know his or her talents, motives, and values. Such learning might require up to ten years or more of actual work experience. It is then that talents, motives, and values become intertwined and people learn to be better at those things they value and are motivated to do, they also learn to value and be motivated by those things they happen to do well (Schein, 1993).

Yarnall (1998) conducted a study within a service organisation employing approximately 6 500 employees in a range of disciplines and located at various sites throughout the United Kingdom. The main occupations included engineers, air traffic

controllers, technicians, managerial and administrative staff. The aim of the study was to determine the distribution of career anchors within a sample group which incorporated a proportionate number of females, a range of different age groups and employees from all levels within an organisation. The results of Yarnall's (1998) study indicated that, the distribution of the career anchors in the sample that certain career anchors (security/stability and technical/professional values) were more important to the majority of employees' careers in the particular organisation. Yarnall (1998), surmises that career anchors provide organisations with a better understanding in terms of career development as it can be used in various occupations. Each of Schein's career anchors are discussed below:

2.10.2 Technical/Functional Competence

Some people discover as their careers unfold that they have both a strong talent and high motivation for a particular kind of work. They are excited and motivated when they can exercise their talent and derive satisfaction from knowing that they are experts. They build a sense of identity around the *content* of their work–the technical or functional areas in which they are succeeding–and develop increased skills in those areas. Technically/functionally anchored people commit themselves to a life of specialization and devalue the concerns of the general manager, although they are willing to become functional managers if it enables them to pursue their areas of expertise. Although most people start out specializing, only some find this intrinsically

rewarding enough to develop career anchors around their specialties (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Muchinsky et al., 2002).

The type of work enjoyed by the members of this group is that it be challenging to them. If the work does not test their abilities and skills, it quickly becomes boring and demeaning and results in them seeking other assignments. Since their self-esteem hinges on exercising talent, they need tasks that would allow for this. Although others might be more concerned about the context of the work, this type of person is more concerned about the intrinsic *content* of the work. Technical/functional people who have committed themselves to an organisation, are willing and anxious to share in goal setting. However, once goals have been agreed on, they demand maximum autonomy in executing them. Not only do they want the autonomy in execution, but they generally also want unrestricted facilities, budgets, and resources of all kinds to enable them to perform the job appropriately (Schein, 1993).

They want to be paid for their skill levels, often defined by education and work experience, and are oriented more toward absolute pay level than toward special incentives such as bonuses except as forms of recognition. They also prefer a professional promotional path that functions in parallel with the typical managerial path and they resent promotional systems that make advancement equivalent to moving into administration or management (Schein, 1990).

Schein (1996) maintains that technical/functional competence will become increasingly important in the future as organisations become increasingly knowledge based. Conversely, in a changing technological world, individuals with this anchor may find their skills rapidly becoming outdated, and become confronted with the reality that there is no guarantee that organisations will offer continued training.

This group values the recognition of his or her professional peers more than uninformed rewards from members of management. In terms of the type of recognition that is valued, at the top of the list is the opportunity for further learning and self-development in the specialty. Thus, educational opportunities, organisation -sponsored sabbaticals, encouragement to attend professional meetings, budgets for equipment on are highly valued. This is especially true because one of the greatest threats to technically/functionally anchored people as they age, they become redundant since they lack the up to date knowledge or skills to maintain effective performance in either their current or future work (Kaufman, in Schreuder, 1989).

A study by Schein and Van Maanen (1977) revealed that police persons who were technically/functionally anchored, were found to be the "cops's cop". Apprehending a criminal is the individual's raison d etre for being in the occupation. Promotion to a higher bureaucratic level holds little fascination for persons anchored here. Promotion may be viewed with disdain, for it usually takes away the 'action' on the street. Administrative and service duties are likely to be seen by this group as a frivolous waste

of time, many police persons proclaim they are cops and not pencil pushers or social workers (Schein, 1993).

Igbaria, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1991) ascertained that technically anchored management information system employees were more satisfied and more committed to their jobs when they held positions in their areas of expertise than in general management.

Similarly, van Rensburg (2001) found that pharmacists, with the technical/functional anchor preferred to show their expertise during their daily practice and would pursue opportunities to specialize in their field of interest.
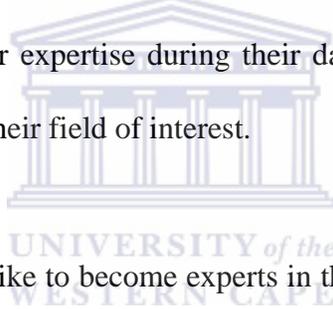
- These pharmacists would like to become experts in the field of pharmaceutical care, HIV/AIDS counselors,
- They would not like to become general managers, and
- They would also prefer to be promoted in terms of broadening their expertise, which is pharmaceutical care and not be restricted to dispensing only.

Schein (1978 cited in van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000) concedes that opportunities for technical/functional anchored individuals could increase as organisational structures become flatter, outsourcing grows in popularity and high-skilled knowledge workers become scarcer.

2.10.3 General Managerial Competence

Some individuals discover that as their careers progress they really want to become general managers, that management interests them, and believe they have the range of competence required to be a general manager. They also have the ambition to rise to organisational levels where they will be responsible for major policy decisions and where their own efforts will make the difference between success and failure. They view knowing several functional areas as necessary and accept that expertise is a prerequisite to function well in a general manager's job. Key values and motives for this group of people are advancement up the corporate hierarchy to higher levels of responsibility, opportunities for leadership, contributions to the success of their organisations, and high income (Schein, 1996).
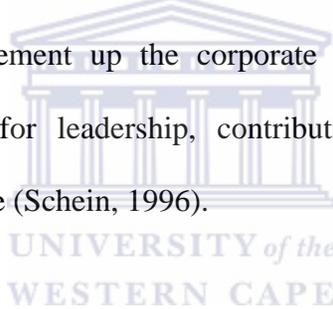
General management as a career does not require a high level of motivation to reach the top but also require a mixture of talents and skills in the following three basic areas:

Analytical competence - The ability to identify, to analyse, to synthesize, and to solve problems under conditions of incomplete information and uncertainty. It is commonly said that general managers are decision makers. However, it is probably more accurate to say that general managers are capable of identifying and stating problems in such a way that decisions can be made. General managers manage the decision-making process (Schein, 1996).

Interpersonal and intergroup competence - The ability to influence, supervise, lead, handle, and control people at all levels of the organisation toward organisational goal achievement, getting others to collaborate to achieve synergistic outcomes, motivating people to contribute what they know to the problem-solving process, communicating clearly the goals to be achieved, facilitating the decision-making process and implementation, monitoring progress, and instituting corrective action if necessary (Schein, 1996).

Emotional competence - The capacity to be stimulated by emotional and interpersonal issues and crises rather than to be exhausted or crippled by them; the capacity to bear high levels of responsibility without becoming paralysed; and the ability to exercise power and make difficult decisions without guilt or shame. Only as they gain confidence in their abilities to handle their own feelings do they gain confidence that they can really succeed as general managers. The essence of the general manager's job is to absorb the emotional strains of uncertainty, interpersonal conflict, and responsibility (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

General managers differ from people with other anchors primarily in that they have analytical competence, interpersonal and intergroup competence, and emotional competence. A high managerial level in a specialist technical or functional field does not interest them since they prefer to be generalists to succeed in general management. They have to be fairly skilled in each of three areas namely, analytical competence (which involves identifying and solving problems), interpersonal or intergroup

competence (which involves influencing and motivating individuals and functional groups in the organisation), and emotional competence (which involves seeing emotional and interpersonal issues, as well as high levels of responsibility, as stimulating) (Muchinsky et al., 2002).

Managerially anchored people desire work that involves high levels of responsibility; challenging, varied, and integrative work; leadership opportunities; and opportunities to contribute to the success of their organisations. They will measure the attractiveness of a work assignment in terms of its importance to the success of the organisation. This group measure themselves by their income levels and expect to be very highly paid. They want to be paid substantially more than the level below, and they want short-term rewards such as bonuses for achieving organisational targets. They insist on promotion based on merit and believe that the ability to get results is critical in measuring performance (Schein, 1993).

The most important forms of recognition for managerially anchored people are promotions to positions of higher responsibility. They measure such positions by a combination of rank, title, salary, number of subordinates, and size of budget, and they expect promotions frequently. If they are too long in particular jobs, they assume that they are not performing adequately. This group of people is highly responsive to monetary recognition in the form of increases, bonuses, and stock options; they enjoy titles, status symbols (such as large offices, cellphones, or special privileges) and, most

importantly, the approval from someone who really understands his or her work (Schein, 1993).

The qualities of managerially anchored individuals were confirmed in a study by Van Maanen and Schein (1977). Where the careers of young policemen were investigated to determine how they orientate themselves toward their job. For patrol persons with the managerial competence anchor, their goals in life, centred around promotions to responsible positions and the attainment of high rank in the police service. The person may attend college during off-duty hours, studying in order to be promoted and would actively search out ways to increase opportunity to advance in rank. Those patrol persons most concerned with achieving managerial responsibility were most likely to regard everyday patrol duties as unimportant and would withdraw from them whenever possible.
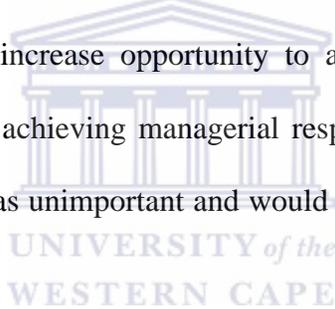
Tan and Quek (2001) conducted a study amongst educators in Singapore to determine their various primary career anchors, the impact of the degree of congruency between teaching and the career anchors on intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and turnover intentions. The study reported that since there were a limited number of principal and vice-principal positions for managerial competence anchored educators to strive for, this resulted in incongruence with their high expectations of extrinsic rewards they hoped to derive from a teaching career.

Greenhaus et al. (2000) postulate that where there are fewer opportunities for managers and others to advance due the fact that the number of employees exceeds the number of vacant positions, employees could become plateaued in the career at a fairly early stage, with a slimmer chance of promotion or fewer opportunities for increased responsibility.

2.10.4 Autonomy/Independence

Some employees realise early in their working lives that they do not enjoy being bound to other people's rules, procedures, working hours, dress codes, and other norms prevalent in organisations. Instead, they prefer doing things in their own way, at their own pace, and according to their own standards. They find the restriction of organisational life to be irrational and intrusive into their private lives; therefore, they prefer to pursue more independent careers. They may be led to work in areas where autonomy is relatively possible even in large organizations, being employed in research and development, or as field sales offices, or the management of geographically remote units. This type of person prefers work that clearly defines goals but wants the independence to accomplish it himself or herself. The autonomy-anchored person cannot stand close supervision; he or she might agree to organisation-imposed goals or targets but wants to be left alone after those goals are set (Igbaria & Baroudi, 1993).

These people prefer merit pay for performance, immediate payoffs, bonuses, and other forms of compensations with no limitations or obligations attached. The autonomy-

anchored person responds best to forms of recognition such as medals, testimonials, letters of commendation, prizes, awards, and other such rewards, this could mean more than promotions, title changes, or even financial bonuses (Schein, 1993).

Individuals with an autonomy/independence anchor need to define their work in their own ways and according to their own standards. They have learned to be self-reliant and responsible and dislike close supervision and being bound by working hours and rules. While promotion is associated with more freedom in their work, individuals with this anchor may decline to move from a job that entails autonomy. Individuals with this anchor find it easier to adapt to changes because their orientation is based on self-reliance, which may be needed for the future (Schein, 1996).
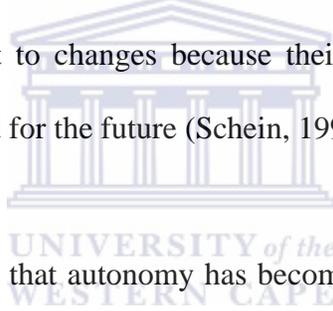
Greenhaus et al. (2000) report that autonomy has become a significant phenomenon in the workplace in recent years since employees have come to value freedom and autonomy. They have come to value the freedom to select work projects and how to decide how to accomplish tasks. To many employees, attaining high quality job performance on challenging autonomous projects would be more important than receiving a promotion.

Through research it was discovered that in the police world there is a category of career that offers maximal autonomy and independence – the solitary officer who refuses to work with a partner, the traffic officer who values motorcycling adventures most highly

(Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). While Tan & Quek (2001) found that autonomy as a career anchor for educators in Singapore had the following implications:

- Lack of sufficient autonomy in their teaching, led to a source of low motivation, and

- Educators with the need for greater autonomy would leave teaching if they felt restricted.

Van Rensburg (2001) reported that pharmacists with autonomy as a career anchor yielded the following results:
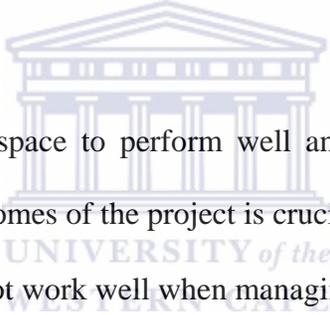
- They needed variety and space to perform well and would do well in a project driven position where outcomes of the project is crucial to the company.

- Close supervision would not work well when managing these people.

- Pharmacists with this anchor need physical recognition, for example, testimonials or letters for their contributions to the organisation

In Jarlstrom's (2000) study of personality preferences and career expectations of Finnish business students, she postulated that autonomy had been found to be most strongly associated with both personality preferences, intuitive and perceiving types.

2.10.5 Security/Stability

There are people with a great need to organise their careers so that they feel safe and secure, so that future events are predictable, and they can relax and feel successful. For some people security and stability are predominant throughout their careers to the point that these concerns guide and constrain all major career decisions. Security/stability-anchored people welcome the "golden handcuffs" and are usually willing to give responsibility for their career management to their employers. In exchange for permanent status, they are willing to be told what to do and because of this, they are sometimes perceived as lacking ambition. If they obtain the security they are seeking, they are content with whatever levels they have attained. If they have unused talents, they are content to find non-work or non-career activities in which they can exercise those talents (Igbaria & Baroudi, 1993).

Security/stability-anchored people prefer stable, predictable work and are more concerned about the context of the work than the nature of the work itself. Job enrichment, job challenge, and other intrinsic motivational tools do not matter as much to them as improved pay, working conditions, and benefits. They also prefer to be paid steady salary increases based on length of service. Such a person prefers benefit packages that emphasise insurance and retirement programmes (Schein, 1996).

The security/stability-anchored person prefers a seniority-based promotion system and welcomes a published grade and rank system that outlines how long he/she must serve in any given grade before promotion can be expected. They want recognition for their loyalty and steady performance, preferably with reassurances of further stability and continued employment. Above all, they need to believe that loyalty makes a real contribution to the organisation's performance (Schein, 1993).

Previous research reports that security is an identifiable anchor for some police officers. Those falling into this category do whatever is required to maintain their job, and in fact seek out certain organisational locations where stability, safety and routine characterises their day to day tasks–communications, jail and records. When patrolling, these officers tend to adopt a public relations style with the public and fellow officers, valuing interpersonal dealings with people but disregard the importance of interactions with training programmes, supervision and the courts, since it is viewed as having little interest in career advancement (Schein & Van Maanen, 1979).

Schein (1990) theorised that government and civil jobs are often attractive to security anchored individuals. Individuals with this anchor are more concerned with the context of their work that is, improved pay, work conditions and benefits. For educators in Singapore, the improvement in pay and employment security derived from a teaching career are two extrinsic aspects that matter most to security anchored educators. Therefore they should feel more satisfied with a teaching career because they receive

what they value, meaning that their turnover intentions would be lower (Tan & Quek, 2001).

Fourie and Van Vuuren (1998) investigated career anchors and career resilience and its link to personality characteristics. The motivation for using Schein's (1978) career anchors was that it explores the dynamics of the internal career. According to Fourie and Van Vuuren (1998), with the changes experienced in the world of work, it is important for individuals to rely on internal definitions of career success. London's (1983) definition of career resilience which is conceptualized as an individual's resistance to career disruptions in a less than optimal environment, was used. Career resilience implies a low fear of failure, a low need for security and a high tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity (Bridges, 1995; London & Mone, 1987 all in Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998). Individuals however, do not need to possess all of the characteristics to be considered resilient.

The behavioural component of career resilience is defined as the individual possessing the ability to: (1) adapt to changing circumstances, (2) being positive about job and organisational changes, (3) being comfortable to work with new and diverse people, (4) to exhibit self-confidence and (5) a willingness to take risks (London, 1993 in Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998). The findings of their study could provide valuable information for the present study amongst police officers who would need to be resilient in an environment where they are faced with daily challenges. Their study attempted to

determine in which way individual career orientation patterning is related to the level of career resilience. A lack of a relationship between self-reliance and CODI was found and could be attributed to the fact that, not all career orientation types desire to be independent of an employer.

Schein (1993) acknowledged those individuals who have dominant managerial competence anchors and the security/stability type career anchors, which in the traditional organisational forms the basis of organisational career systems, would especially be at risk in less than optimal career conditions.

Based on research conducted by Nordvik (1996) amongst 1063 Norweign adults to determine the relationship between Holland's (1985) vocational typology, Schein's (1978) career anchors and Myers-Briggs Types (1985), it was deduced that a relationship exists between the career anchor-security/stability and the MBTI type; sensing-intuition. Similarly, in a study conducted by Rothmann (2001) amongst managers, significant relationships between preferences for sensing and judgment and the career anchor security/stability were found, while pharmacists with the security anchor, job and material security were found to be important. As long as a company is stable, these employees would prefer to be employed but the moment the company is under pressure, these individuals would be the first to leave (Van Rensburg, 2001). Conversely, for Finnish business students in Jarlstrom's (2000) study, this anchor was

not preferred since they are focused on future careers; they seem positive and confident that they will have a job in the future.

2.10.6 Entrepreneurial Creativity

Still others discover early in life that they have a supreme need to create new businesses of their own by developing new products or services. The creative urge in this group is specifically toward creating new organisations, products, or services that can be identified closely with the entrepreneur's own efforts, that they will survive on their own and that they will be economically successful. For them, making money is a measure of success. Many dream about forming their own businesses and express those dreams at various stages of their careers. Entrepreneurially anchored people typically begin to pursue these dreams early in life, often having started small money-making enterprises, having found that they had both the talent and an extraordinarily high level of motivation to prove to the world that they could do it. It is important to distinguish this career anchor from the autonomy/independence one, as many people want to run their own businesses because of autonomy needs (Schein, 1996).

Entrepreneurs are known for their excessive need to create, and they tend to become bored easily. In their own enterprises, they may continue to invent new products or services, or they may lose interest, sell these enterprises, and start new ones. For them, ownership is the ultimate. Often they do not pay themselves very well, but they retain

control of their organisations' stock. Large organisations that attempt to retain entrepreneurs often misunderstand the intensity of these needs. Unless they are given control of the new enterprise, the entrepreneurially anchored individual is less likely to stay with an organisation (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

They want a promotional system that permits them to be wherever they need to be at any given point during their careers. They want the power and the freedom to move into the roles they consider to be key and to meet their own needs. Building fortunes and sizeable enterprises are two of the most important ways in which members of this group achieve recognition. In addition, entrepreneurs are rather self-centered, seeking high personal visibility and public recognition (Schein, 1993).
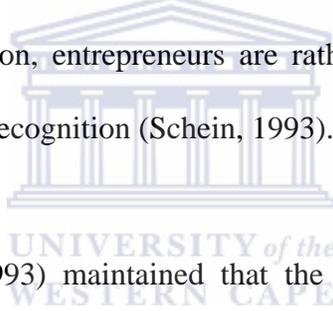
Van Maanen and Schein (1993) maintained that the creativity anchor is the most difficult to clearly articulate in police officers, partly because of the few cases dealt with. However, in the police world, the anchor is crucial for understanding the so-called rotten apple or bent police person. Not all police officers have the situational opportunity to engage in burglary, extortion or the narcotics trade, but police do differ in regard to how far they will pursue such deviant behaviour given the opportunity. Therefore the 'grafter' who initiates and actively builds a parallel criminal career while engaged in policework can be seen to have a creative anchor in much the same way as the entrepreneur in the managerial world.

Van Rensburg (2001) found that pharmacists with entrepreneurial creativity as an anchor would work in a company but would endeavour to start their own business. A way of retaining these individuals could be to use their entrepreneurial tendency to benefit the company to create new business opportunities or to afford them shares in the business. The entrepreneurial creativity anchor was preferred by business students, yet in the same study, Jarlstrom (2000), posit that managers did not relate to this career anchor. A possible reason could be that students are more creative with regard to entrepreneurship. Arthur (1994), on the other hand, is of the opinion that entrepreneurial creativity as a career anchor should be treated as a necessary element in an individual's career behaviour. This view is held by other theorists who propose that a careerist should adopt an entrepreneurial view of their career if they are to take advantage of career opportunities with regard to the new career paradigm (Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000).
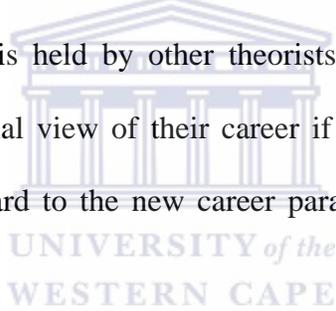
2.10.7 Sense of Service/ Dedication to a Cause

There are some people who enter occupations because of the values related to the job. They are oriented more toward these values than toward the actual talents or areas of competence involved. Their career decisions are based on the desire to improve the world in some way. Those in the helping professions—such as medicine, nursing, social work, teaching, and the ministry hold this career anchor. People with this anchor are also found in organisations, in areas such as business management, where the manager

chooses to improve certain aspects of society or the human resources specialist dedicated to work on employee assistance programmes or employment equity programmes. Values such as working with people, serving humanity, and helping one's nation can be powerful anchors in one's career. However, not everyone in a service-oriented occupation is motivated by the desire to serve. Some doctors, lawyers, ministers, and social workers may be anchored in technical/functional competence or autonomy or security (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

Service-anchored persons usually gravitate towards work that permits them to influence their employing organisations or social policies in the direction of their values. They desire fair pay for their contributions and portable benefits. More important than monetary rewards is a promotional system that recognises the contribution of the service-anchored person and moves them into positions with more influence and the freedom to operate autonomously. They prefer recognition and support both from their professional peers as well as from their superiors and they essentially want to feel that their values are shared by higher levels of management (Schein, 1993).

Teaching as a service involves imparting knowledge and moulding lives of young people, and therefore is congruent with the service anchor. Tan and Quek (2001), postulate that the more dominant the service anchor, the higher the educators intrinsic satisfaction will be and the lower their turnover intentions. While pharmacists who are

service anchored are value-driven, sharing the purpose, objectives and core values of the organisation is important to them. They will also dedicate their entire job to care for the people who they serve and be valuable employees as long as the company empowers them to care for the people (Van Rensburg, 2001).

2.10.8 Lifestyle

Finding a way to integrate the needs of the individual, the family, and the career is important to many people. The integration of the three aspects is an evolving function. Employees who prefer this anchor have a propensity to organise their existence around lifestyle, in one sense, saying that their careers are less important to them and, therefore, they do not have a career anchor. This kind of person prefers flexibility more than anything else. Unlike the autonomy-anchored person who desires flexibility, those with lifestyle anchors are quite willing to work for organisations provided that they have the option to travel or move only at times when family situations permit, part-time work if life concerns require it, paternity and maternity leaves, day-care options, flexible working hours, work at home during normal working hours, and so on. Lifestyle-anchored people look more for an organisational attitude than a specific program-an attitude that reflects respect for personal and family concerns (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

Tan and Quek (2001) found that educators in Singapore experience lower extrinsic satisfaction where there is a lack of extrinsic features such as flexible working hours or holidays to enable them to live a balanced lifestyle According to Van Vuuren and Fourie (2000), individuals with lifestyle as a career anchor would largely resist routine and other forms of regimentation in organisations.

2.10.9 Pure Challenge

There are people who define success as overcoming impossible obstacles, solving unsolvable problems, or winning out over extremely tough opponents. As they progress, they seek ever-tougher challenges. For some, this takes the form of seeking jobs in which they face more and more difficult problems. Some high-level strategy/management consultants seem to fit this pattern in that they thrive on more and more difficult kinds of strategic assignments. For others, the challenge is defined in interpersonal and competitive terms. For example, some naval aviators perceive their sole purpose in life to be, to prepare themselves for the ultimate confrontation with an enemy. In that confrontation these "warriors" would prove to themselves and to the world their superiority in competitive combat. Many salespeople, professional athletes, and even some managers define their careers essentially as daily combat or competition in which winning is everything (Igbaria & Baroudi, 1993).

The area of work, the kind of employing organisation, the pay system, the type of promotion system, and forms of recognition are all secondary to whether or not the job provides constant opportunities for self-tests. In the absence of such constant tests of self, the person becomes bored and irritable. Often such people talk about the importance of variety in their careers; one reason why some of them are attracted to general management is the variety and intense challenge that managerial situations provide (Schein, 1993).

Individuals with pure challenge anchor thrive on testing themselves to the ultimate by achieving the impossible. Success means solving problems that seem insurmountable. They seek obstacles, competition, and challenge in any area of work, whether strategic high-level management, interpersonal relations, or competitive sport. If their work does not provide the novelty, variety, and difficulty that tests them, they get bored and become problems for themselves and to others. This group is growing in numbers, although it is not clear whether more people entering the labour force have a predisposition for pure challenge as an anchor, or whether individuals simply have to adapt to the new and different growing challenges that the world presents (Schein, 1996).

This was found to be the case amongst Singaporean educators. When faced with challenging tasks that stimulate improvement in performance, educators experience more intrinsic satisfaction and lower turnover intentions (Tan & Quek, 2001). Similarly,

Van Rensburg (2001) found that pharmacists with this anchor would get bored with routine work and they would also pursue any difficulty to aspire to their and the company's objectives. Getting more clients is seen as a challenge and individuals would do anything to achieve this.

2.11 VOCATIONAL CHOICE: THE MOTIVATION TO BECOME A POLICE OFFICER

The life of a police officer in South Africa is frought with danger and stress. According to police statistics, in the Western Cape, there is currently 1 police official to every 307 citizens (Police Ratio n.d.). Marks (2003) is of the opinion that being a police officer in South Africa is probably the most stressful job. According to Anshel (2000), lack of resources, high crime in the country and transformation within the police structure are some of the stress factors. Literature on stress amongst the police alludes to 'inherent' and 'organisational' stress. Inherent stress is described as the danger involved in the duties itself. It was reported in an article in the Pretoria News, July 2006, that fifty-one police officers were killed in the first six months of 2006, this is a major increase when compared to the 33 slain during the same period last year. Similarly, organisational stress is caused by the bureaucratic nature of the police organisations (Violanti & Aron, 1994).

Stress amongst members of the police has lead to the escalation of suicide, burnout, abuse of alcohol, illness and decrease in job satisfaction and performance. When compared to other professions, suicide can be described as an epidemic within the police (Violanti, 1994). In a country like North Eastern America an average of 25 per 100 000 suicides from 1987 – 1999 was recorded, while New York reported 29 per 100 000 per year (Lindsay & Lester, 2001). In South Africa these figures are far higher, statistics show a decrease from 200 in 1995 to 110 in 1999, however, from 1999 to 2000 an increase to 130 was experienced (Rossouw in Pienaar & Rothmann, 2005).

The South African elections brought about changes in the way policing would be conducted in the future. Constitutional changes dictated a more transparent, accountable and representative police service and supported the idea of community policing. The motivation being, that community partnership-involving other government institutions, organisations and citizens in collaboration with the police, together could address problems (Steyn, 2005).

Roberg, Crank and Kuykendall (2000) is of the opinion that SAPS's organisational culture consists of a subculture since each member brings his/her own culture. The culture is described as the occupational beliefs and values shared by officers from various areas. Their view is that culture highlights how values are adopted from broader society and how police recruits are socialized into an established way of thinking about police work.

An American study, Bayley and Mendelson, 1969; Gorer, 1955, all in Lefkowitz, 1977) noted that research consistently suggests that the predominant motivation for choosing a career in the police is the need for security. An emphasis on job security and fear of losing their job, is evident, according to these writers, this is consistent with the observation that most police officers come from working class backgrounds.

According to Steyn (2005), there are theorists who believe that police culture should be seen as an onion whereby the protective outer layer shields the heart. With the 'heart of the officers' bearing their commitment to the noble cause and the belief that they can make a contribution to society.
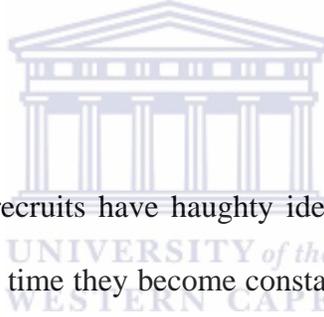
According to research, most recruits have haughty ideas and high expectations when they join the police and by the time they become constables, they are despondent about the organisation and police work (Chan, 2003). Greenhaus et al. (2000) shares this view, proposing that if individuals do not have a realistic view of the job they will become disillusioned when the reality of the work environment does not meet their inflated expectations.

Meiring, Van De Vijver and Rothmann (2005), in a study to investigate construct, item and method bias of cognitive and personality tests, reported that police officers at entry-level are assessed using two cognitive tests – English reading and spelling and a personality test. The psychometric test batteries are used to select newcomers based on

skills, abilities and knowledge profiling of past recruits who successfully completed the organisation's basic training programme. Therefore, applicants who demonstrate characteristics and traits similar to those of officers already in the police service stand a greater chance of being employed. However, it is felt that the selection should recruit newcomers who will adopt the ethos and philosophy of their chosen career, which will make them fit for police work (Crank, 2004 cited in Steyn, 2005).

2. 12 Empirical Studies

Carl Jung's theory (1921) has been the basis for the development of different personality tests. Two of which are the Myers-Briggs Type indicator (Myers, 1962) and the Jung Type Indicator (JTI Manual, n.d.). Since no other study using the Jung Type Indicator (JTI) in relation to Career Anchors has been found, this study will consider relevant MBTI reports since research has shown that there are overlaps in dimensions between the two instruments.

Having used the MBTI and Schein's Career Anchors amongst business students, Jarlstrom (2000) reported the following relationships:

Extroversion/Introversion
o E's preferred Managerial Competence, Pure Challenge and Service Dedication
o I's preferred Technical Competence, Autonomy and Entrepreneurial Creativity

<u>Sensing/Intuition</u>

o S's preferred Technical Competence, Managerial and Security, while

o N's preferred Autonomy, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity

<u>Thinking/Feeling</u>

o T's preferred Technical Competence

o F's preferred Autonomy and Service

<u>Judgment/Perception</u>

o J's preferred Technical Competence, Managerial and Security

o P's preferred Autonomy and Entrepreneurial Creativity

One study was found using the Jung Type Indicator in relation to general intelligence, which was measured by using the Critical Reasoning Test Battery 2. The study was conducted amongst 4758 participants, it yielded the following result: SN – correlated with intelligence (g) indicating that individuals with higher intelligence go beyond the information provided by their senses to discover possibilities not likely to be obvious from sensing data (Intuition). A possible explanation as provided by research is that (g) is required to understand relationships that are not directly evident therefore implying that (g) leads to the development of Intuition (Furham, et al. 2005).

Mc Crae and Costa (1987) identified an overlap of MBTI dimensions and the Big 5 factors as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

OVERLAP OF MBTI DIMENSIONS AND THE BIG 5 FACTORS	
Figure 2.2	
EI correlated with Extraversion	SN correlated with Openness
TF correlated with Agreeableness	JP correlated with Conscientiousness
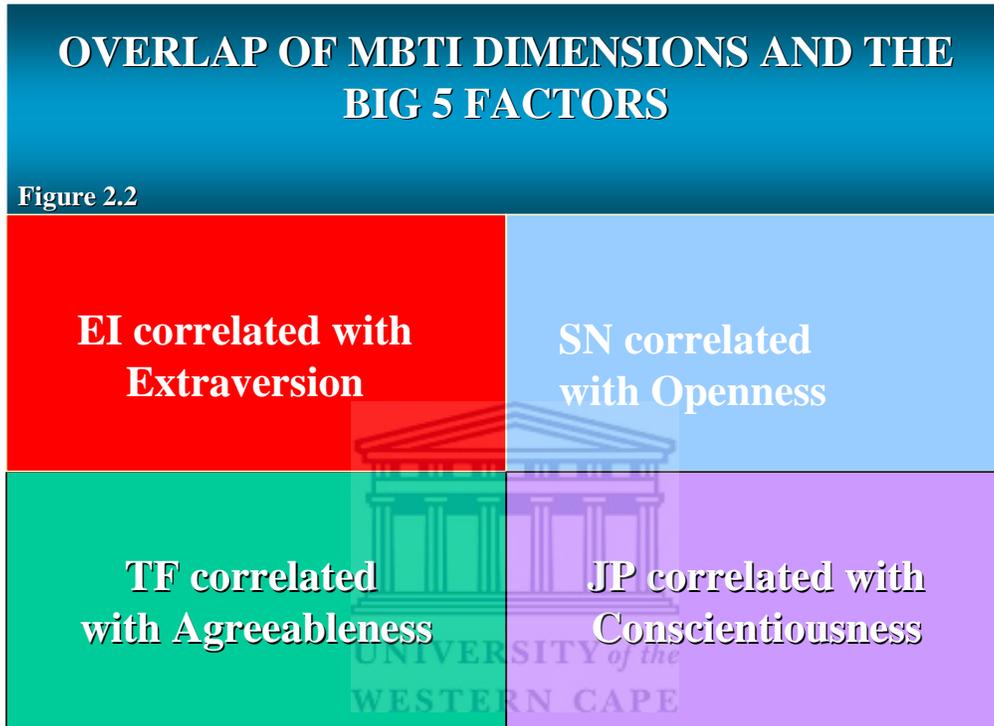
JP correlates with (g), individuals with high intelligence tend to directly perceive information (Perceiving) instead of being concerned with organizing it (Judging). The remaining TF and EI, JTI dimension also relate to intelligence. Individuals preferring TF – negatively correlated with (g). Research indicated that TF correlates positively with Neuroticism and neuroticism has often correlated (negatively) with measures of intelligence. Lastly, EI significantly correlated with intelligence measures. Individuals who are orientated towards the internal world instead of external, tend to obtain higher scores on intelligence tests. It has been proposed that Extroversion correlates with

intelligence tests performance instead of intelligence as such (Furnham, et al., 2005). According to Rawlings and Carnie (1989), extroverts tend to perform better on tasks involving speed, whereas introverts perform better on tasks requiring insight and reflection.

Ellison and Schreuder (2000) conducted research amongst 295 midcareer employees in managerial and non-managerial positions. They aimed to determine whether midcareer employees with a fit between career anchors and occupational types experience a higher level of job satisfaction (extrinsic – remuneration, working conditions and intrinsic – satisfaction from job content) (Kaplan, 1990 in Ellison and Schreuder, 2000) than mid-career employees with no such fit. Approximately 22,4% of the respondents (the largest single group) had technical competence as a dominant career anchor, 18,0%, the next largest group had lifestyle as a dominant anchor. These results support current research findings (Schein, 1996) namely, that technical competence and lifestyle integration are becoming increasingly prevalent as career anchors in the 1990s (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000).

While the rest of the sample was fairly evenly distributed among the remaining career anchors, however, managerial was the least common career anchor. In the managerial sample, the largest number of respondents (26%) regarded technical competence as their dominant anchor, while respondents with lifestyle and challenge also composed large proportions of the managerial sample (20% and 16% respectively). In the non-

managerial group, 20% of the respondents (the largest single group) regarded security as their dominant anchor. The next largest groups had technical competence (18%) and lifestyle (16%) as their dominant anchor (Ellison & Schreuder, 2000).

Similarly, Schreuder (1989) found a strong association between security and individuals in non-managerial positions. It was also found that employees with security as the dominant career anchor, who perceive their work as congruent ''with their career anchor'', have a much higher quality of work life than those with no such fit. Ellison and Schreuder's (2000) results reveal that there is a significant relation between career anchor and occupational type for the total group. There is, however, only some evidence of a significant relation between career anchor and occupational type for the managerial and non-managerial groups when the samples are considered separately.
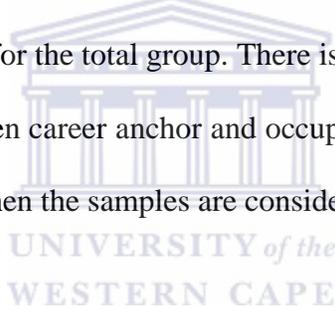
In a study by Opt, Loffredo and Donald (2003) which looked at communication behaviour of introverts and extroverts, the following was reported: Individuals who preferred extraversion, intuition, and thinking had a greater tendency to be argumentative than those who preferred introversion, sensing, and feeling. On the other hand, participants who preferred introversion or sensing were more apprehensive when communicating, in general and across the group, in meetings, and public contexts than those who preferred extraversion or intuition. Furthermore, participants who preferred feeling reported higher levels of communication anxiety in the public context than those who preferred thinking (Opt & Loffredo, 2000).

2.13 SUMMARY

In this chapter the concepts personality, personality preferences, personality type theories as well as the concept of career anchors as they are used in the context of this research, as well as the implications of these concepts in accordance with previous research, was investigated.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides information on where the research was conducted, the sample population, measuring instruments used, procedures followed to gather and collate the data and statistical techniques applied to analyse the data. The chapter ends with the formulation of the research hypotheses.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN
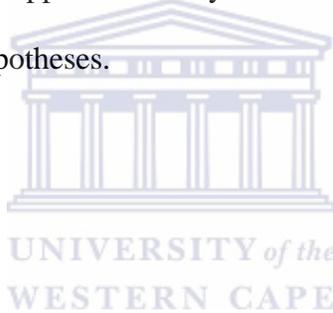
3.2.1 Population

A population is "the entire group of people, events or things that the researcher wishes to investigate" (Sekaran, 2001, p 225). The population for this study looked at was a group of police officers with various ranks from constables to senior superintendents who attended courses offered ranging from Self- Defence, Tactical Policing, Crime Prevention, Customer Service, Domestic Violence, Victim Empowerment, Human Rights and Policing, Street Survival and one or two other courses. The courses are offered throughout the year depending on budget availability. The number of officers

who attended the college from February 2004 to February 2006, was approximately 2620, with numbers varying from month to month. In June-July 2005, 458 police officers attended the college, whereas for January to March 2006, 218 police officers attended courses at the college.

3.2.2 Sample

Sampling is the process used to select cases for inclusion in a research study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2003, p. 276). A sample should therefore best represent the population in order to allow for an accurate generalisation of the results. This would then be referred to as a representative sample. Sekaran (2003) emphasizes the need to choose the right sample for the research, and Cooper and Schindler (2001) also state that a sample must be sufficiently large or it is not representative. In this study, although the population is not fixed from year to year as a result of budget constraints and the sample chosen was as a result of their availability, the sample can be considered to be not representative of the population.

Hence, non-probability sample, using a convenience sampling method was adopted. This method is sometimes referred to as an accidental or availability sample. The category of sample relies on available subjects, those close at hand and easily accessible (Berg, 2001). The advantages of using convenience sampling are: it is easy to access the sample and it is usually quicker and cheaper than other methods. However, since it is

non-random, it is a potentially biased method. An additional disadvantage of this method is that the population has not been defined and results cannot be generalised to a non-defined population.

This type of sampling for the present study was chosen as a result of access to training sessions. It was not always possible to gain access since training courses ran over 2-5 days which meant that trainers/facilitators were not always in a position to afford the researcher time to administer questionnaires which in some cases took up to an hour to complete.
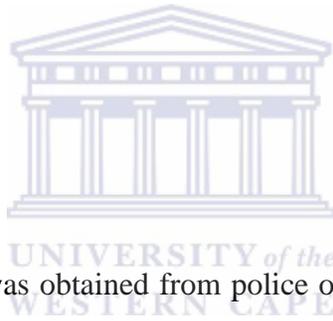
3.2.2.1 Sample Size

The data used for this study was obtained from police officers at the Training College. At the time the study was undertaken, 218 officers had attended courses offered at the college since January-March 2006.

Krejcie and Morgan cited in Sekaran (2003) provide a generalised scientific guideline to determine sample size and specifies that for a population size of (N=220), 140 police officers should have completed the questionnaires. The researcher was able administer 84 questionnaires, however one was spoilt, therefore 83 fully completed questionnaires was obtained. Roscoe in Sekaran (2003), proposed that a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for most research.

3.3 PROCEDURE

Contact was made with the senior superintendent in the Human Resources Division of the SAPS where the research proposal was submitted to determine its feasibility and the possibility of undertaking the research. The researcher was advised that it would be easier to conduct the study at a training college rather than to hand it out at various police stations since completion could be hindered, in light of the fact that officers on duty would be called out of stations to attend to duties outside of the charge office. This arrangement was accepted by the researcher who was later contacted telephonically by management of the Training College in Philippi. The Training College runs various training courses for police officers.
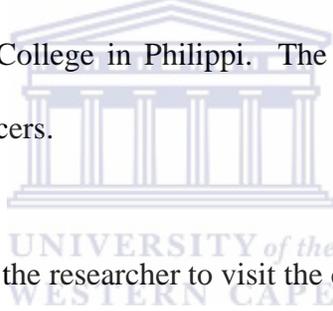
An arrangement was made for the researcher to visit the college to discuss the study and to liaise regarding suitable and available times with facilitators to administer the two questionnaires. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, that their responses would be completely anonymous and confidential and the data collected would be used for the purposes of this study only. An answer sheet and question booklet was handed to each individual, the instructions were read and officers had to complete the questionnaires.

After questionnaires had been administered to the first group, it was decided that the researcher would remain in touch telephonically in order to arrange the sessions to

follow, depending on the time available to course facilitators. The questionnaires were finally administered to a group of 84 police officers during various sessions. The group sizes ranged from 16-25 officers per session.

According to Sekaran (2003), the advantages of personally administered questionnaires are that any doubts can be clarified, rapport with respondents can be built and one can almost ensure a 100% response rate. However, the disadvantages include reluctance on the part of organisations to afford time with groups of employees to assemble for the purpose of completing questionnaires.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A quantitative method based on a cross-sectional research design was adopted to gather data for the research. The two questionnaires used for this study consisted of the Jung Type Indicator (JTI) and the Career Orientation Inventory (COI).

3.4.1   Jung Type Indicator (JTI)

The JTI is an indispensable tool for helping people manage issues of personal change and growth. By providing insight into the fundamental psychological processes, the JTI stimulates self awareness and acts as a constructive framework in which people can

understand and explore their interpersonal and thinking styles. (Jung Type Indicator, n.d.).

The JTI was used in this study to determine the personality preference of police officers. The JTI assesses a person's psychological type, using the categories first proposed by Jung (1921) and also adopts the approach developed by Myers (1962) for identifying which of the four functions are dominant. This consists of using an individual's secondary process of Judging or Perceiving as an indicator of which of the 4 functions will be dominant and which are secondary.

The categories are:

- Extraversion versus Introversion (EI)

- Thinking versus Feeling (TF),

- Sensing versus Intuiting (SN), and

- Judging versus Perceiving (JP).
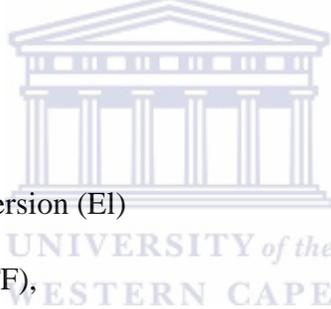
The questionnaire developed by Psytech International is an un-timed questionnaire which is said to take individuals 10 minutes, in some cases however, officers took up to 20 minutes to complete. The questionnaire comprises of 60 items and measures which of the four functions are dominant and which are auxiliary. The answers are rated according to a 1-5 point Likert rating scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The JTI can be hand-scored using a scoring mask or it can be scored using

Psytech International's computer-based scoring system, which generates a report that informs of the individual's personality preference, that is; Introversion/Sensing/Thinking/Judging (ISTJ), Extroversion/Sensing/Thinking/Judging (ESTJ) or any of the other preferences. This study made use of the computer scoring system.

3.4.2 The relationship between the JTI and MBTI

Factor analysis demonstrates that JTI subscales clearly measure four independent factors which map closely onto the MBTI subscales. There is most congruence between JTI and MBTI Introversion-Extroversion with all other matched pair measuring corrected values of 0.80 or better. The JTI also adopts the method of ascertaining the dominant function used by the MBTI (JTI Manual, n.d).

Despite similarities between the JTI and MBTI there are important differences between the two instruments in terms of their psychometric properties. The JTI is a further development that aims to provide a modern psychometrically sound measure of Jung's (1921) typology.

3.4.3 The reliability and validity of the Jung Type Indicator

3.4.3.1 Reliability

Reliability is "a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time" (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 119).

The various types of reliability which relate to the JTI will be discussed below:

a) **Internal Consistency:** A scale is said to be internally consistent if all the items are correlated with each other, which in turn implies that the items are all assessing the same trait or characteristic (JTI Manual, n.d.).
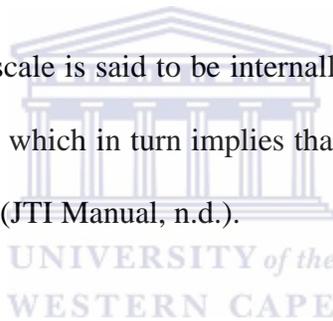
The JTI subscales have a high level of internal consistency, for example, on a sample of personnel professionals, internal consistency varied between 0.81 (for Sensing-Intuition) and 0.84 (for Thinking-Feeling) (JTI, Manual, n.d).

Psytech reports on a study conducted amongst 359 clients at a University Counseling Centre, where they sought advice regarding career choice, subject choices or career change. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the subsections of the Jung Type Indicator were as follows: Extroversion-Introversion (r=0.86), Sensing-Intuition (r=0.79), Thinking–Feeling (r=0.78) and Judgment–Perception (r= 0.84) (JTI Reliability, 2003).

b) Test- retest Reliability: According to Sekaran (2003), when the same measure is repeated on a second occasion and yields the same reliability co-efficient, this is called test-re-test reliability.

The JTI subscales were found to have a high level of reliability across a number of different samples, ranging from psychology and business undergraduates to technician applicants and personnel professionals, with Alpha coefficients ranging from .81 to .87. JTI subscales also demonstrate high levels of test-retest reliability, with coefficients ranging from .79 to .92 after a three-month period. Furthermore, in a study amongst a sample of 101 attendees at a training course, it was found that after three months, the reliability co-efficient for the following personality preferences were: EI = .92; SN = .88; TP= .79 and JP = .86 (JTI Manual, n.d).
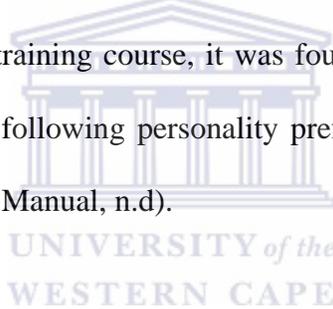
3.4.3.2 Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which a measurement procedure actually measures what it is intended to measure rather than measuring something else, or nothing at all (Leary, 2004).

Validity of the JTI was assessed by correlating the JTI and the MBTI subscales, which yielded corrected correlation coefficients ranging from .93 to 1 in absolute

value. These were supported by another study, as reported in the JTI Manual, amongst 40 personnel professionals, the scale intercorrelations for the original and revised versions of the JTI were: (EI =0.82), (SN=0.77), (TP=0.60) and (JP=0.69) (JTI Manual, n.d.).

3.5 Career Orientation Inventory (COI)

3.5.1 Description of Career Anchors

The following eight career anchors as measured on the COI are:
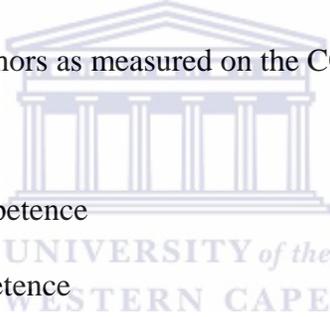
- Technical/Functional Competence
- General Managerial Competence
- Autonomy/Independence
- Security/Stability
- Entrepreneurial Creativity
- Service/Dedication to a Cause
- Pure Challenge
- Lifestyle

The Career Orientation Inventory (COI) of Schein which comprises of 41 items was used to measure each respondent's dominant career anchor. The questionnaire can take 20 minutes to complete.

According to Schein (1990), all of these items are of equal value and respondents must respond to each statement in terms of how important the statement is, using a five-point Likert-type scale. The questionnaire is hand scored, once a total is obtained for each of the career anchors it is divided by 3 or 5 to obtain an average score for each career anchor. The two highest scores were used to determine the career anchor of the individual.

- Questions 1–21, the scale ranges from 1 (of absolutely no importance) to 5 (very important)
- Questions 22 – 41 the scale ranges from 1 (not true) to 5 (completely true)

Boshoff, Kaplan and Kellerman (1988) found Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.70 and higher for the COI, except for Pure Challenge with an alpha coefficient of 0.45. Slabbert (1978) also found the COI to be valid for South African managers after factor analysis on COI responses produced a similar factor pattern as those reported by Schein (1990). In view of the acceptable psychometric properties it was decided to use the COI as a measuring instrument in this study.

3.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for all statistical calculations. Data presented from this package is utilised to make inferences based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research. Correlation analysis was used to ascertain the relationship between the personality preferences and career orientation inventory. In addition, ANOVA was utilised to determine whether there was a difference in the personality and career dimensions based on (gender, level of education, race, rank and age).

3.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics is described by Sekaran (2003) as statistics which describes the phenomena of interest. The descriptive statistics in this study include means, standard deviations, percentages, frequencies for the responses on the Jung Type Indicator and the Career Orientation Inventory. The mean is the measure of central tendency or center which provides the arithmetic average (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The standard deviation offers an index of the spread of the distribution or the variability of the data.

3.6.2   Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used to draw conclusions about reliability and generalisation of findings. According to Coolican (1999, p. 23), inferential tests are "used to infer whether differences or relationships between samples of data are 'significant', whether they reflect real effects in the population. These tests may help to decide whether the difference or relationship between data have plausibly occurred if there is no real effect in the population."

The hypotheses were tested by means of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Regression Analysis and Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).
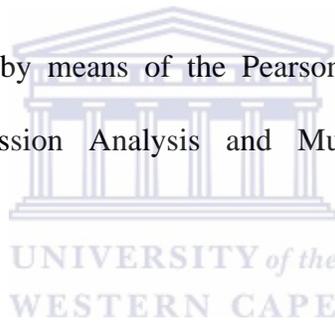
3.6.2.1 The Pearson Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson Product – Moment Correlation Coefficient reveals the magnitude and direction of relationships to which two variables are related to one another. The correlation coefficient varies over a range of +1 through 0 to -1. The magnitude is the degree to which variables move in unison or opposition. The size of the correlation + 40 is the same as – 40. The coefficient's sign signifies the direction of the relationship; whether large values on one variable are associated with large values on the other.

When values correspond like this, the two variables have a positive correlation (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

For the purpose of this study, the Pearson Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine:

- The relationship between personality preferences and career anchors.
- The relationship between the different dimensions of personality preferences.

3.6.2.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Sekaran (2003) states that multiple regression analysis is undertaken in order to examine the simultaneous effects of several independent variables on a dependent variable that is interval scaled. It aids in understanding how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by a set of predictors.

Different types of multiple regression procedure can be used, namely, stepwise multiple regression analyses, hierarchical regression analysis and multiple regression analysis. For purposes of this study, stepwise regression analysis will be used to determine the extent to which all the dimensions of personality and career anchors significantly explain the variance in personality preference and career anchors of police officers.

3.6.2.3 Analysis of Variance

Cooper and Schindler (2003, p. 546) describe ANOVA as "the statistical method of testing the null hypothesis that the means of several populations are equal. They further describe analysis of variance as the "break down or partitions of total variables into component parts."

ANOVA as defined by Leary (2004), is the differences between all condition means in an experiment simultaneously. In this study, this statistical method is used to establish if a statically significant difference exists in the career anchors based on biographical variables.
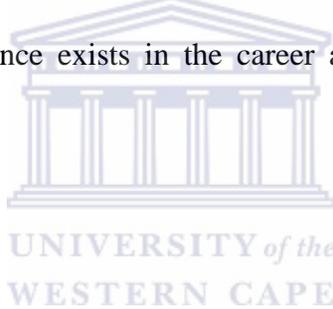
3.7 Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

A significant relationship exists between the personality preference and the career anchors of police officers.

Hypothesis 2

The career anchors of police officers will not be statistically explained by personality preference.

Hypothesis 3

There are statistically significant differences in career anchors based on biographical variables (gender, race, age, education and rank).

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained consent from the police officers by getting them to sign a consent form. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary. They were provided with a full explanation of the purpose of the study and their input into it so they could make an informed choice to participate voluntarily in the research. The consent form, which participants signed, assured them that their responses would be treated confidentially, their identity would be concealed and the responses of a group as a whole, would be published (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2003).

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter provided a summary of the sample, the measuring instrument used, the procedure followed to gather the data, the hypotheses as well as the statistical techniques used to analyse data. The following chapter will detail the findings of the study, by reporting on the results of the empirical analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The current chapter outlines the results obtained in the study and discusses the findings of the results. The chapter commences with an overview of the most salient sample characteristics depicted in graphical format. The descriptive and inferential statistical results are presented thereafter, followed by a discussion of these.

4.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow.

4.2.1 RESULTS OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The descriptive statistics calculated for the biographical questionnaire is presented in graphical format, followed by a description of the most salient sample characteristics in the form of frequencies and percentages.
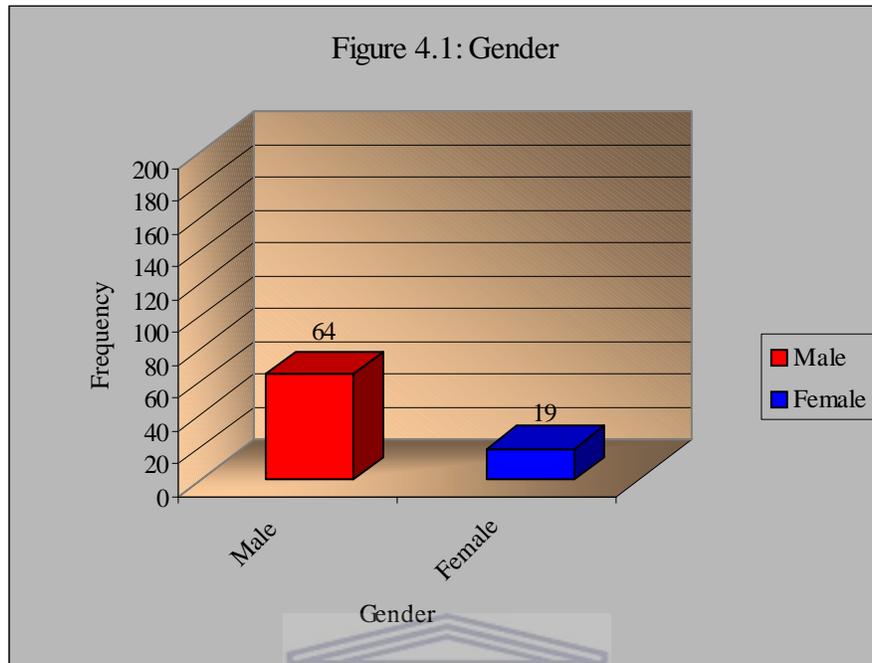
Figure 4.1: Gender

Figure 4.1 contains the graphic presentation of the gender distribution of the sample. There are a larger number of male respondents (n=64), which is 77% of the sample. The female respondents (n=19) comprised 23% of the sample. One person did not include their gender.
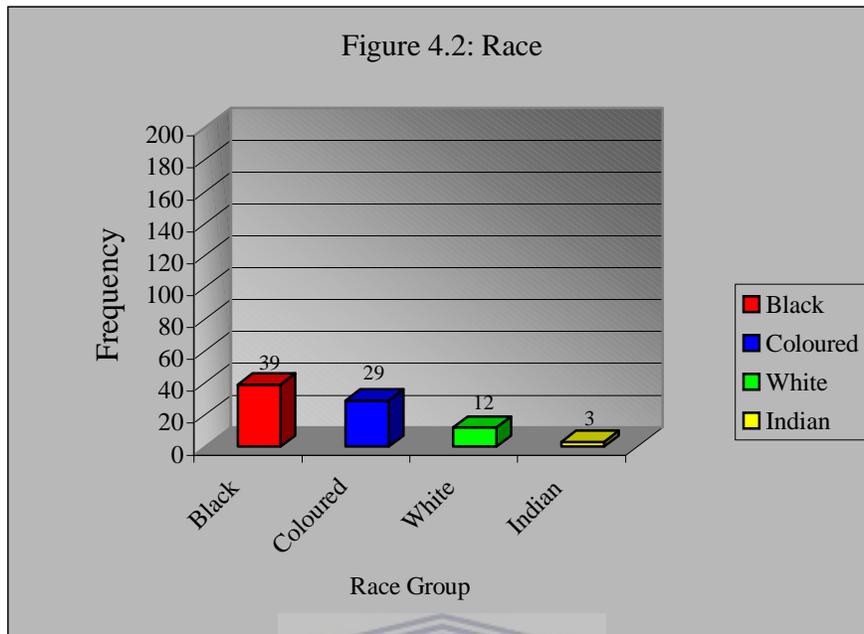
Figure 4.2: Race

Figure 4.2 contains the race composition of the police officers. From the frequency distribution in the graph it can be seen that Blacks (n=39) or 47%. This is followed by Coloureds (n=29, that is 35%), Whites (n=12, that is 14%) and Indians (n=3, that is 4%). One person did not provide their racial grouping.

Figure 4.3: Home Language
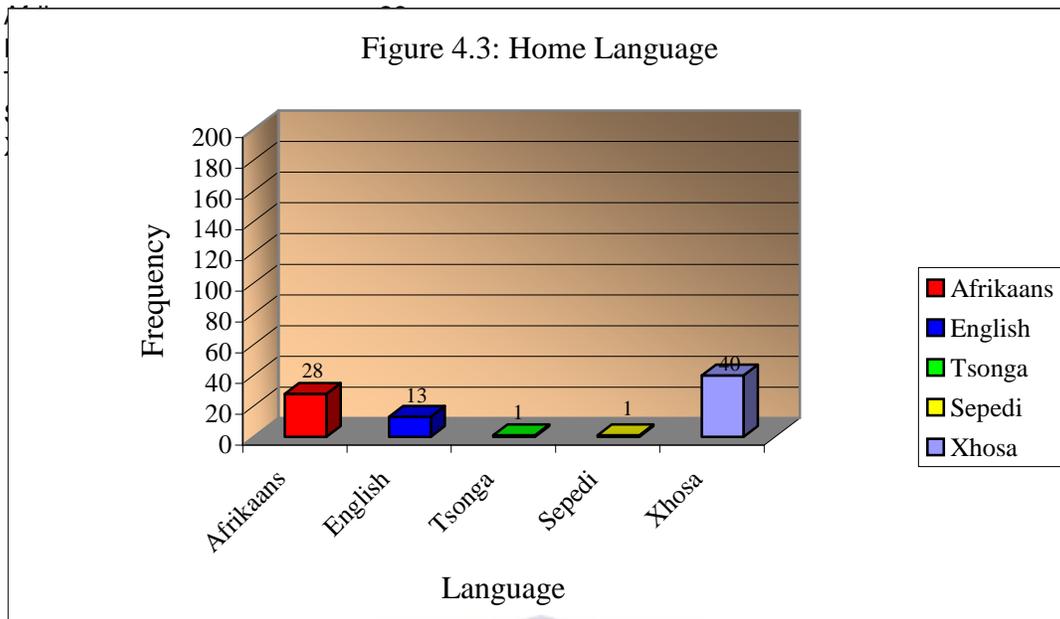
From Figure 4.3 it can be seen that the majority of the employees (n=40) or 48% are Xhosa speaking as their home language. Afrikaans is the second most spoken language (n=28) or 34% of the respondents. Respondents who speak English (n=13) comprised 16%, while those who spoke Tsonga (n=1) and Sepedi (n=1), respectively comprised 1% each. One person did not indicate their home language.

Figure 4.4: Education
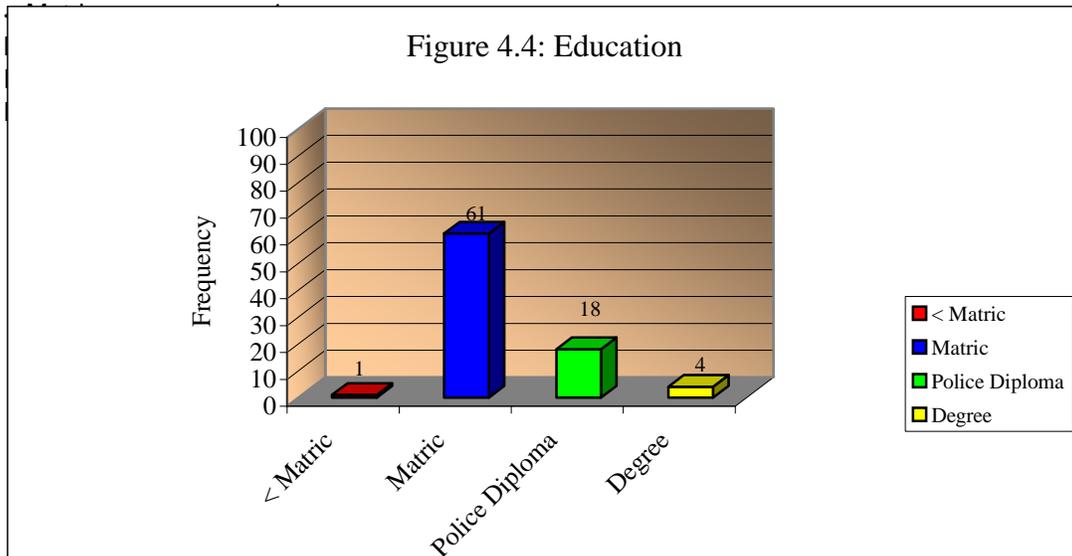
The level of education of the sample is shown in figure 4.4. The graphic presentation shows that respondents with matric (n=61) constitute the majority of the respondents, that is 73%. Those with police diplomas (n=18), comprised 21% of the sample. While those with degrees (n=4) comprised 5%, only 1 respondent indicated their highest education level as below matric, that is 1%.

Figure 4.5: Rank
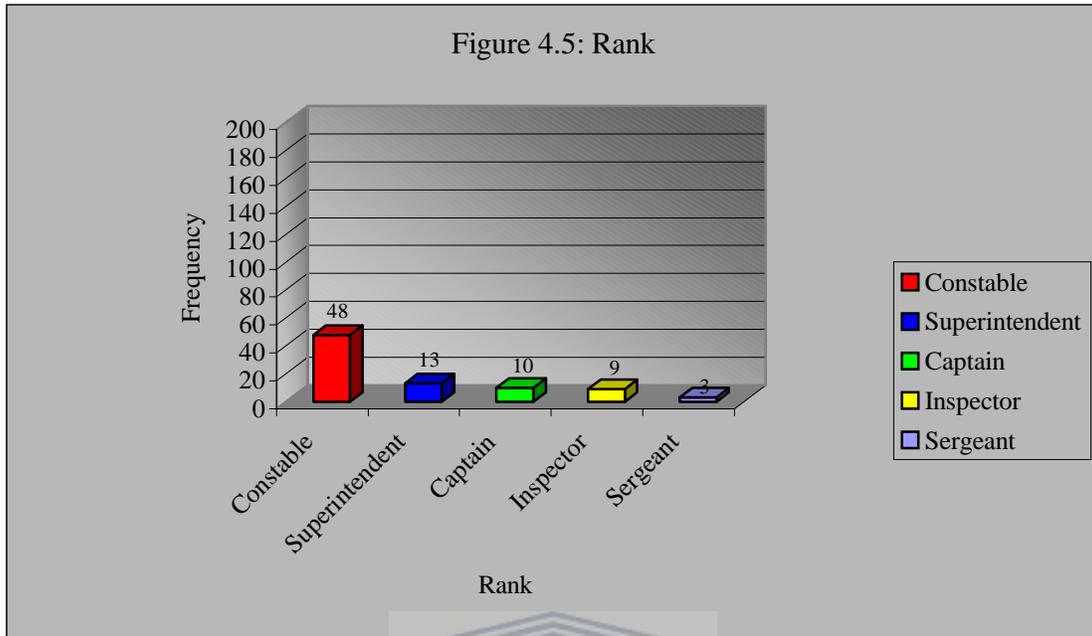
The graphic distribution of the job level of the sample is displayed in figure 4.5. It can clearly be seen that the majority of the respondents (n=48) or 58% are employed as Constables, while Superintendents (n=13) comprised a further 16% of the respondents. The remaining respondents comprised of Captains (n=10, that is 12%), Inspector (n=9, that is 11%) and Sergeants (n=3, that is 3%). The rank of one respondent was not indicated.

4.2.2 RESULTS OF THE JUNG TYPE INDICATOR

TABLE 4.1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR THE JUNG TYPE INDICATOR

ITEM	MEAN	SD	RANGE	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	ALPHA
Extraversion-Introversion	78.34	27.93	98	-0.32	-1.31	0.79
Sensing-Intuition	81.23	25.47	118	0.61	-0.23	0.88
Thinking-Feeling	85.17	23.83	112	-0.15	0.06	0.82
Judgement-Perception	77.28	25.39	108	1.29	1.91	0.86

The results in Table 4.1 show a tendency towards preferences for Extraversion, Sensing, Thinking and Judgement. The results also show that the scores on the JTI are relatively normally distributed, with a low skewness and kurtosis in the direction of Extraversion and Judgement.

Table 4.1 also indicates that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.79 to 0.88 were obtained for all the factors.

4.2.3 RESULTS OF THE CAREER ORIENTATIONS INVENTORY

Table 4.2 reports the descriptive statistics and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the COI.

TABLE 4.2: DESCRIPTIVE STATSITICS AND CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENTS OF THE CAREER ORENTATIONS INVENTORY

ITEM	MEAN	SD	RANGE	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	ALPHA
Technical/Functional	18.23	3.43	18	-0.34	0.04	0.69
General management	21.23	4.27	19	-0.56	-0.05	0.89
Autonomy	21.23	3.93	21	0.36	1.72	0.64
Security	26.84	4.36	24	-0.97	1.42	0.84
Service	25.92	2.87	10	-0.13	-0.85	0.67
Organisational identification	19.78	5.46	24	-0.27	-0.25	0.88
Pure Challenge	22.92	4.77	17	-0.45	-0.41	0.89
Entrepreneurial Creativity	19.98	4.69	17	0.41	-0.67	0.82

It is clear from Table 4.2 that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for all the factors, although the values for Autonomy ($r = 0.64$), Service ($r = 0.67$) and

Technical/Functional ($r = 0.69$) are somewhat lower. It is evident that police officers obtained the highest mean scores on Security, Service and Pure Challenge. The lowest mean scores were obtained on the Technical/Functional and Organisational identification career anchors.

Table 4.3 reports the product-moment correlation coefficients between the JTI and the COI.

TABLE 4.3: PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE JTI AND THE COI

Item	Extraversion-Introversion	Sensing-Intuition	Thinking-Feeling	Judgement-Perception
Technical/Functional	0.32*	-0.57**	0.13	-0.42*
General management	-0.38*	0.23	-0.36*	0.05
Autonomy	-0.08	0.31*	0.12	0.10
Security	0.37*	-0.64**	0.08	-0.53**
Service	-0.43*	0.36*	0.11	0.26
Organisational identification	-0.17	-0.19	-0.18	-0.23
Pure Challenge	-0.45*	0.39*	-0.28	0.41
Entrepreneurial creativity	-0.30*	0.44*	-0.19	0.28

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

According to table 4.3, Introversion/Extraversion correlates significantly with Technical/Functional, Security, General management, Service, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity. Sensing/Intuition correlates with Technical/Functional, Security, Autonomy, Service, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity. Moreover, it is evident that Thinking/Feeling correlates with General management. Finally, Judgement/Perception correlates with Technical/Functional, Security and Pure Challenge. *Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.*

TABLE 4.4: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF PERSONALITY TYPES AND THE COI

Multiple R	0.37651		
R Square	0.14176		
Adjusted R Square	0.10687		
Standard error	25.08685		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	7		
Residual	123		
F	4.06328		
Sign F	0.0019 **		
Variable	**Beta**	**T**	**Sig T**
Technical/Functional	0.036760	0.385	0.7008
General Management	0.109654	1.171	0.2438
Autonomy	0.146630	1.668	0.0978
Security	0.301364	3.003	0.0032**
Service	0.006946	0.065	0.0485*
Organisational Identification	0.029132	0.270	0.7877
Pure Challenge	0.259733	2.570	0.0113*
Entrepreneurial Creativity	0.105214	1.120	0.2647

    * p < 0.05
    ** p < 0.01

From Table 4.4 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the career anchors and personality type indictors is 0.37651, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.14176, it may be deduced that only 14.176% of the variance in career anchors can be accounted for by personality type. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by career anchors is relatively small, with the remaining 85.824% of the variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

Furthermore, it may be seen from Table 4.4 that when the other variables are controlled, three of the career anchors are significant. With a Beta-value of 0.301364, Security reaches statistical significance at the 0.01 level. Furthermore, the Beta-value of 0.006946 obtained for Service is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. With a Beta-value of 0.259733, pure challenge reaches statistical significance at the 0.05 level. *Hence the null hypothesis is rejected.*

4.3 MULTIPLE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

In order to examine the relationships between the biographical variables with the career anchors, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted (see Table 4.5). The MANOVA was statistically significant for gender (Wilks' Lambda = .075; F=5.044; p <.01), race (Wilks' Lambda = .81; F=62.28; p <.01), age (Wilks' Lambda = .83; F=16.78; p <.01), and education (Wilks' Lambda = .95; F=4.49; p <.01), that is,

these biographical variables had a highly significant effect on the individuals' career

anchors. However, there was no significant relationship between the rank of employees

and the career anchors of the sampled employees.

TABLE 4.5: MANOVA: BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND CAREER ANCHORS

	GENDER				
	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F	Sig of F	Wilks' Lamda
Technical / Functional	188.95358	100.94006	1.87194	.171	.000**
General management	3838.74291	120.74658	31.79173	.000**	
Autonomy / Independence	12192.23270	78.87610	154.57448	.000**	
Security / Stability	9496.59205	101.85418	93.23714	.000**	
Entrepreneurship / Creativity	23958.99184	115.58138	207.29110	.000**	
Service / Dedication	2388.34791	86.69768	27.54800	.000**	
Pure Challenge	779.57229	75.30594	10.35207	.001**	
Lifestyle integration	972.95069	55.27094	17.60330	.000**	
	RACE				
	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F	Sig of F	Wilks' Lamda
Technical / Functional	479.71408	101.12763	4.74365	.003**	.000**
General management	2821.76275	118.03743	23.90566	.000**	
Autonomy / Independence	1256.55425	83.14141	15.11346	.000**	
Security / Stability	3814.08512	100.76507	37.85126	.000**	
Entrepreneurship / Creativity	5505.65096	119.12425	46.21772	.000**	
Service / Dedication	2525.25178	84.57151	29.85937	.000**	
Pure Challenge	3382.87499	70.66639	47.87106	.000**	
Lifestyle integration	302.60516	55.28465	5.47358	.001**	
	AGE				
	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F	Sig of F	Wilks' Lamda
Technical / Functional	175.93626	100.75920	1.74611	.156	.000**
General management	2353.40565	119.46237	19.69998	.000**	
Autonomy / Independence	84.68047	83.58489	1.01311	.386	
Security / Stability	306.36945	105.92679	2.89228	.034*	
Entrepreneurship / Creativity	755.08635	125.45996	6.01854	.000**	
Service / Dedication	556.01410	86.51179	6.42703	.000**	
Pure Challenge	337.57333	75.41116	4.47644	.004**	
Lifestyle integration	138.33605	54.89625	2.51995	.056	
	EDUCATION				
	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F	Sig of F	Wilks' Lamda
Technical / Functional	157.63559	100.87614	1.56266	.182	.000**
General management	1325.47611	120.23947	11.02364	.000**	
Autonomy / Independence	335.06045	83.98371	3.98959	.003**	
Security / Stability	92.96035	106.19794	.87535	.478	
Entrepreneurship / Creativity	1154.99944	124.64897	9.26602	.000**	
Service / Dedication	274.42540	87.41216	3.13830	.014*	
Pure Challenge	201.36484	75.39808	2.67069	.031*	
Lifestyle integration	582.95007	54.72141	10.65305	.000**	
	RANK				
	Sum of Squares	Mean of Squares	F	Sig of F	Wilks' Lamda
Technical / Functional	46.55107	100.08874	.46510	.761	.226
General management	23.50989	117.72855	.19970	.939	
Autonomy / Independence	254.33973	81.14984	3.13420	.014*	
Security / Stability	62.51405	101.14715	.61805	.650	
Entrepreneurship / Creativity	138.01240	122.62916	1.12545	.343	
Service / Dedication	260.69119	86.27099	3.02177	.017*	
Pure Challenge	65.96558	73.52402	.89720	.465	
Lifestyle integration	27.93826	50.58081	.55235	.697	

In terms of Table 4.5, it can be seen that rank had the least effect on the career anchors of the sampled employees. The effect of education on career anchors indicates that general management, autonomy, entrepreneurship / creativity and lifestyle integration are highly significant (p< 0.01), while that of challenge and service was also significant (p<0.05). In terms of the age of employees, general management, entrepreneurship / creativity, service and challenge were highly significant (p < 0.01), while security was also significant (p < 0.05).

With regards to race, it can be seen that the race of employees plays a highly significant role in the career anchors preferred since all the career anchors, namely technical / functional, general management, autonomy, security, entrepreneurship / creativity, service, challenge and lifestyle integration had a highly significant effect on the career anchors preferred (p < 0.01). The effect of gender on career anchors revealed that all the career anchors had a significant effect on the career anchors preferred (p<0.01), with the exception of the technical / functional career anchor which was not significant (p > 0.05). *Hence the hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference in career anchors (technical / functional competence, managerial competence, autonomy, security, service, challenge, lifestyle and entrepreneurship / creativity based on the biographical variables (gender, race, age, education and rank), is rejected.*

4.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an overview of the most important findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The next section presents a discussion of the findings obtained and compares findings obtained with other research conducted in this field.

CHAPTER 5

## DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research into career anchors undertaken by Schein (1996) has been subject to limited investigation despite being widely applied for both individual and organisational career development initiatives. In line with current South African legislation for example, the Employment Equity Act, the dynamic nature of South African organisations and their concomitant changing demographic profiles, are creating a new, diverse, changing workforce, characterized by more single parents, working couples, women and employees of colour. The suggestion is that individuals are more successful in their jobs when their jobs are compatible with their interests, values, and abilities (Wilk, Desmarais, & Sackett 1995; Feldman & Bolino, 1977).

An improved fit is more likely to lead to the needs of employees being better satisfied, culminating in higher job satisfaction which may also lead to better job involvement with positive consequences for both the individual and the organisation (Fagenson, 1989). Although research has focused on the career anchors of professional males and females, studies have also examined the instruments used to measure career anchors and the reciprocal influence between career anchors and the age and occupation of subjects

as well as the employer sector of subjects and their managerial level (Naidoo, 1993). Research (Schein, 1978; Delong, 1982; Slabbert, 1987; Boshoff et al., 1988; Erwee, 1990; Naidoo, 1993; O'Neil, 1999) indicates that biographical variables, such as marital status, dependents, age, gender, grade and type of occupation can play a significant role in the preferred career anchors of employees.

This chapter discusses the prominent findings of the research in relation to the hypotheses and relevant research. Furthermore, it focuses on the dimensions of personality preference and career anchors, correlations between the dimensions of personality preference and career anchors, and multiple regression analysis. Conclusions are drawn from the results obtained and recommendations for future research are suggested.
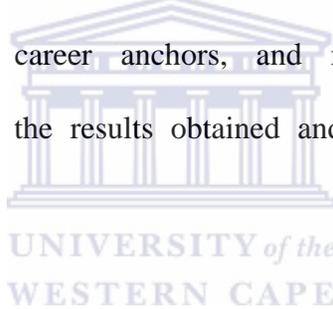
5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The sample consisted of 84 police officers, of which, constables were the largest representative group in the sample, (n=48) or 58%, (refer to figure 4.5). The sample is more representative of males (n=64) than females (refer to figure 4.1). The majority of the respondents were African Black (n=39) or 47% with (n=29), that is 35% Coloureds, (n=12, that is 14%) Whites and only (n=3 which is 4%) Indians. This could be attributed to the fact that more Black people are being employed with the SAPS to correct past inequalities with regard to positions previously reserved for Whites. With

reference to the figure 4.3 the majority of respondents indicated Xhosa as a preferred language (n=40) or 48%, while those who spoke Afrikaans as a first language were the second highest representative group (n=28) or 34%. Most respondents have a matric education (n=61).

5.2.1 INFERENTIAL RESULTS

## 5.2.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS: PERSONALITY PREFERENCE

The results of this study indicate that in terms of personality preference, extroversion/introversion reported a mean score of 78.34 and an alpha coefficient of .79, while sensing/intuition have a mean score of 81.23 with an alpha coefficient of .88. Thinking/feeling has a mean of 85.17 and an alpha coefficient of .82, finally judgement/perception has an alpha coefficient of .86 with a mean score of 77.28. Table 4.1 also indicates that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.79 to 0.88 were obtained for all the factors. These variables are discussed below:

Similar findings were reported in a study conducted by Psytech amongst a sample of 40 Business Studies undergraduates the alpha coefficient for extroversion/introversion was .83, sensing/intuition was at .78, while thinking/feeling had an alpha coefficient of .75

and .82 for judgement/perception. In addition, a study amongst a sample of 158 personnel professionals reported the following alpha coefficients for the various personality preference having used the Jung Type Indicator: EI = .87; SN = .83; TF = .81; JP =.83 (JTI Manual, n.d.).

**5.2.2.1 Extroversion/Introversion**

People who prefer extroversion tend to focus on the outer world of people and the external environment (van Rensburg, 2001). Introverts, on the other hand, are orientated towards the inner, subjective world (JTI Manual, n.d.).
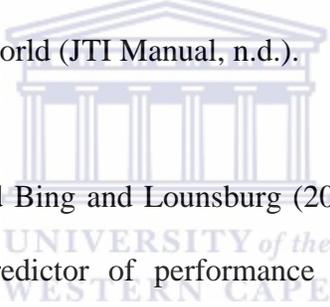
Barrick and Mount (1991) and Bing and Lounsburg (2000), reported that extraversion was found to be a valid predictor of performance on jobs that involved social interaction. In line with this finding, Satava (1997 cited in Rothmann, Schultz, Sipsma & Sipsma, 2002) found that individuals who prefer Extraversion seek frequent interaction and conversation with others. The objective of Rothmann et al.'s (2002)study, which was conducted amongst 71 postgraduate Diploma in Management, was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality preference of business students, having administered the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI*)* and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-i).

Furthermore, it was reported from the study that business students who prefer extraversion, compared to those who prefer introversion, obtained significantly higher scores on interpersonal relationship, flexibility and stress tolerance. They also obtained significantly higher scores on Emotional self-awareness and assertiveness. Rothmann (2001) found that a sample of South African managers showed preference for Extraversion, Sensing, Thinking and Feeling.

On the other hand, students who prefer introversion, obtain significantly higher scores on impulse control (Rothmann, et al., 2002). While van Rensburg's, (2001) study to determine the relationship between personality preference and career anchors amongst a group of 56 pharmacists, revealed that individuals who measure high on introversion, tend to have technical/ functional and security as career anchors.
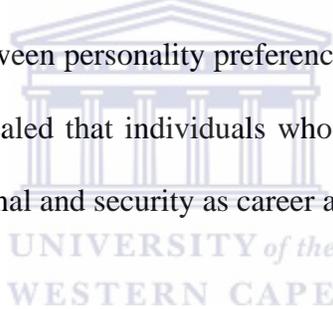
Lastly, research into the communication behaviour of introverts and extroverts reported that extroverts had a greater tendency to be argumentative than those who preferred introversion (Opt, Loffredo et al., 2003).

5.2.2.2 Sensing/Intuition

Sensing people use their eyes, ears and other senses to tell them what is actually there and what is happening. The other way to find out is through Intuition, which shows the

meanings, relationships and possibilities beyond the information from the senses (van Rensburg, 2001).

Nordvik's (1996) study amongst 1063 Norweign adults to determine the relationship between Holland's (1985) vocational typology, Schein's (1978) career anchors and Myers-Briggs Types (1985) concluded that a relationship exists between the MBTI type sensing-intuition and the career anchor- security/stability.

Business students who prefer Intuition (compared with those who prefer Sensing) obtained significantly higher scores on flexibility and stress tolerance. Furthermore, they also obtained significant higher scores on emotional self-awareness, independence and optimism (Rothmann et al. 2002). (Furham et al., 2005) reported that individuals with a preference for Intuition correlated with intelligence (g) which is an indication that individuals with higher intelligence go beyond the information provided by their senses to discover possibilities not likely to be obvious from sensing data.

5.2.2.3 Thinking/Feeling

Thinking involves strict principles in terms of cause and effect. People preferring this form of judging approach life in an analytical and rational way (Budd, 1993). Feeling, on the other hand, involves the emotional value attached to events and objects and

considers what is important to the self and others, and decides based on person-centred values (van Rensburg, 2001).

Business students who prefer feeling obtained significant higher scores on interpersonal relationship, empathy and social responsibility. Those who prefer feeling tend to be aware of, understand and appreciate the feelings of others. Furthermore, they establish mutually satisfying relationships characterized by emotional closeness and by giving and receiving affection, and they reveal that they are co-operative, and contributing members of their social groups. On the other hand, to a fair degree, a significant difference was also found regarding the happiness of students who prefer feeling as a personality preference (Rothmann et al, 2002.).
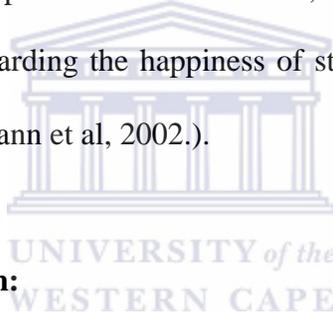
5.2.2.4 Judgement/Perception:

Individuals who prefer judgement are more concerned with what they feel about an event or person rather than what they can learn about it through rational reasoning (Budd, 1993). While those with a preference for perception tend to be curious and welcome new light shed on a thing, situation or person (van Rensburg, 2001).

In Jarlstrom's (2000) study of personality preference and career expectations of Finnish business students, she postulated that autonomy had been found to be most strongly associated with both personality preference; intuitive and perceiving types.

Amongst the group of 55 pharmacists, 47 showed a preference for judgement while 8 indicated a preference for perception. Many pharmacists prefer judgement and prefer to live in a planned orderly way, wanting to regulate life and control it by seeking structure and schedules, as opposed to enjoying flexibility in their work or adapting to changing situations receiving information without evaluation. They normally put off decision-making until they have enough information as possible receiving information without evaluation (van Rensburg, 2001). Contrary to this finding, Sieff's (2005) study amongst South African executives, having used the MBTI to investigate the relationship between personality type and leadership focus, reported that Judging types experience a greater degree of fit with their organisations than perceiving types do.
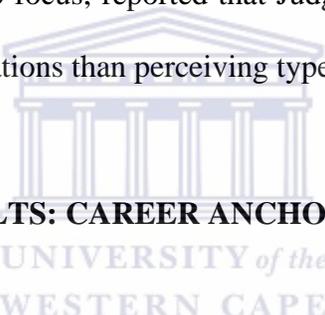
5.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS: CAREER ANCHORS

From the results of this study it is evident that police offers obtained the highest scores on Security, Service and Pure Challenge. The lowest scores were obtained on the Technical/Functional and Organisational identification career anchors. With respect to the career anchors assessed by the Career Anchor Inventory, officers in Schein and Van Maanen (1983) were mainly anchored in Service Dedication. These results are also supported by the following research:

5.3.1 Technical/Functional

People anchored here would want to be an expert in a specific field (Schein, 1996).

Schein's (1996) study on career anchors for the 21st Century, found that technical competence is becoming increasingly prevalent as career anchors in the 1990s. According to Van Maanen and Schein (1983) officers anchored in technical/functional competence, whether a detective or patrol person desire a role where his/her is able to exercise his/her perceived police competence, such as arresting criminals, which is the individual's reason for being a police officer. Similarly, Igbaria et al. (1991) in their study amongst employees in the information systems sector, reported that individuals experience greater job satisfaction and committment when they held positions in their areas of expertise.
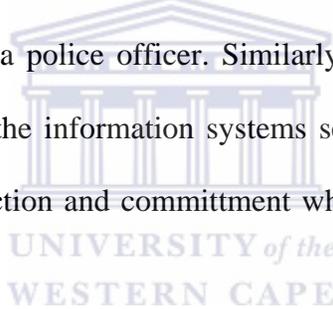
5.3.2 General Managerial Competence

The desire of individuals with this career anchor is to be in management positions (Schein, 1990).

Van Rensburg (2001) reported that general management, along with service and challenge, was one of the strongest career anchors in her study. Pharmacists with this

career anchor are motivated by work which entailed high levels of responsibility, which required leadership and a chance of adding to the success of the organisation.

Amongst the one hundred and sixty Singaporean educators who participated in Tan and Quek's (2001) study to determine their various primary career anchors and the impact of the degree of congruency between teaching and the career anchors on intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and turnover intentions, it was discovered that educators who with a managerial anchor experienced less extrinsic satisfaction and higher turnover intentions as a result of limited principal and vice-principal positions.

5.3.3 Autonomy/Independence
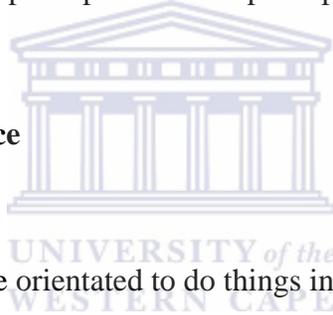
Autonomy anchored people are orientated to do things in their own way (Schein, 1996).

Pharmacists with the autonomy anchor, have a great need to perform well especially in a project driven position where outcomes of the project is crucial to the company. These individuals prefer environments where they are not closely supervised and want to be acknowledged in the form of letters of recognition for their contributions (Van Rensburg, 2001). Similarly, when teachers are not allowed sufficient autonomy in their teaching, it is likely to lead to a source of low motivation, which could ultimately lead to them resigning from teaching (Tan & Quek, 2001).

Schein (1996) postulates that autonomy anchored individuals are likely to find the occupational world easier since autonomy is aligned, with most organisational policies of promising only employability. Self-reliance is already a part of this group of people.

5.3.4 Security/Stability

Individuals with security as a career anchor organise their careers in such a way that safety and security are guaranteed (Kolvereid, 1996).

In this study there is a high need for security amongst police officers. Schein (1983) pointed out that Security/stability-anchored people are more concerned about the context of the work than the nature of the work itself. This could therefore mean that police officers that have this anchor could become disillusioned when the context changes, which is the organisational stress referred to by Violanti & Aron (1994), caused by the bureaucratic nature of the police organisation.

Rothmann's (2001) study amongst managers, found significant relationships between preference for sensing and judgment and the career anchor security/stability. While for Pharmacists with the security anchor, job and material security are important. These employees would prefer employment in a company where stability is ensured and would be the first to leave the moment the company is under pressure (Van Rensburg, 2001). Schreuder (1989) also reported that employees with security a dominant career

anchor and who felt that their work matched with their career anchor had a significantly higher quality of work life than those with no fit.

5.3.5 Entrepreneurial/Creativity

People anchored in entrepreneurial creativity want to create new business and develop new products or service (Schein, 1996).

The entrepreneurial creativity anchor was preferred by business students, yet in the same study, Jarlstrom (2000), posits that this career anchor was not prevalent amongst managers. An explanation for this could be that students are more creative with regard to entrepreneurship. Arthur (1994) of the opinion that entrepreneurial creativity as a career anchor should be treated as a necessary element in an individual's career behaviour. This is a view that is shared by other writers who propose that careerist should adopt an entrepreneurial view of their career if they are to take advantage of career opportunities with regard to the new career paradigm (van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000).

5.3.6 Service/Dedication to a Cause

These people enter occupations because of the values related to the job. Their career decisions are based on the desire to improve the world in some way (Greenhaus, et al., 2000).

Tan and Quek (2001) postulate that the more dominant the service anchor, the higher the educators intrinsic satisfaction will be and the lower their turnover intentions. Whilst pharmacists who are service anchored are value-driven, therefore sharing the purpose, objectives and core values of the organisations is important to them. They will also dedicate their entire job to care for the people they serve. They will be valuable employees to an organisation as long as they are empowered to care for the people (Van Rensburg, 2001).
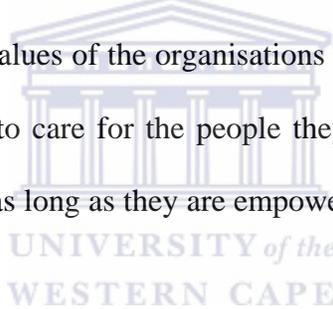
5.3.7 Pure Challenge

According to Schein (1996), people who have pure challenge as an anchored, define success as overcoming impossible obstacles, solving unsolvable problems, or winning out over extremely tough opponents. In line with this, Igbaria and Baroudi (1993) reported that many salespeople, professional athletes, and even some managers define their careers essentially as daily combat or competition in which winning is everything.

Boshoff, Bennett and Kellerman (1994) are of the opinion that pure challenge as a career anchor, is a fairly good predictors of job involvement.

The only reliable prediction to overcome change within organisations is for individuals to engage in life-long learning, to become more self-reliant, and more capable than ever to deal with surprises of all sorts. Which means that those anchored in pure challenge would thrive on these challenges (Schein, 1996).

5.3.8 Lifestyle

They will organise their existence around lifestyle, in one sense, asserting that their careers are less important to them and therefore, they do not have a career anchor (Schein, 1993).
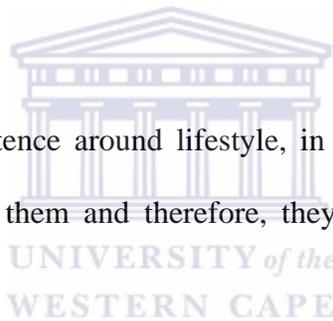
Educators in Singapore experience lower extrinsic satisfaction where there is a lack of extrinsic features such as flexible working hours or holidays to enable them to live a balanced lifestyle (Tan & Quek, 2001). In the same light, Van Vuuren and Fourie (2000) posit that individuals with lifestyle as a career anchor would largely resist routine and other forms of regimentation in organisations.

5.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY PREFERENCE AND CAREER ANCHORS

It was hypothesised that there is a relationship between personality preference and career anchors. The results of this study indicate that police officers who exhibit Introversion/Extraversion correlates significantly with Technical/Functional, Security, General management, Service, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity.

Sensing/Intuition correlates with Technical/Functional, Security, Autonomy, Service, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity. Moreover, it is evident that Thinking/Feeling correlates with General management. Finally, Judgement/Perception correlates with Technical/Functional, Security and Pure Challenge. *Hypothesis 1 is accepted for 14 of the items; hence the null hypothesis is rejected.*

Table 4.4 indicates that personality preference and career anchor orientation predict significant percentages of variance on three of the eight career anchors, which are security, service and pure challenge. This is somewhat in line with Jarlstrom's (2000) study which pointed out that amongst business students, extroverts preferred career anchors; managerial competence, pure challenge and service dedication. Introverts, on the other hand, were anchored in technical competence, autonomy and entrepreneurial creativity. Furthermore, students with the security anchor had a personality preference for sensing and judgment.

Research indicates that there is a relationship between personality preference and career anchors. Van Rensburg (2001) suggests that it is clear that personality preference (MBTI) and dimensions are significant predictors of pharmacists' career anchors. A preference for introversion correlates significantly with Technical/Functional and Security, while a preference for extraversion correlates with general management, service, pure challenge and entrepreneurial creativity. Intuition correlated with autonomy, service, pure challenge and entrepreneurial creativity. Also evident was the correlation between thinking and general management. Lastly, a preference for Judgement correlates with Technical/Functional and strongly to security, while perception correlates with Challenge.
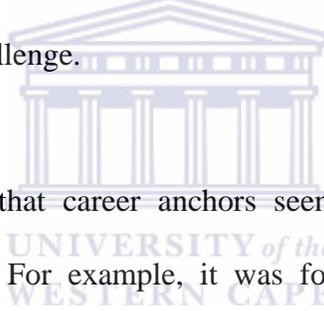
Rothmann (2001) maintains that career anchors seem to be related to personality characteristics of employees. For example, it was found that managers who value security tend to be practical and organized, which could result in their resisting change (Rothmann, 2001).

Rothmann and Coetzer (2003) used the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) by Costa and McCrae, (1992) which is based on the "big five" model, on a sample of 159 individuals, which included 59 pharmacists and 100 non-pharmacists, to investigate the relationship between personality dispositions and job performance. Pharmacists, high on Extraversion and lower on Agreeableness tend to have General Management as a career anchor. Furthermore, pharmacists high on Extraversion and Openness to

Experience and lower on Neuroticism tends to have Service, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial as career anchors. Tokar et al. (1998) proposed significant associations between aspects of personality–extroversion and conscientiousness with Holland's vocational interests, enterprising / social and conventional, respectively.

Having used the MBTI and Schein's Career Anchors amongst business students, Jarlstom (2000) reported the following relationships: Extroversion/Introversion, E's preferred Managerial Competence, Pure Challenge and Service Dedication, on the other hand, I's preferred Technical Competence, Autonomy and Entrepreneurial Creativity. Secondly, Sensing/Intuition - S's preferred Technical Competence, Managerial and Security, while N's preferred Autonomy, Pure Challenge and Entrepreneurial Creativity. While, Thinking/Feeling - T's preferred Technical Competence and F's preferred Autonomy and Service. Lastly, Judgment/Perception - J's preferred Technical Competence, Managerial and Security and P's preferred Autonomy and Entrepreneurial Creativity.

Fourie and Van Vuuren (1998) investigated career anchors and career resilience and its link to personality characteristics. Their study attempted to determine in which way individual career orientation patterning is related to the level of career resilience. The findings concluded that there was a lack of a relationship between self-reliance and CODI. This could be attributed to the fact that not all career orientation types desire to

be independent of an employer. In relation to the present study however, the fact that no relationship was found could be that a different instrument to the COI was used.

Van Vuuren (1989) indicated that a relationship between Schein's (1975) career anchors and personality exists; he also concluded that specific career anchors are linked to personality profiles. Hendrickz (1987), on the other hand, reported a linkage between Schein's (1975) career anchors and Holland's (1985) occupational types. Moreover, Kummerow (1991) found specific relationships between Holland's (1985) occupational types and personality types described in Jung's (1990) theory of personality types.

To date studies have revealed that a relationship exists between personality preference and career anchors. Hence, it can be said that from the various studies that a significant relationship exists between the personality preference and the career anchors of police officers.

5.5 CAREER ANCHORS AND BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

Hence the hypothesis that there aer no statistically significant differences in career anchors (technical / functional competence, managerial competence, autonomy, security, service, lifestyle, challenge and entrepreneurship / creativity based on the biographical variables (gender, race, age, education and rank), is rejected.

5.5.1 Gender

The effect of gender on career anchors revealed that all the career anchors had a significant effect on the career anchors preferred (p<01), with the exception of the technical / functional career anchor which was not significant (p>0.05).

The sample of this study comprised of 77% males as opposed to 23% females. These figures are evidence of the history of the SAPS which was previously dominated by males. Reports indicate an increase in the number of females into the SAPS yet the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon still seems to inhibit the movement of women into more senior roles within the police (Morrison & Conradie, 2006).
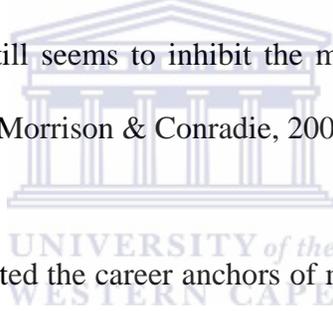
Boshoff et al. (1989) investigated the career anchors of male and female engineers. The results from the study indicate that male and female engineers differ significantly in at least four of the eight career anchors. Female engineers had a stronger preference for technical / functional competence and for security of geographical location. On the other hand, male engineers were more closely associated with managerial competence and entrepreneurship.

Slabbert (1987) also found her sample of male engineers to be closely associated with variety as a career anchor. As regards the difference in career anchors of female subjects in non-managerial positions and female subjects in managerial jobs, Boshoff et al.

(1989) found female managers had a strong preference for managerial competence and variety. Females in non-managerial jobs were more closely associated with technical / functional competence and service. In comparison, Erwee (1990) reported that female managers preferred the career anchors of managerial competence and service.

Naidoo (1993) found a significant difference between males and females in their preference for managerial competence, although cognizance should be taken of the fact that the number of females sampled in the study is unrepresentative. This indicates that the male respondents showed a preference for managerial work compared to females. According to research (Schein, 1978; Delong, 1982; Slabbert, 1987; Boshoff et al., 1989; Erwee, 1990; O'Neil, 1999), males and females engaged in managerial work show a preference for managerial competence.
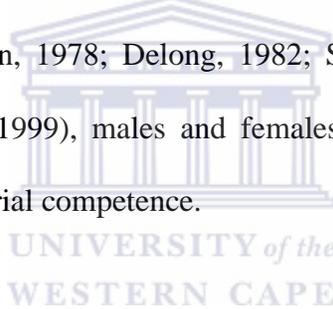
There was also a difference between males and females in their preference for entrepreneurship / creativity based on Naidoo's (1993) research. This signifies that males show a preference for creating a new product or service or starting a new business. According to Schein (1978), people who show a preference for entrepreneurship / creativity want to be autonomous, managerially competent, able to exercise their special talents and build a fortune in order to be secure.

Female engineers in the study by Boshoff et al. (1989) and female business and professional women in the study by Erwee (1990) showed a low preference for

entrepreneurship / creativity. However, male managers in Slabbert's (1987) study, showed a relatively high preference for entrepreneurship / creativity.

According to Erwee (1990), the low priority given to security of geographical location seems to imply that women are willing to move to any functional area the company assigns them or to make geographical moves whenever there is a demand.

Erwee (1990) reported on the differences in career anchors among various occupational groups as seen in (Table 5. 1).

TABLE 5.1: **Occupational groups and career anchors of a sample of business and professional women**

Occupational Groups	Career anchors
Personnel Specialists	Service, Variety, Security of job tenure
Executive Secretaries	Security of job tenure, Service, Variety, Managerial Competence, Security of geographical location
Managers	Service, Managerial Competence
Marketers	Entrepreneurship, Service, Managerial Competence, Variety, Autonomy
Accountants	Service, Variety, Security of job tenure
Engineers	Service, Technical / Functional Competence, Variety, Security of job tenure, Autonomy
Lecturers	Variety, Service, Autonomy
Entrepreneurs	Variety, Security of job tenure, Service, Autonomy, Identity, Service

5.5.2 Race

With regards to race, it can be seen that the race of employees plays a highly significant role in the career anchors preferred since all the career anchors, namely, technical / functional, general managerial competence, autonomy, security, entrepreneurship / creativity, service, challenge and lifestyle integration had a highly significant effect on the career anchors preferred ($p < 0.01$).

In terms of race, Naidoo (1993) found a significant difference based on race (Blacks and Asians) on the security (tenure) career anchor. Asian respondents showed a higher preference to tie their career goals with the goals of the organisation compared with Black respondents. He also found a significant difference between Asians and Whites on managerial competence and entrepreneurship / creativity, with Asian respondents indicating a higher preference for managerial competence as compared to their White counterparts. A similar result was found with regards to entrepreneurship / creativity, with Asian signifying a higher preference for entrepreneurship / creativity compared with Whites.

Morrison and Conradie (2006) reported that colour aside, Black and White males generally did not accept women who were in charge. While a Black female captain reported that Black men did not respect the Black female officers because of their rank, this could however, be seen as a cultural aspect.

5.5.3 Age

In terms of the age of employees, general managerial competence, entrepreneurship / creativity, service and challenge were highly significant (p < 0.01), while security was also significant (p < 0.05).

Slabbert (1987) researched the relationship between career anchors and management training amongst those who obtained postgraduate degrees in business administration / business leadership. However, the survey comprised merely 0.9% females and as such, cannot be regarded as representative. Slabbert (1987) found that certain career anchors emerged among particular age groups in her sample of males. Male managers aged 65+ indicated a preference for variety, those aged 60-64 preferred security based on job tenure, those aged 50-59 indicated a preference for service, identity, technical and functional competence, whilst those aged 40-45 preferred managerial competence, and those between 30-39 indicating a preference for managerial competence, entrepreneurship and autonomy.

Erwee (1990), however, conducted research on career anchors of a sample of South African business and professional women, reporting the career anchor profile of the sample in order of dominance as: service, variety, security (job tenure), managerial competence, autonomy, identity, technical functional, entrepreneurship and security (geographical location). Erwee (1990) reported that the age distribution of the sample

of business and professional women indicated that the various age groups may prefer different career anchors. The sample of women were in their late twenties and thirties. They realize they are "full contributors" to the organisation and can then develop "meaningful images" of themselves as members of the organisation or occupation and their career anchors begin to crystalise (Erwee, 1990, p. 11).

Naidoo (1993) found a positive correlation between age and security (stability). This indicates that as people grow older they desire to spend more time with their families and remain within the community in which they have established their roots. Slabbert (1987) reported that respondents in her managerial sample in the age group 45 to 49 showed a strong association with security based on geographic stability. She suggests that these respondents may have children of school going ages, whom they do not wish to take out of school (Slabbert, 1987). Naidoo (1993) also found a negative relationship between education and security of tenure. This signifies that lower educated respondents placed greater emphasis on security issues relating to their careers.

Slabbert's (1987) study showed that male MBA / MBL graduates placed low emphasis on security based on geographical location. However, the sample of professional and business women utilised by Erwee (1990) showed a relatively high concern for security (stability). Naidoo (1993) found that there was a negative relationship between education and service, indicating that lower educated respondents placed a greater emphasis on helping others. Moreover, the high level sample groups in the study by

Slabbert (1987) and Erwee (1990) expressed a relatively high preference for service as a career anchor.

Schein (1975; 1978) and Derr (1986) disagree in the extent to which they believe anchors (or orientations) change over the course of a person's life. Schein (1978) studied 15 of the original sample group into their 40s and evidence suggests an individual's career anchors remain consistent throughout life. However, he argues that anchors may appear to be changed through a work experience that leads to greater self discovery, allowing the original anchor to emerge. Derr (1986), on the other hand, argues that career orientations can change with age and due to external influences.
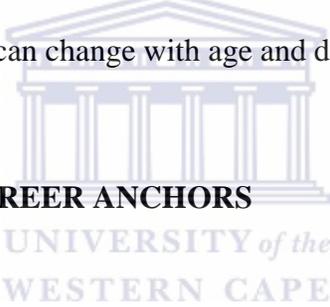
5.6 IMPLICATIONS OF CAREER ANCHORS

The rapid pace of change occurring in South African organisations suggests that career anchors will play a more significant role in human resource planning and development especially in the case of Black managers. The importance of tailoring career development programmes to the culture of an organisation is well documented (Hirsh & Jackson, 1996; Mayo, 1991; Walters, 1992). By analysing career anchor data in this way, it is possible for an organisation to build up a picture of the key drivers of career satisfaction in the organisation, by providing a valuable insight into the career culture in existence.

The effect of biographical variables on career anchors is important and it is evident that there is a relative paucity of empirical research among South African employees in general. This information can prove invaluable for selection purposes by determining what groups of people, according to their biographical variables and career anchor choices are more suitable for different types of work. It is also possible that this information can be used for evaluating biographical profiles of current employees in order to strengthen the utilisation, development and effective maintenance of the working force, while contributing to the upliftment of low productivity levels among South African employees. To ensure quality, some of the critical success factors are, for example, education and training, teamwork and employee involvement.
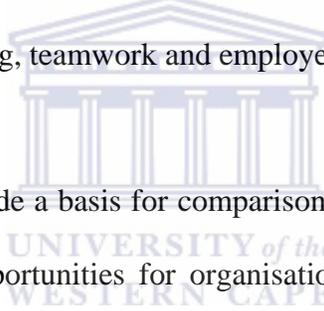
The results of this study provide a basis for comparison of individual career anchors as well as to investigate the opportunities for organisations to capitalise on cumulative career anchor data. In discussing the future of career development, it can be noted that as organisations are undergoing rapid transformations, new paradigms regarding career development will have to evolve.

Career anchors will become a more important concept and career development will be more akin to self development and the burden of the organisation will be to identify these anchors, relate them to biographical data, and to describe work to be done better so that individuals can better select themselves into the appropriate job roles and take personal responsibility for how their careers evolve. This may lead to continuous

employee development, job satisfaction, job involvement and positive consequences for both the employee and the organisation (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

The implications of the results of this study confirm that individual and organisational needs must be carefully matched. Individuals need to discover their career anchors and plan their future career strategies. They should negotiate with their employing organisation regarding future assignments. The organisation can utilise information about career anchor hierarchies in connection with biographical variables to plan future developmental opportunities for employees.
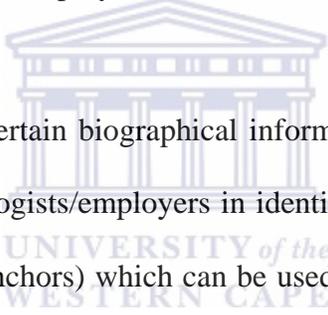
Information on the effect of certain biographical information on the career anchors of employees could help psychologists/employers in identifying subgroups preference for specific kind of jobs (career anchors) which can be used for selection purposes as well as on how to improve the utilisation of current employees. Better selection of applicant employees and the improved utilisation of current employees, can make an important contribution in increasing productivity levels amongst employees.

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted at the Training College of the South African Police Service Police and therefore cannot be generalised to other organisations. Furthermore, the

research was conducted in the Western Cape and findings therefore may only be applicable for this region.

As a result of scant or no research relating to the Jung Type Indicator and career anchors within the SAPS, the literature review is limited to comparisons made to findings from other personality measures and not specifically the JTI. In addition, generalisation may be limited due to the fact that a convenience sample was used, resulting in external validity being low.

An additional factor that could have impeded the study is that the questionnaires to gather data, was available only in English, despite the fact that results indicate that the majority of respondents were Xhosa and Afrikaans speaking.
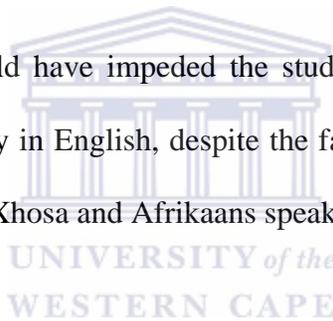
Furthermore, a lack of motivation by police officers to complete the questionnaires could also be a factor to consider that could negatively have impacted the results of the findings given the fact that questionnaires were completed during classroom training sessions when they were already faced with their own work-tasks to complete. Hawkins (1989) in De Klerk (2001) defined motivation as movement or changing of position. Action is therefore the beginning of everything. Therefore what the person accomplishes depends on the extent of how much, and on what he/she wants to act.

Lastly, Schein (1993) stated that an individual career anchor could be determined after having worked for an eight to ten year period. The sample in the study however, consisted of individuals with less than ten years working experience; as a result, the career anchors identified in the study may not be the true anchor of the individual.

5.8 CONCLUSION

The importance for organisational career management is the recognition that there are strong non-monetary factors which affect work and career satisfaction, and career orientations provide a way of understanding these motivators of career decisions. Many organisational career programmes assume that employees are motivated by the prospect of promotion, but while there is evidence to suggest that employees promotion aspirations are often underestimated (Herriot, Gibbons, Pemberton & Jackson, 1994), there is also considerable evidence for differences in motivation (Holland, 1985).

Barth (1993) postulates that the organisational benefits of recognising other motivators as firstly, being a greater understanding of why quality staff choose to leave the organisation and secondly, the ability to target career management systems more effectively and increase job satisfaction through more constructive discussions with employees who might be dissatisfied. If employees remain in a job that is not congruent with their career anchor and repress their motivations, they seek to achieve the missing elements of their anchor through outside work interests or by withdrawing commitment,

which has obvious implications for organisations.

Derr (1986) also suggests that organisations should analyse career orientations in order to determine which career interventions are most appropriate for each career orientation. In accordance with this, Schein (1990) promotes the case for flexible reward systems, promotion systems and recognition systems to address the differing needs of individuals. For example, people with a lifestyle anchor are likely to place a high value on flexible benefits, where people with a security/stability anchor will be more biased towards pension schemes and steady incremental pay scales.

The organisational benefits in understanding career orientations are:
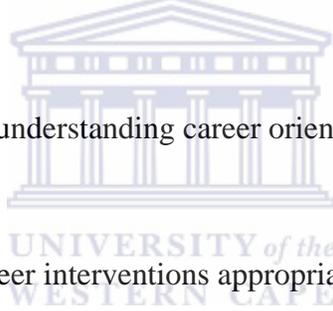
1. The ability to tailor career interventions appropriately;

2. The ability to offer opportunities congruent with an individual's orientation;

3. The design of appropriate reward systems;

4. The design of appropriate promotion systems;

5. Targeted recognition systems;

6. An increased understanding by managers of what drives internal career satisfaction;

7. A means of understanding the overriding career culture in the organisation;

8. A way of structuring career discussions and particularly exit interviews.

According to (Schein, 1996), it can be said that since globalisation of the economy has impacted the structure of organisations, with many having changed from hierarchical to flatter structures, has lead to traditional career paths being less stable (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002). The effective of this would therefore impact individuals who, according to Schein's (1975) career anchors, is anchored in security. A shift would be required, no longer can the individual look to the organisation for employment security, instead the 'career occupant' would need to gain experience within an organisation to become more employable in other organisations. The base of security would therefore need to shift from dependence on an organisation to becoming self-dependent (Schein, 1996).
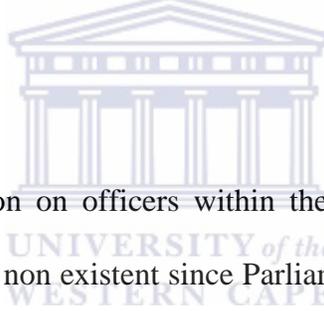
The effect of this phenomenon on officers within the South African Police Service would probably be nominal or non existent since Parliament in 2002 approved a further increase in SAPS staff over a period 5-year (Steyn, 2005). Therefore, besides offering security to officers within the service, the SAPS could be seen as attractive to those seeking employment since it is the one organisation where the number of employees is increasing. The increase of officers would therefore result in a positive increase in the ratio of police to civilian, from the stated 1: 370, which could result in a degree of relieve for officers. Despite the fact that more employment is being created for police officers, there is a need for those who are recruited to be more resilient. According to Bridges et al. (1995 in Fourie & Van Vuuren 1998), career resilience means that individuals have a low need for security and a high tolerance for uncertainty and

ambiguity. Therefore, in spite of the need for security amongst officers in this study, they would also require a high tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity, especially with regard to organisational change and aspects such as community policing.

Police officers anchored in service/dedication to a cause would perform optimally when they feel that they are doing something meaningful and improving situations around them. They may, however, feel de-motivated or disillusioned if they cannot share the purpose, objectives and core values of the SAPS which are important to them. According to Schein (1996), the number of people revealing service/dedication to a cause, as a career anchor, is on the increase since many feel the need to do something meaningful. People are therefore taking responsibility for social, health and welfare issues as they become more aware of large scale problems in the world.
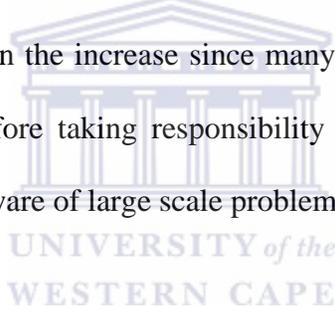
Police officers with pure challenge as a career anchor aspire to be in the front line. These officers experience great satisfaction trying to solve very difficult tasks and problems that seem impossible; they measure the results of their work by either winning or losing. Schein (1996) reports that more people entering the labour force and questioned whether this was a predisposition or an adaptation to the growing challenges in the world today.

5.9 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE SAPS

Chan (2003) reported that research has shown that most police recruits have grand ideas and high expectations when joining the police but soon become despondent about the organisation and police work. A recommendation would be that realistic recruitment methods be practiced, whereby candidates are presented with relevant and undistorted information about the job and organisation (Wanous n.d. in Greenhaus et al., 2000).

Furthermore, as part of the selection process, the personality preference should be measured against a perfect profile of police officers who have overcome the challenges and change within the SAPS over the years instead of against officers who successfully completed the training programme.
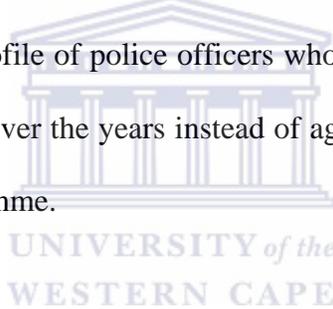
Secondly, the findings of this study can therefore be used to assist with the recruitment and selection of police persons who display the personality preference and career orientations most suited for positions within the police service. In addition, the findings can further assist in the career planning process. The Jung Type Indicator by Psytech is recommended since it provides a full report which provides a description of the personality type of the individual as well as the Work Style Themes this includes: the individual's working relationships; management style; decisions and actions; dependability and structure. Lastly, it highlights possible self-development areas.

Thirdly, the career anchor model should be used in conjunction with psychological tests in order to increase the effectiveness of selection. Service, security and pure challenge which were the career anchors most prominent this study, could be considered.

Fourthly, the results of this study could be used for career planning where officers are made aware of their personality preference and development areas arising. It would therefore be beneficial for the South African Police Service, as well as the police officers if they could engage in self-development programmes directed at their psychological strengths, for them to develop career competence such as career resilience and coping skills (Van Vuuren & Fourie, 1998).

Finally, career anchors can be utilised in the process of career planning. They can be used to assist officers to get to know their career anchor, which could have a major impact on decisions and personal life. Determining a person's career anchor is a process of self-discovery. There may be situations where officers close to thirty may no longer find his/her present career desirable. If officers have a clear understanding of his/her self-perceived talents, motives and values then the decisions will be more valid.

Feldman (1999), postulates that the idea of a career anchor does not imply that there is no growth or change, but should be seen as some movement, however, movement that is not random but which occurs within a limited area. If an the organisation ignores the

primary career anchor of an employee, he/she will continue to strive to implement it, even if this means that he/she has to leave the organisation .

Research has revealed a relationship between career anchors and job/occupations (Boshoff, 1988; Erwee, 1990; Slabbert, 1987). Studies have also shown that, where there is a fit between an employee's dominant career anchor and his/her job perception, such employees experience a higher quality of work life and more job satisfaction than is the case where there is no congruence between career anchor and job performance (Ellison, 1996; Schreuder & Flowers, 1991; 1992).

5.10 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

- Since a convenience sample was used and generalisability was not possible, future studies should make use of a stratified sample which reduces sampling error (Sekaran, 2001).

- The relationship between personality preference on the one hand and career anchors on the other, should be researched in various regions within areas other than Training Colleges.

- The relationship between personality preference and similarly career anchors should be researched with a larger sample of police officers.

- The relationship between personality preference and career anchors should be researched in the context of the various ranks, more specifically, police officers who have been in the service of the SAPS for more than eight to ten years, as well as within the different areas of operation where the police officers may find themselves.

- Attention should be given to the relationship between personality preference, career anchors and aspects such as stress tolerance, job performance and job satisfaction.

Understand the Relationship between Personality Preference and Career Anchors, and its implications for the SAPS

The Relationship between Personality Preference and Career Anchors

Career Anchors

Technical/Functional

General managerial

Autonomy/Independence

Security/Stability

Entrepreneurial Creativity

Sense of Service

Lifestyle

Pure Challenge

Personality Preference

Extraversion/Introversion

Sensing/Intuition

Thinking/Feeling

Judgement/Perception

Implications for the SAPS

Individual and organisational needs must be matched

Individuals discover their career anchors & plan future career strategies

Individuals to negotiate with the organisation regarding future assignments

The organisation to use information about career anchors to plan future developmental opportunities

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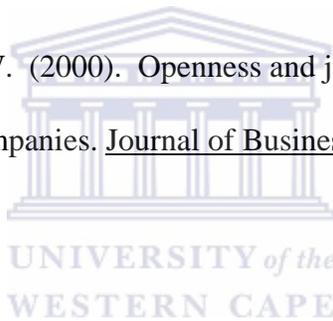
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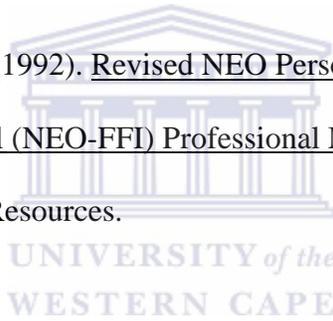
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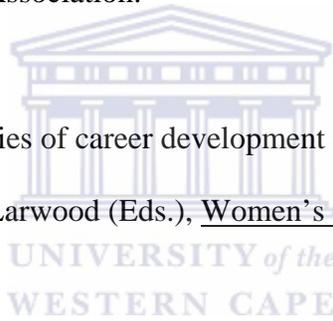
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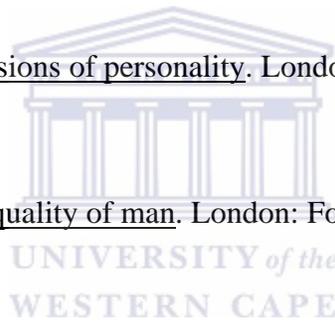
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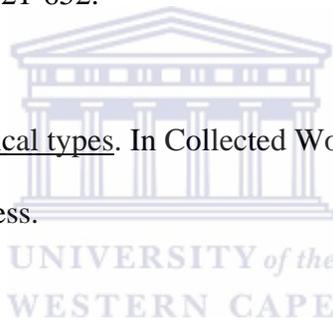
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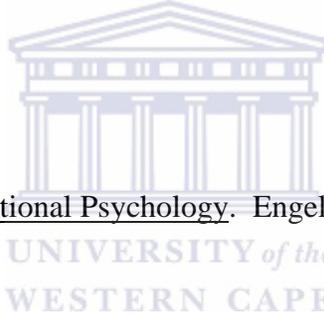
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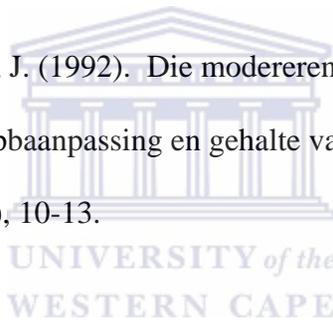
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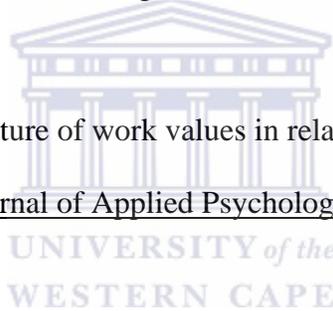
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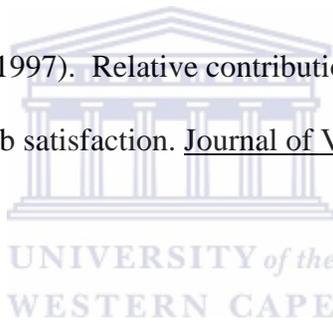
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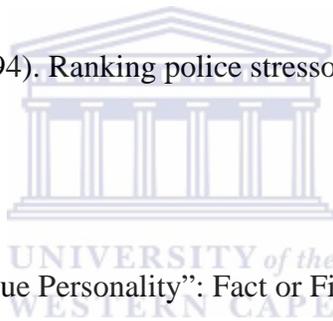
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