

INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

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This section describes

- The development of the Big 5 theory
- Facet5 within this framework
- Personality and work

Individual Differences

Each person is different. We all know people who seem to be a world away from ourselves: in their ideas, their appearance, and in the way that they go about doing things. It is these differences that make people interesting and that allow us to learn from each other as we go through life. It is these differences, too, which make it worthwhile employing someone new, so that they can bring fresh ideas or a new style of operation to a job. The same differences are thrown into sharp relief in any form of human interaction. People work with others and any description of or judgement about an individual can only be made in terms of differences. i.e. there are no absolute standards or measures of behaviour. What is "aggression" to one may be normal to another.

The study of these differences between people is the main field of psychologists. Many have chosen to concentrate on differences in personality and over the past years numerous different approaches have been developed. Over recent years, psychologists have confirmed that, in order to understand personality properly, at least 5 basic factors must be taken into account. The terms used to describe these factors vary with different applications and authors but for consistency, in the **FACETS** programme we have built on the terms applied by the Edinburgh University School of Psychology. These are **Will, Energy, Affection, Control** and **Emotionality** and are generally described as the **Big 5** in personality discussions. The first four of these are independent personality factors whereas the last, Emotionality, although it has many characteristics that are specific, should be viewed as an interpreting factor that will effect how the other four are seen.

Management theorists have, for many years, argued that effective management is only possible with a thorough understanding of employees' make-ups as well as their working situation. Research also shows that a "person centred" rather than "production centred" management style produces better, and more effective, business results in the long term. Therefore, in the field of personnel selection, identifying the ways in which one employee differs from others is important. To do this we need "tools" that allow us to look at these different aspects of personality, and which will then allow a greater understanding of the similarities and differences. For example with such a model we can *describe* behaviour and understand the drives and motives behind it. We can *predict* behaviour and thereby aid selection decisions. We can *explain* behaviour and help people understand how others see them. In short, Facet5 provides a model that helps people understand each other better. With this knowledge managers can adjust their management style to take account of the particular individual, recruiters can explore key issues at interview with accuracy and

understanding and counsellors can help individuals to develop more effective ways of handling particular situations.

Facet5 is distinctive in that it is one of the very few psychometric processes which has been designed explicitly to link psychometric and management development theory; and has been developed as a result of extensive experience in the field of occupational testing and management consultancy.

The Emergence of "Person Based Management"

That people are different is obvious. Since the early 1960s, Human Relations training programmes have been specifically designed to teach managers how to identify the appropriate ways to approach different types of people. These approaches were frequently based on complex, but often reliable personality questionnaires. For example, under the heading of *To Secure Co-operation*, the approach to one person may be to stress the orderliness and efficiency involved whereas for a different person it is more appropriate to point out the personal benefit accruing. This may appear self-evident but the real trick is identifying which person will respond to which approach.

This approach to HR training has been widely developed and applied by successful management training organisations. Many such programmes now exist specifically to teach people how to understand and work with others. Approaches have been developed for selling (Sales Styles), management (Management Styles), training (Learning Styles) and many others. Interestingly, most of them are "four factor" models that tend to ignore Emotionality. Given the significant impact that Emotionality has on almost all aspects of behaviour, this would seem to be a significant gap. Later parts of this guide will go into this aspect more deeply.

Why Concentrate on Personality Theory?

It has been recognised that one of the most valuable contributions that an understanding of personality theory can make is to teach people how to work together to best advantage. Most "war stories" and anecdotes in companies, (the "semiotics" which define the corporate culture), are about unusual behaviours. Some examples:

- A major holding company claims that "around here we hire people for their technical skills and fire them for their interpersonal skills!"
- A successful Managing Director was so accident-prone when travelling that his staff dreaded unaccompanied trips. She arranged for him to be treated by the airlines as an "unaccompanied minor" to make sure he got on the right planes.
- A "free thinking" trainer expressed an abhorrence of structure and order in his courses, preferring to be unconstrained and to "let things run". He described this as an 'experiential approach' where flexibility often extended to the start and finish times and even the content of the

programmes. Half the people on his courses were frequently frustrated because they not only didn't know what they were going to do but didn't think he knew either!

- A highly efficient manager couldn't wait to get into his new job so that he could point out to everybody how much more efficient he could make the company by bringing his experience to bear and imposing some standard procedures. He assumed everybody would be grateful for his efforts.

Clearly then the need to understand people, their motives, drives and aspirations has become one of the most pressing issues for organisations. That people have studied the area is undoubted but there has been little consistency in their findings - until recently. It is worth looking at the development of these investigations to see the way people's thinking has moved over the years.

In Search of the Babelfish

The original issue in personality theory was to develop an understanding of people as individuals. To try to describe what they were likely to do, what motivated them and how to help them do things better. This one-to-one process is the one used by counsellors, therapists and suchlike who simply need to relate to the individual. As a result the important thing was that the respondent and the counsellor both understood each other - that they had a common language. That this language might be obscure or even private was not an issue since it was primarily a personal discussion. This field is probably the original application of personality theory and a myriad of processes and models have been developed. However, at the heart of this area is probably one of the most fundamental debates in psychology. Some would argue that a person's behaviour is inextricably linked to and influenced by the environment. Any attempt to understand one without the other is futile and there is little point in trying to separate them. Such an approach suggests that people are variable and can change as a result of their interactions with the environment. The environment would include not only events and circumstances but also other people. Under such a model, behaviour becomes a complex interaction driven by forces outside the person - change the environment and you will change the behaviour!

However this raises many questions. Surely we all know people who seem to consistently behave in particular ways, almost regardless of the circumstances. This has led to an alternative approach whereby people are deemed to have sets of environmentally independent characteristics that shape and guide the way they interact with their environment. This approach would also suggest that some of these sets of characteristics are shared with other people and in fact human language has developed extensive vocabularies for describing these shared groups of behaviours. They provide convenient shorthand which people use in the most widely played human game of all - talking about others.

For many, this shorthand develops from personal beliefs and stereotypes that may have little base in fact. Nevertheless, in the absence of a better model, people use the concepts that they felt comfortable with. Redheaded people are therefore short-tempered, fat people are jolly etc. Shakespeare immortalised some of these concepts. He described Cassius (Julius Caesar) as follows:

"Let me have men about me that are fat, / Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep a-nights. / Yon Cassius has a lean and hungry look. / He thinks too much. Such men are dangerous" Julius Caesar 1.2.193-196

Osgood and Suci¹ were interested in the ways in which people used language to describe others and produced the pivotal concept of "Semantic Differentials". They found that when people were asked to describe others, the words they used tended to fall into two major groupings. There were those that seemed to relate to power, drive, dominance etc. and those that were more to do with expression, enthusiasm and sociability. These dimensions were called Potency and Surgency respectively. A major component of their findings was that the dimensions worked across cultures, the so-called "cultural generalisability". What this demonstrated was that most western cultures, regardless of what language they spoke, used the same general constructs when talking about others.

It is a short step from this understanding of the way people use words to the belief that although people are all different, the differences can be traced back to how much or how little of the underlying personality characteristic they exhibited. i.e. one difference between John and Mary is the relative strength of their personality characteristics. This taps into a train of thinking which can be traced back to Greek philosophers if not before. People have long been suggesting that there are certain core underlying characteristics or "traits". The Greeks related them to the four "humours" which were supposed to exist in the human body: - Phlegm, Green Bile, Black Bile and Blood. This "Hippocratic System" suggests that different balances in the levels of the "humours" would result in different behaviours or personalities. In the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, Chaucer states that:

"The Reeve was old and choleric and thin;"

The next interpretation of this inked to Astrology and described people according to the relative importance of their birth signs. Thus people were described as Mercurial, Martian, Saturnine and Jovial. This approach was used for thousands of years and keeps appearing in popular literature.

These approaches held sway for thousands of years with people moving between different systems as they saw fit and inventing new ones when they wanted. The rise of the "scientific method" in the 19th Century brought new excitement. While the Hippocratic system was still used, Victorian "scientists" thought up some good new ones. For example Phrenology explained that behaviour (especially criminal behaviour) could be detected

from facial and cranial characteristics. A great deal of work went into this and the concept held sway for some time. More recently, Sheldon was convinced that the overall physical shape of a person was a good indicator of personality. He suggested that, when they became mentally ill, tall thin people (ectomorphs) were more likely to suffer from schizophrenia than short, fatter people (endomorphs). Endomorphs in their turn would be more likely to suffer from manic-depressive problems, the so-called "cycloid" disorders. It might be assumed that mesomorphs who are roughly in the middle would have an equal chance of either disorder. Sheldon's work produced strong supporting evidence for his theory until someone pointed out that he hadn't controlled for the age of his subjects. Since schizophrenia is known to be more prevalent in younger people who in turn are likely to be slimmer and manic-depressive psychosis is found more frequently in older people who may have more of a "middle-aged spread", his results were fatally flawed.

The 19th Century also saw an increase in the intensity of thinking in this area. People like Galton tried to address the big questions:

Are there common traits, which will help to describe people, and if so how many are there?

People who worked in this field tended to concentrate on mathematical approaches and the advent of more mechanised methods of analysis allowed the work to proliferate. Following Galton, Spearman and Thurstone came Cattell, Gough, Guildford and Eysenck each with their own scientific, statistically derived approach to the question "How many traits?" Most used the newly developed processes of factor analysis and apart from technical debates about such things, as how to determine the number of factors and what ratio of respondents to variables you should have, the fundamental techniques are similar.¹ It was therefore rather surprising how different the results turned out to be. Eysenck identified two (later three) sets of characteristics, Gough used twenty-five, Guildford was happy with twelve and Cattell was adamant that there were sixteen. The academic argument was intense and did little to settle the minds of most people who went on using the unscientific, superstitious approaches that they always had. After all, *"its obvious short people have a chip on their shoulder and artists are moody and unpredictable! Psychologists are all in need of help themselves anyway so we shouldn't be surprised if they seem a bit odd"*. The result was that people just picked up the model they felt most comfortable with or gave up and consigned the whole lot to the rubbish bin. The period through the 1950s and 1960s probably produced some of the most significant work in the field of personality theory and yet produced little improvement in the public's use and perception of psychology. There was great emphasis on academic

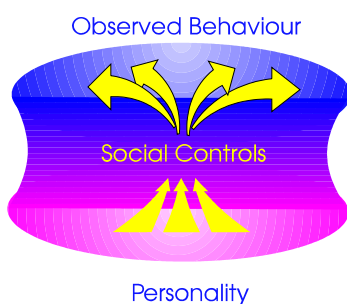
¹ Today factor analysis is available at the press of a button. It is illuminating to try even a part of it by hand so we can be made aware of the staggering amount of sheer effort these pioneers put into their research.

rigour and apparently scant attention to general utility. Why was this? Well the public disagreements between psychologists may have had something to do with it but another factor may have been some very important work by Miller in 1956². Miller showed that studies of mental processing and perception suggested that there was some kind of "natural" limit to how many different sets of characteristics could be processed by the "average" person. He put the number at around seven and gave persuasive support to the argument. If this is true then perhaps the trait theorists with the more complex models involving 20 or more factors may have been at a disadvantage from the start. Perhaps people just couldn't make much sense of these complex models even if they were statistically correct.

The current state of this argument suggests that five fundamental factors are necessary to describe normal human behaviour adequately. The development research behind this "Big 5" model is described below.

What is Personality?

This question has been argued for many years and readers interested in an overall view of the opinions in the area should consult one of the recognised texts in the field. Chapter 2 of "Personality Assessment" by Lanyon and Goodstein³ gives a good summary of the debates in the field. In general personality is assumed to be an underlying predisposition to behave in a particular way. It is consistent and stable. It develops gradually although some elements may be inherited. It shapes daily behaviour but is separate from it. For example the underlying predisposition may be to challenge using physical aggression. The observed behaviour however may be a more socially acceptable version such as strong argument. This is shown schematically below:



In this model the lower plane represents the *underlying personality* whereas the upper plane represents *observable behaviour*. Between them is a mastic of social controls which links the two but allows behaviour to be modified to suit the situation. People can modify their behaviour but there are limits. For example very dominant people will find it hard to be convincingly submissive (even if they wanted to be).

For operational purposes however, contemporary views of personality tend to fall into two main schools - type theory and trait theory. The differences are as follows:

Type Theory: This approach is largely based on Jung's theoretical concepts of "preferences". This view holds that people tend to be either one thing or another and are unlikely to hold positions in the middle. For example people tend to be Introverted or Extroverted but not somewhere in the middle. All of the approaches based on Jung's theories, (e.g. Myers Briggs Type Indicator, Team Management Index etc.) follow this line. Individuals are therefore placed into classifications or "types". A generic description can then be produced for each of the types. The advantage is simplicity but a

disadvantage is loss of detail for interpretation. There are also serious statistical questions raised about the whole concept of placing people into types. McCrae and Costa⁴ have argued that there is no statistical basis to support type theory regardless of the operational or theoretical elegance it affords. However, type theory remains very popular in many areas of management development especially team integration.

Trait Theory: The majority of theoretical psychologists have tended to follow a "trait" approach. This view states that there are a limited number of characteristics or "traits" which differentiate individuals from each other. (The actual number varies from one theorist to another - see Appendix 1) A person can have any amount of any particular trait, including an average amount. Under this scheme people can be Introverted, Extroverted or somewhere in between. A middle score is perfectly valid indicating someone who is not extreme on that dimension. Such a view is supported by the statistical data (scores are normally distributed) and is intuitively acceptable. Some people are genuinely neither one extreme nor the other.

One of the earliest trait theories of personality that is very well known and widely adopted is the two-factor model proposed by H.J. Eysenck (Eysenck 1947). Eysenck argued that the major source of individual personality difference could be reduced to two basic factors, each of which operated independently of the other. The first of these two factors was **Introversion <vs.> Extraversion**, the second, **Stability <vs.> Neuroticism**.

Eysenck arrived at his model by taking responses to questions about a large number of personality variables, and subjecting them to the statistical technique known as factor analysis. This showed that several apparently different personality traits seemed to cluster together: An individual who scored highly on, say, impulsivity and risk-taking questions would also tend to score highly on sociability or activity scales. To Eysenck, this implied that there was some common factor underlying these specific personality traits, which he explained as arising from different levels of neural activity in various parts of the nervous system. He argued that if measures of the two basic traits were taken together, they would identify the major types of human personality.

Eysenck's two-factor model, however, provided only a limited insight into human personality. Many felt that a more sophisticated model was needed, and other researchers began to produce them. Another model of personality that rapidly became popular in the psychometric field was Raymond Cattell's. He proposed that personality consists of sixteen different personality factors - a conclusion which was also based on the application of factor analysis to statements about the individual's personality. The personality questionnaire based on that model, the 16PF, (16 Personality Factors) provides a profile of the individual's personality which gives a far more sophisticated picture than the Eysenck model could then provide (Cattell 1946).

Other models of personality soon followed, as psychologists became interested in different types and combinations of personality traits, in their search for a model that would capture the essential elements of human personality. To date, measuring scales have been developed for an enormous number of different traits: the list which follows is only a selection of them.

Activity	Agitation	Aggression
Anxiety	Agreeableness	Conformity
Autonomy	Compliance	Control
Boldness	Conscientiousness	Dogmatism
Conscience	Curiosity	Dominance
Creativity	Extroversion	Energy
Culture	Impulsivity	Femininity
Dominance	Independence	Insecurity
Fear	Inhibition	Monotony avoidance
Hostility	Intelligence	Neuroticism
Imagination	Objectivity	Self-discipline
Psychopathy	Pathemia	Social adaptability
Radicalism	Responsibility	Stability
Socialisation	Self-sufficiency	Surgency
Tension	Sensitivity	Suspiciousness
Warmth	Shrewdness	Tough poise

The Emergence of The Big 5

This proliferation was often helpful in that it allowed people to look at almost any aspect of human behaviour that they wanted to. It also led to a great deal of confusion as concepts that appeared very similar were given different labels and often slightly different interpretations. To someone new to the area this was very confusing. To practitioners and users alike it seemed there was a plethora of often-similar concepts on offer. Frequently the differences reflected the personal predispositions and caprices of the authors.

In "The Hitch-hiker's guide to the Galaxy", Richard Adams described the concept of the Babelfish. This was a tiny fish which, when inserted in a person's ear had the unique ability to automatically translate any language into the one the wearer could understand. This was a biological Rosetta Stone and of infinite value. Psychology needed a Babelfish to convert all these disparate concepts into a common framework which all could understand. None existed. In 1963, however, W.T. Norman published a paper that described how almost all of the different personality factors identified by personality theorists could be structured. Norman had found that a general model which described five major factors could be used to cut through the morass of different traits, in a way which would be useful for people wanting to compare the outcomes of different personality scales. Norman identified five factors using a statistical analysis of the way in which personality test items and scales could be grouped together. The five factors identified by Norman were:

1. **Surgency** was similar to the Extroversion scale described in

Eysenck's original two-factor model, but also included some other traits, such as Energy, Dominance/Submission, and Humility/Pride.

2. **Agreeableness** included scales measuring Generosity, Stubbornness, whether the person was Critical or Lenient, Fairness and so on.
3. **Conscientiousness** included whether the person was Hardworking, Disorganised, Negligent or Dependable.
4. **Emotionality** appeared to be very similar to Eysenck's Neuroticism scale, and incorporated measures of Nervousness, Jealousy, Even-temperedness, Temperamentality and Security.
5. **Culture** included aspects of Curiosity, Knowledgeability, Creativity, Intelligence and whether the person tended to be Perceptive and/or Analytical.

Norman's five-factor model did not generate a great deal of interest at the time that it was first published. However, as the need grew for tests which would identify some kind of common basis for personality, and which could also be used in applied settings (e.g. to help managers to identify valuable employee characteristics when taking on new staff), the model became better known. To a large extent, this was because other independent researchers were also beginning to find that personality traits could be clustered into five general factors.

Further Support for the Five Factors

However the idea did not die. Other researchers started to look at the question and research started to converge. Some examples are:

Costa and McCrae (1976)

Costa and McCrae outlined a model of personality that they called the **NEO** model. The name NEO summarised the three personality factors on which they based their model: "**N**" for Neuroticism; "**E**" for Extroversion (with both of those factors being similar to the original two Eysenck ones), and a third category: "**O**", or Openness to Experience.

Costa and McCrae had arrived at this model by analysing how the different personality factors measured by Cattell's 16PF could be grouped together, using the statistical technique of cluster analysis. During the analysis, they found that although most of the traits could be seen as aspects of the two major Eysenck-type dimensions of personality, some did not seem to fit into either category.

Accordingly, it was necessary to add a third dimension, and what the "left-over" traits all seemed to have in common was that they all reflected some aspect of openness to experience. They argued that different aspects of this dimension were also reflected in several other personality scales, such as

Rokeach's Dogmatism scale (Rokeach 1960), or Holland's Artistic Interests scale (Holland 1966).

As they continued their research, however, Costa and McCrae found that they needed to add another dimension to their model, because certain scales from personality tests that they examined did not seem to relate to any of the three factors in the **NEO** model. These included factors such as **Super-Ego (strength)**, and **Persistence**. Accordingly, they added a fourth dimension, **Control**, which they described as being broadly to do with the amount of control which people felt they needed to exert over their lives.

McCrae and Costa (1985) discussed how their four factors seemed to have a great deal in common with Norman's basic factors - or at least, with four of them. Two of these factors seemed to map onto Norman's model very clearly: their measure of **Neuroticism** seemed to be very similar to Norman's **Emotionality** factor; and their **Extroversion** measure connected very strongly to Norman's **Surgency** factor. In a similar manner, the dimension of **Control** that they had added to their NEO model seemed to be very similar to Norman's **Conscientiousness** factor.

The fourth factor, **Openness** to experience, however, did not seem to be identical to either of Norman's remaining two factors; although it did have quite a lot in common with the **Culture** factor. The difference, though, was that the Openness dimension did not include any element of intelligence, or intellectual ability. McCrae and Costa argued that it was probably a good idea to think of intelligence as a separate dimension of mental life altogether - as an ability which should be assessed completely independently of personality.

In comparing their findings with Norman's, they argued that the reason Norman's fifth personality factor - Agreeableness - did not show any connection with the factors shown up by their research, was because it was not a dimension which was asked about in the traditional personality scales which they had been analysing. When they included test items which asked explicitly about aspects of personality related to Agreeableness, they found an entirely separate fifth aspect of personality emerged, which did not combine with any of the others even when it was subjected to factor analysis. Accordingly, they argued, a **five-factor model** seemed to be the most useful type of approach in personality research and assessment. (McCrae and Costa 1987)

Noller, Law and Comrey (1987)

This team compared responses to items from Cattell's 16PF, the Comrey Personality Scales, and the Eysenck Personality Inventory, and ended up with five factors again.

Digman and Takemoto-Chock (1981)

Digman and Takemoto-Chock (1981) used factor analysis to re-examine the data from five different studies, and also emerged with five basic factors.

Digman and Inouye (1986)

Digman and Inouye (1986) labelled the five factors that they discovered as:

1. **Introversion/Extraversion**
2. **Neuroticism**
3. **Will**
4. **Friendly Compliance/Hostile Non-compliance**
5. **Openness to Experience**

Brand (1984)

Brand (1984) produced a review of the different five-factor models that had emerged from factor analysis of the many different personality traits measured by current psychometric tests. He argued that they could be classified into the five dimensions of: **Energy, Will, Conscience, Affection,** and **Neuroticism**, with **Intelligence** forming a sixth strand, (though as an aspect of mental ability and not a dimension of personality as such). The way in which Brand classified the five personality dimensions was:

1. **Will** (including independence, sociability, self-sufficiency and autonomy)
2. **Energy** (extroversion, assertiveness, surgency and social inhibition)
3. **Affection** (tough-mindedness, trust, aggressive sensation-seeking, and openness.)
4. **Conscience** (control, lack of impulsivity, superego-strength, conformity, conventionality)
5. **Neuroticism** (emotionality, adjustment, anxiety, over-sensitivity and emotional lability).

Conclusions

It seems likely that the differences between the various five-factor models that have been put forward are really fairly superficial. The five underlying factors are likely to reflect basic differences in fundamental temperament, which can manifest themselves in personality traits in more than one possible way. Since each researcher places a different emphasis on the features of personality that they encounter, they will come up with models that are slightly different from one another. Personality factors are both broad-ranging and very complex in the ways that they manifest themselves, so perhaps it is not too surprising that different sides of them emerge from different research studies. It was interesting, though, that although researchers tended to come up with five basic factors repeatedly, different aspects of those factors seemed to emerge depending on the data that was being analysed.

Some researchers debated whether Norman's factor of Culture was really a fundamental aspect of human personality. Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) argued that it only emerged as an important dimension when subjects from essentially academic settings were being tested and that when personality tests were applied to people in the "real world", as it were, Culture did not seem to emerge as an important distinguishing factor. On the other hand, a study by Zuckerman, Kuhlman and Camac (1988) produced some evidence that a factor of Sensation-Seeking should be included in the set of five instead. Either way, it seems, the idea that there are five basic factors of personality is one that recurs time and time again.

The names given to the characteristics or traits which people identified varied according to their approach. Some chose traditional sounding psychological words such as Neuroticism, Extraversion and Paranoia. Others, believing they had stumbled on a new and meaningful concept seemed to take their scientific mantle very seriously and chose to invent new words to describe their ideas. Hence we have Cattell's creation of *Parmia*, *Threctia* and *Harria* among others - words which may have meaningful roots in classics but which mean little to most people. Others chose a "natural language" approach that used everyday words that people have been using for a long time and which seem to emerge naturally from an understanding of the underlying characteristics. Table 1.1 shows how these different approaches would seem to link to together to form a logical structure. The table includes some of the better known and more widely used models. However we must remember that this is just a small proportion of the many approaches which are available. There are thousands of tests available that look at personality in one way or another. In addition new tests are being developed all the time. Occasionally there are very specific "criterion referenced" models which are designed to measure specific behaviour traits such as customer service orientation, sales "call reluctance", or some other element. However, in the face of the accumulated evidence for five factors, it would seem hard to justify the development of any model that didn't follow the Big 5 at heart.

In fact the model is so widely accepted now, in so many different languages that the only significant criticism is that more factors may give greater detail in specific cases and would be more useful for personal counselling. This may be true but most Big 5 models allow this anyway. Hogan identified what he refers to as "homogenous item clusters" or HICs within each of the main factors in his HPI. **FACETS** identifies independent elements within each main factor, which provide differentiation especially for more moderate scores.

It would now seem that any broad span personality model which has been developed properly in the first place, can with proper understanding, be reduced into the Big 5 factors. Conversely anybody who is working with fewer than five factors, except in the case of the special "criterion

referenced" questionnaires built for particular applications (mentioned earlier) would seem to be missing something.

Table 1.1 Alternative Models	Big 5 Dimensions				
Authors	Will	Energy	Affection	Control	Emotionality
Brand	Will	Energy	Affection	Conscience	Neuroticism
Royce & Powell (1983)	Autonomy	(-) Social Inhibition	(-) Cortertia	General Inhibition	(-) Emot Stability
Kline & Coope r (1983)	Masculine Dominance	Extraversion	(-) Machiavellianism	Obsessionality	Neuroticism
Lorr & Knight (1987)	Autonomy	Extraversion	Socialization	Self-Control	Anxiety
Digman (1988)	(-) Friendly Compliance	Extraversion	Openness Culture	Conscientiousness Will to Achieve	Neuroticism
Krug & Johns (1986)	Independence	Extraversion	(-) Tough Poise	Control	Anxiety
Guildford (G-ZTS)	Masculinity	Social Activity	(-)Paranoid Disposition	Restraint	Emot Instability
Jackson (PRF)	Independence	Ascendance	Aesthetic/ Intellectual	Infantile Control	
Edwards (EPPS)	Autonomy	Exhibition	Nurturance	Order	
Hogan (1983)	(-) Sociability	Surgency	Likeability	Conformity	(-) Adjustment
Comrey	(-) Empathy/ Masculine	Social Extraversion	Empathy/Trust	Orderly Conforming	Instability
Cattell (16PF)	Independence	Exvia	Pathemia	Control	Anxiety
Eysenck (EPQ)		Extraversion	Tender Mindedness	Conservatism	Neuroticism
Gough (CPI)	Independent Thought	Social Extraversion	Sensitivity	Conventionality	
Saville & Holdsworth (OPQ)	Vigorous	Extraversion	Abstract	Methodical	Emot Stable
Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)	Thinking - Feeling	Extraversion - Introversion	Sensing- Intuition	Perceiving- Judging	
McRae & Costa (1987)	(-) Agreeableness	Extraversion	Openness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism
Rust (RPQ)	(-) Conforming	Extraversion	(-) Tough Minded	Structure	Confidence
(Margerison & McCann)	Organisers	Explorers	Advisors	Controllers	
Schein (1985)	Power	Achievement	Support	Role	
Handy (1979)	Power	Task	People	Role	
Graves	Barbarian	Monarchical	Presidential	Pharoanic	
Table constructed from personal communications with Brand, 1988,1989,1990 and from Furnham & Gunter - Int Rev of Ind & Org Psych 1993 Vol 8 NOTE: (-) Indicates a Negative Relationship					

FACETS at Work

The relationship between personality and work is critical to many management decisions, especially those relating to selection. Much debate centres on this argument and it is by no way resolved. However, there is a growing mass of data indicating that there are stable and reliable relationships between personality and on-the-job performance. Again, logic would seem to support this view. The alternative view is that all people, of all dispositions, are equally likely to succeed in all jobs. This seems hard to accept. For example research has demonstrated that more Extroverted people seem to do better at sales and sales management type jobs than Introverts. This is hardly surprising and indeed most of the **FACETS** data collected from sales teams shows relatively high Extroversion scores coupled with high levels of confidence and emotional stability. In addition, as the research strategies have improved so has the validity of personality measures as each researcher corrects the errors made previously. Psychologists seem to be gradually reaching the point of view that most managers reached many years ago; some people are better at some jobs than others and much of the difference in performance seems to be related to the way the person goes about the work - i.e. their personality.⁵

Since personality theory can be applied so broadly, it is sometimes difficult to know where to start. It does seem clear that the same basic structure can be used in many different ways ⁶. The specific factors which will shape the way that individuals use **FACETS** will depend on the person and the situation. In general however, the models tend to concentrate on the individual as an entity, as a member of a team, or as a manager of others. This guide covers the following areas. (Titles in Italics refer to specific **FACETS** application modules that use **FACETS** data.)

Searchlight - Selecting for the Job

Different personalities provide different packages of skills that can influence performance at work. This section links Facet5 profiles with job competencies. The *Searchlight* module provides specific output in this area identifying those areas where the candidate is likely to show strength or those areas where development may be indicated. Facet5 can also be linked to a person's own report of their strength under the same competencies or a 3rd party's (referee's) view. Thus Searchlight provides a powerful combination of self and 3rd party review with reliable psychological prediction.

Selecting for the Organisation

Long term performance and the development of effective corporate cultures is also linked to personality at an individual and group level. This section covers the development and maintenance of corporate culture.

Work Preferences - Career Development

People's selection and development of their careers is also affected by their personality. Here we examine the main career drivers that influence people's choice. The *Drivers* module provides specific output in this area showing the ideal working environment for a given Facet profile..

Leading Edge - Leadership

The ability to inspire, motivate manage and develop a person has long been accepted as a critical indicator of leadership. We now differentiate between transformational and transactional leadership. How to motivate and guide to improve performance. The Leading Edge guide provides guidance under all seven leadership dimensions.

References & Notes

¹ Osgood,C.E. (1952) "The nature and measurement of meaning" Psychological Bulletin 49 197-237

² Miller G A "The magical number seven, plus or minus two: some limits to our capacity for processing information", **Psychological Review**, 1956, 63, p81-97

³ Lanyon R.I. & Goodstein L.D. "Personality Assessment" - 2nd Ed", Wiley, 1982

⁴ McCrae R.R and Costa P.T.Jr "Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator from the perspective of the Five-Factor Model or Personality", Journal of Personality, 57:1, March 1989

⁵ For a detailed summary of this area see "Barrick MR, Mount MK "The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis", Personnel Psychology, 1991,44,1-26 and Robert P Tett et al, "Personality Measures as predictors of job performance: a Meta-Analytic Review", Personnel Psychology,1991,44,703-742.

⁶ See Buckley N.L., "The magical Number 5 - Towards a theory of everything", paper presented at Occupational Psychology Conference January 1992