

Personality and the Teaching of Public Administration: A Case for the Big Five

Christopher A. Cooper

Western Carolina University

Whitney Campbell-Bridges

Allied Staff Augmentation Partners

David M. McCord

Western Carolina University

ABSTRACT

Personality assessment is a key concept in the practice of public and nonprofit personnel management, but many faculty struggle with how to introduce the concept of personality in their courses. When Master of Public Administration curricula do include personality, discussions often consist solely of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, a popular but theoretically dubious personality instrument. This article argues that the five-factor model of personality provides a theoretically sound, empirically valid, and open-access measure that can help faculty and students understand the role personality can play in public personnel management and decision making. To demonstrate the usefulness of this framework, we rely on existing research as well as the results of a unique survey of United Way managers.

KEYWORDS

Personality, teaching, nonprofit management, public management

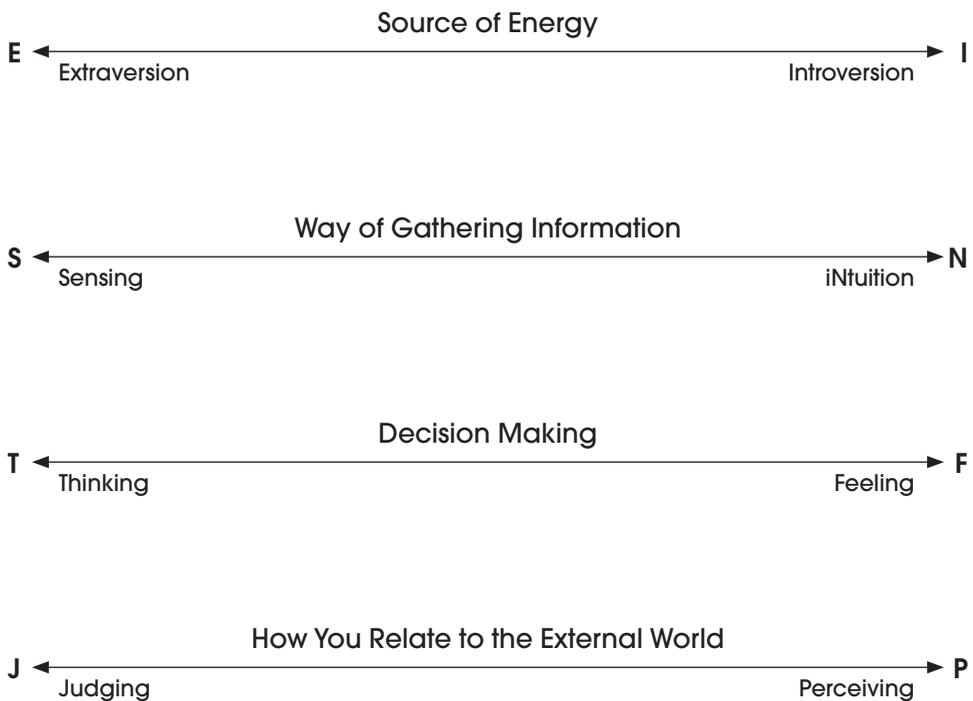
Few people doubt the existence of distinct personality characteristics. Indeed, it is difficult to walk by a watercooler, coffee shop, or bar without hearing groups of people describe the traits, tendencies, and behavior patterns of their friends, coworkers, and acquaintances. Although they may not think of it as such, these people are engaging in what may be described as armchair personality assessment. From a pedagogical perspective, this means that Master of Public Administration (MPA) students arrive in our programs with an intuitive, if not a theoretically rich, understanding of personality assessment and its importance.

Perhaps because personality is such a common and commonly accepted topic of conversation, there is a small cottage industry of scholars and consultants who advocate for the use of systematic personality assessment in public and private organizational and personnel decisions. In the for-profit sector alone, more than 80% of Fortune 500 companies use some form of personality assessment to select and assess their employees (Dattener, 2008). Similarly, more than 60% of public sector managers report using personality measures in their jobs, and more than 20% have used such measures for hiring and promotion (Cooper, Knotts, Johnson, & McCord, 2012).

Professors of public affairs and administration often recognize the importance of personality assessment by giving it some attention in curricula. This content most often comes during Public Personnel courses, although it may also occur in core seminars in the field or specialty courses in nonprofit management. In this article, we argue that MPA professors and instructors should increase attention to personality. Further, we argue that when introducing personality, they should consider using the free, theoretically sound, and empirically verified

five-factor model (FFM) in place of the popular, copyrighted, and less empirically robust Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Previous work has established the importance of personality for public managers; this article expands on this work and demonstrates that personality can also help us understand the attitudes and behaviors of nonprofit managers. Teachers of both nonprofit- and public-management-oriented students may therefore employ the FFM in their classes with confidence.

FIGURE 1.
Schematic of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator



THE MYERS-BRIGGS PERSONALITY TYPE INDICATOR

Without a doubt, the most popular personality test in the world is the MBTI, which is based on Carl Jung's (1923) theory that differences in human behavior are the product of differences in personality. Jung's theory assumes that an individual exhibits an overarching attitude of either extraversion or introversion. Most people are capable of both, depending on the situation, but we characteristically lean one way or the other. In addition, individuals tend to lean one direction or the other in each of two sets of bipolar functions, which describe how an individual relates to the world. The first set, the nonrational (or perceiving) functions, are sensing versus intuiting. The second set, the rational (or judging) functions, are thinking versus feeling (McCrae & Costa, 1989).

Based on these ideas, and despite having no formal psychological training, Isabel Briggs Myers and her mother, Katharine Briggs, developed the MBTI. Taking some creative liberties with Jung's hierarchical theory, they simplified the system into four essentially dichotomous scales: Extraversion or Introversion, Sensing or Intuiting, Thinking or Feeling, and Judging or Perceiving. By fully crossing the four scales, the MBTI therefore classifies test takers as one of 16 types (see Figure 1). The instrument gives a four-letter type classification and a numeric score that indicates the strength of the classification (Coe, 1991, 1992). Briefly, as noted above, the Extraversion/Introversion factor refers to individual's broad disposition toward relating to the world. The extravert's basic orientation is outward, toward the outside world, while the introvert is more focused inwardly, on the self. Extraverts tend to be socially engaging, active, and adventuresome, whereas introverts are more likely hesitant, reflective, and cautious. Sensors are more likely to take in information through their five senses; intuitors, through their intuition. Thinkers base their decisions on logic, while feelers base their decisions on emotion. Lastly, judgers are more likely to find closure and make decisions quickly, while perceivers wait for more information (Coe, 1992).

Despite its popularity with practitioners, the MBTI has not fared well in the psychological literature. For example, reviews of the psychometric properties of the MBTI generally report negative results (e.g., Boyle, 1995), and Bjork and Druckman (1991) review extant literature on the MBTI and find no evidence to support its utility. Further complicating matters, the descriptions provided by the MBTI are based on Jung's notions of individuals' unconscious and are therefore difficult to assess by self-report measures (McCrae & Costa, 1989).

Many, such as McCrae and Costa (1989), also take issue with the idea of personality *types*, finding no evidence that the cut lines used by the MBTI symbolize distinct personality types and no data to suggest that personality dimensions interact to form distinct types of people. Instead, psychologists like McCrae and Costa (1989) argue that the MBTI only measures quasi-normally distributed personality traits.

Furnham (1996) provides empirical data supporting the proposition that the FFM adequately subsumes all concepts purportedly measured by the MBTI while exhibiting significantly higher correlations with all external criteria used in his study. Also notable, a majority of personality theory textbooks now present Jungian theory as historically interesting but obsolete, not scientifically testable, and of limited heuristic value (e.g., Derlega, Winstead, & Jones, 2005; Pervin & John, 2001); and the MBTI is often omitted entirely (e.g., Pervin, 2003).

From a pedagogical perspective, the MBTI is even more problematic because of its cost. The MBTI is a copyrighted, protected instrument. Therefore, professors who want to introduce students to the MBTI by requiring students to complete the assessment face the problem of whether to pay for the test out of university or grant funds or pass the cost on to students. From theoretical as well as practical perspectives, therefore, the MBTI is not an optimal instrument for teaching MPA students about the importance of personality.

THE FIVE-FACTOR MODEL OF PERSONALITY

In contrast to the MBTI, the FFM is a hierarchy of personality traits organized into five basic dimensions: Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (generally referred to by the initials E, A, C, N, and O). The basis for the five-factor model can be found in the lexical hypothesis—the idea that, if personality traits are outward as well as inward facing, people must refer to these traits in language (Cattell, 1943; Norman, 1963). Thus, if we want to find a list of personality traits, they can be found in the dictionary and analyzed in terms of frequency, type of use, and intercorrelations. Based on earlier work by Allport and Odbert (1936), Cattell's (1947) landmark factor analyses yielded a solution very similar to the modern FFM. Cattell's model was replicated by Fiske (1949) and "rediscovered" in 1961 by Tupes and Christal (see also Tupes & Christal, 1992).

Finally, by the mid-1980s, two lines of personality research converged. McCrae and Costa (1983) had developed a three-factor model (Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness) by systematically examining the overlapping content of all previously developed personality questionnaires, including the MBTI. Goldberg (1983) was continuing the factor analytic tradition based on the lexical hypothesis, agreeing on a five-factor solution that included Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Openness. McCrae and Costa then introduced and operationalized this combined model in their NEO (Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness) personality inventory, now revised as the NEO-PI-R and widely used in psychological research and practice (Costa & McCrae, 1992b). By the mid-1990s, the FFM had become the dominant paradigm for studying personality.

The factor names are not just a matter of convention; rather, the labels reflect conceptualizations of the factors (McCrae & John, 1992). Extraversion (E) is probably the most well known of the five factors, and the most familiar to people in general, probably because it accounts for the most variance in human personality (the MBTI also accounts for Extraversion). Goldberg

(1999) argues that Extraversion is most closely associated with dominance, while McCrae and Costa (1989) argue that the factor is midway between dominance and warmth. People high in E are often described as having energy, and ambition and, on the opposite end, may be shy, silent, and withdrawn (McCrae & John, 1992).

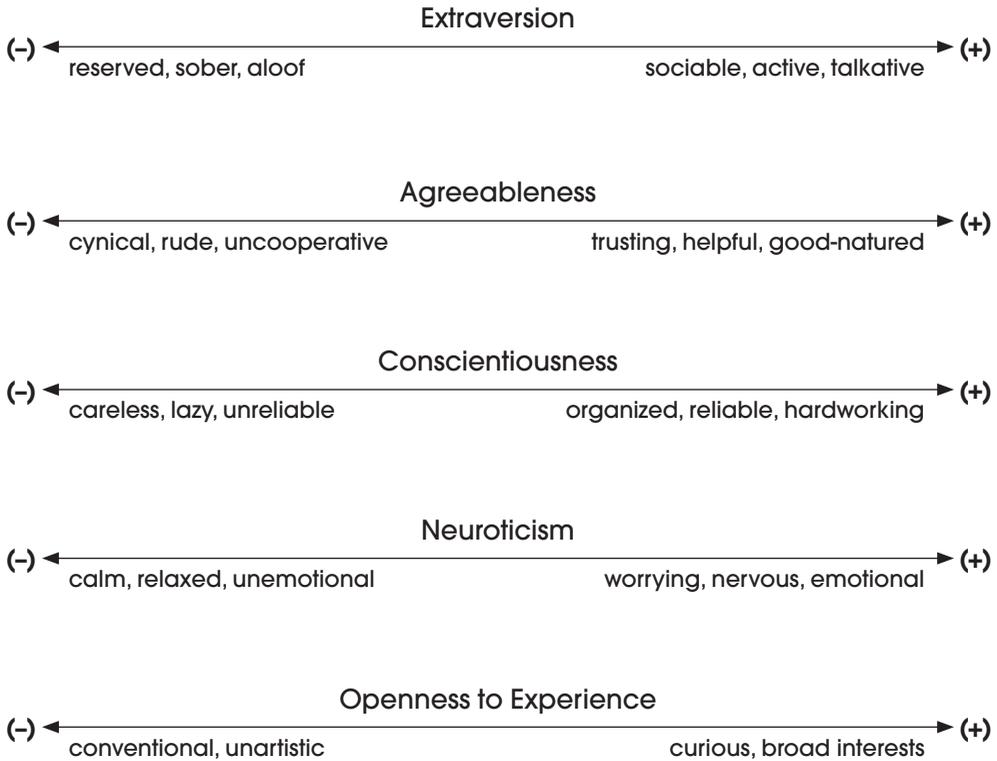
Agreeableness (A) is a domain of human morality. The A factor is comprised of characteristics such as altruism, caring, emotional support, and nurturance as well as self-centeredness, spitefulness, and jealousy (McCrae & John, 1992). Goldberg (1999) defines lower-level facets such as altruism, cooperation, sympathy, trust, and modesty.

Conscientiousness (C) encompasses characteristics such as thoroughness, organization, diligence, and achievement orientation (McCrae & John, 1992). Some view C as a dimension that holds impulsive behavior in check, while others see it as organizing and directing behaviors (McCrae & John, 1992). C combines both aspects because it can mean being governed by either conscience or thoroughness (McCrae & John, 1992). The lower-level facets identified by Goldberg (1999) are self-efficacy, dutifulness, self-discipline, orderliness, and cautiousness.

Neuroticism (N) is the least disputed of the five factors; most agree that the factor represents individual differences in the experience of distress (McCrae & John, 1992). Those who have high N scores are more likely to report depression, anxiety, anger, and embarrassment and are more likely to have psychiatric disorders (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Those with low N scores are more likely to be calm and stable. Goldberg (1999) identifies lower-level facets that include anxiety, depression, anger, self-consciousness, and vulnerability.

The most debated factor is Openness to Experience (O). Some researchers claim that the O factor represents intelligence, while others see a broader dimension that includes intellect as well as creativity, differentiated emotions, aesthetic sensitivity, need for variety, and unconventional values (McCrae & John, 1992).

FIGURE 2.
Schematic of the Five-Factor Model



Source. Adapted from Costa and McCrae (1995)

All five factors are presented in the schematic in Figure 2.

EVIDENCE FOR THE FIVE-FACTOR MODEL

Scholars in psychology, political science, sociology, and public administration have demonstrated the reliability, validity, and usefulness of the FFM in several arenas and from a number of different perspectives. For example, the five factors are stable across time based on cross-observer validity of the five factors. As evidence, Finn (1986) finds that Neuroticism and Extraversion remained relatively stable in 78 middle-

age men retested after 30 years, and Buss (1991) reports that personality is typically consistent over a lifetime. Putting many of these findings together, Costa and McCrae (1992a) conclude that all five factors have also been validated in longitudinal studies. Surprisingly, life experiences such as divorce, raising children, illness, and retirement have little impact on personality profiles (McCrae, 2011).

The factors are not just stable across time; each dimension of the five factors displays evidence of universality. The five factors are found in

both sexes, multiple races, and different age groups (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). The FFM structure has even been replicated in more than 50 cultures (McCrae, 2011).

In sum, the FFM has proven to be a useful model, especially in applied settings. The factors can be predictors of life satisfaction, academic achievement, vocational interest, and job performance (McCrae, 2011). The FFM as a research heuristic has been astonishingly productive in demonstrating strong links between the FFM personality traits and numerous other consequential outcomes, including happiness and subjective well-being (e.g., Diener & Lucas, 1999), humor (e.g., Cann & Calhoun, 2001; Johnson & McCord, 2010), physical health and longevity (e.g., Danner, Snowdon, & Friesen, 2001), psychopathology (e.g., Trull & Sher, 1994), political attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Mondak, 2010), volunteerism and community involvement (e.g., Penner, 2002), and criminality (e.g., Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001). Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006) review additional outcomes associated with the FFM traits, noting that the extensive empirical literature on the FFM reports hundreds of additional correlates.

Although it arrived later in public administration literature than in other academic research, the FFM has recently produced a number of important findings in public administration. For example, there is evidence that the FFM can predict job satisfaction (Cooper et al., 2012; Cooper, Carpenter, Reiner, & McCord, 2014), ability in managerial decision making (Filiz & Battaglio, 2015), and organizational citizenship behavior. Although evidence in public administration is more scant than in other fields, there is little doubt that the five-factor model of personality can help us better understand the attitudes and behavior of public managers.

In addition to its theoretical basis and empirical reliability, the FFM provides an ideal teaching tool because it is essentially open source. Dozens of available FFM assessment instruments can be used for free. And these instruments

show remarkable reliability and validity, providing instructors with both theoretical and practical rationale for including the FFM in their courses.

BRINGING IN THE NONPROFIT SECTOR

Evidence is mounting that the five-factor model can help us better understand public organizational behavior. In addition to its theoretical importance, the FFM offers a number of practical advantages; most notably, its lack of cost and its open-source nature make it an ideal teaching tool. Despite the clear case for including the FFM in public administration education generally, the existing literature does not specifically address the nonprofit sector, an increasingly important MPA constituency (see, e.g., Mirabella & Wish, 2000). Further, although the literature that uses the FFM clearly demonstrates the model's theoretical advantage relative to the MBTI, there has been no head-to-head test of the two instruments. To address both of these potential critiques, we next review the results of a survey of United Way directors that includes both the MBTI and FFM, to determine which instrument does a better job of explaining job satisfaction.

The Instruments and the Sample

Recall that the extant literature has already demonstrated the importance of the FFM for public managers. The task before us, then, was to demonstrate the importance of the FFM for understanding nonprofit behavior (and therefore the model's applicability to public affairs education). To do this, we needed to identify a publicly available sample of nonprofit directors—and ideally, nonprofit directors from similar types of organizations. We ultimately decided to sample United Way directors from 12 randomly selected states. As many readers know, the United Way (now called United Way Worldwide) is a large nonprofit that coordinates the work of more than 1,000 local offices throughout the United States, bringing “people, organizations and communities together around a common cause, a common vision, and a common path forward” (United Way, 2016). This was an ideal sample for our

purposes because, while all local United Way chapters are part of the same parent organization, they still exist within their local communities. (Despite our contention that this was the proper sampling frame, we must acknowledge that the nonprofit world is vast and heterogeneous and the experience of United Way employees might not be generalizable to employees of other nonprofits.)

In all, we distributed three waves of a Web-based questionnaire to 963 people and received a total of 133 surveys back, for a response rate just shy of 14%. We asked each respondent to complete a series of demographic questions as well as a 50-question survey to assess their scores on the FFM; respondents also completed another lengthy questionnaire for the MBTI, as well as a few dozen questions on organizational citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction. In sum, this was extraordinarily difficult and time-intensive task and we were pleased with this response rate.

Measures

M5-50. The M5-50 represents our measure of the five-factor model of personality. It is a 50-item questionnaire derived from Goldberg's International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) that measures the five broad domains of the NEO-PI-R (Goldberg et al., 2006). The M5-50 is a freely available, specific ordering of 50 IPIP items that asks participants to rate on a five-point scale how accurately each statement describes them. Socha, Cooper, and McCord (2010) find that the instrument has excellent reliability and construct validity. We should note that this is a departure from much of the recent literature in political science (Mondak, 2010) and public administration (Jang, 2012), which relies heavily on the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003). Although the TIPI can be an extremely useful tool "where very short measures are needed, personality is not the primary topic of interest, or researchers can tolerate the somewhat diminished psychometric properties associated with very brief measures" (Gosling et al., p. 504), we opted for a more fully specified assessment tool that provides additional reliability and validity.

Neocleous MBTI Proxy. Although we would like to have distributed the MBTI to every potential participant in our sample, the copyrighted nature of the MBTI prohibits its use in online data collection, which was an essential aspect of our methodology. As a result, we had to find a commonly used reliable proxy. The Neocleous public domain proxy represents our measure for the MBTI. The public domain proxy is a 36-item scale developed from PersonalityTest.net, originally a 68-item scale developed by Nick Neocleous that yields scores similar to the constructs measured by the MBTI. We developed this instrument in a preliminary study of 100 volunteers recruited from the human subjects pool in a psychology department at a midsized university. Participants completed both the MBTI and the proxy in a counterbalanced order. Results showed that the proxy had high correlations with the MBTI (Campbell-Bridges, 2013).

Job Satisfaction Scale. While there are a number of valid and reliable job satisfaction scales (van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003), we ultimately settled on the Jobs in General (JIG) scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul 1989). This 18-item scale has excellent convergent and discriminant validity and is a reliable instrument for assessing job satisfaction (van Saane et al., 2003).

HYPOTHESES

Based on theoretical expectations about the nature of the factors and previous work in public administration (Cooper et al., 2012) and private management (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), we hypothesized that individuals who are more agreeable are generally more satisfied with their lives and more positive and will thus report higher levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, previous research has found that people who score higher in Conscientiousness prefer hard work, appreciate receiving positive information from working (Organ & Lingl, 1995), and therefore report higher levels of job satisfaction than their less conscientious counterparts. Neuroticism, however, is typically associated with people who are less comfortable in a variety of situations, including personal relationships

and work. Following this expectation, as well as prior work (Judge et al., 2002), we expected that higher scores on *N* would be associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

Our expectations regarding the MBTI were more difficult to develop, as few empirical studies have investigated these factors in relevant settings. Further, studies that have attempted to uncover these relationships have reached less than conclusive results. For example, Meeusen, Brown-Mahoney, Van Dam, Van Zundert, and Knape (2010) find that the MBTI can help predict job satisfaction among Dutch nurse anesthetists, but the effects are relatively weak. Baran (2005) finds only slightly more promising results in studying Illinois dentists. As a result of these mixed findings, combined with the theoretical limitations of the MBTI, we limited ourselves to hypotheses surrounding Extraversion—a concept that should be fairly consistent across the MBTI and the FFM. We hypothesized that people who are extraverts according to the MBTI should report more organizational citizenship behaviors. Despite the lack of prior results or strong theory, we believed it was important to explore the potential impact of the MBTI, particularly given its popularity in many fields.

THE MBTI AND THE FFM: EMPIRICAL SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

Before moving to the results of our substantive models predicting job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors, we pause to consider the results of the five-factor model (our M5-50) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator—correlations both within and between the instruments. As Table 1 suggests, we find that although the five factors are theoretically distinct, they are not empirically orthogonal. In fact, the Agreeableness factor is correlated at $p < .05$ with Conscientiousness and Extraversion and (negatively) with Neuroticism. In other words, participants who were more agreeable were also more likely to be conscientious; and if extraverted, less likely to be neurotic. Researchers and practitioners who use the FFM to explain attitudes and behaviors should there-

fore take care to include all five factors, or risk making improper inferences about what factors are correlated with which behaviors.

A similar investigation of the MBTI demonstrates that people who are toward the Sensing end of the Sensing/Intuiting factor are also more likely to be high on Perceiving (as opposed to Judging) and Feeling (as opposed to Thinking). Further, people higher on Feeling (as opposed to Thinking) are also higher on Perceiving (as opposed to Judging). Similar to the FFM, the MBTI factors are not empirically orthogonal, and people who use the MBTI as predictor variables must take care to control for other types, or risk making improper conclusions.

We next explored the relationship between the FFM and MBTI. McRae and Costa (1989) find that all four MBTI indices measure aspects of four of the five factors in the FFM. They conclude from this that the FFM can provide a theoretically superior model to interpret many existing MBTI findings. Following this work, we expected that there would be significant overlap between the MBTI and FFM, and the correlations using our data (presented in Table 3) find just that. In fact, all four MBTI proxy scales are correlated with at least one of the five factors. From this, we can expect that we would see significant empirical overlap between the ability of the MBTI and FFM to predict a variety of outcome behaviors. While theoretically distinct, the MBTI and FFM are empirically related. This empirical similarity may explain why the MBTI has remained so popular for so long—despite its theoretical limitations, it can help practitioners learn about their employees.

Personality and Job Satisfaction

Next we move to the core models—those that use various personality assessments to predict attitudes and behaviors of nonprofit managers. Our first model, presented in Table 4, predicts the job satisfaction scale using all five factors in the FFM as well as control variables for age and sex. Not surprisingly, we find that people who score higher in Conscientiousness and Agreeableness and lower in Neuroticism are more

TABLE 1.
Correlations Within the M5-50 (Five-Factor Model)

	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness
Extraversion	1.0000				
Agreeableness	0.8110**	1.0000			
Conscientiousness	0.2365	0.3056**	1.0000		
Neuroticism	-0.0739	-0.3679**	-0.1674*	1.0000	
Openness	0.2040**	0.1397	-0.0560	-0.0674	1.0000

Note. * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$

TABLE 2.
Correlations Within the MBTI Proxy Instrument

	Extraversion/ Introversion	Sensing/ Intuiting	Thinking/ Feeling	Judging/ Perceiving
Extraversion/Introversion	1.0000			
Sensing/Intuiting	-0.0849	1.0000		
Thinking/Feeling	0.0957	0.3571**	1.0000	
Judging/Perceiving	-0.0904	0.5810**	0.2011**	1.0000

Note. ** $p < .05$

TABLE 3.
Correlations Between the FFM and the MBTI Proxy Instrument

	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness
Extraversion/Introversion	-.64**	.17*	-.02	-.04	.02
Sensing/Intuiting	.21**	.16*	-.16*	.05	.50**
Thinking/Feeling	.03	.24**	-.23**	.12	.17*
Judging/Perceiving	.07	-.10	-.53**	.02	.31**

Note. * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$

satisfied with their jobs. In addition, Openness to Experience approaches traditional levels of statistical significance ($p < .1$). Clearly, the FFM can help instructors, researchers, and practitioners explain and predict who is likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

The MBTI, however, does not perform as well. In fact, none of the four scales of the MBTI predicts job satisfaction at traditional statistical significance levels. Only the Judging/Perceiving scale approaches significance ($p = .089$), indicating that those who fall on the Perceiving end

of the spectrum may tend toward higher job satisfaction. Neither control variable achieves significance in this model. In sum, at least for job satisfaction, the FFM provides a more robust and empirically helpful measure of personality than the MBTI proxy we used.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Personality assessment can be helpful in understanding nonprofit management attitudes and behavior. Further, the FFM represents a theoretically sound, empirically verified, and open-source framework and assessment instrument

TABLE 4.
Job Satisfaction Models

	Five-factor model	MBTI model
Extraversion	0.008 (.028)	
Agreeableness	-0.092** (.042)	
Conscientiousness	0.076* (.039)	
Neuroticism	-0.076** (.034)	
Openness	-0.054 (.033)	
Extraversion/Introversion		-0.122 (.078)
Sensing/Intuiting		0.018 (.113)
Thinking/Feeling		-0.063 (.100)
Judging/Perceiving		-0.177* (.103)
Sex		0.002 (.046)
Age		0.012 (.016)
Constant		3.169** (.224)
R-squared		.144
F		3.31***
N		125

Note. *p < .1, **p < .05, ***p < .01

that is ideal for public affairs education. Given the evidence presented both here and elsewhere, we recommend that instructors of both general public administration courses as well as more specialized nonprofit and personnel management courses integrate the FFM into their classroom instruction. Doing so will give the next generation of public servants a better understanding of administrative attitudes and behaviors.

Aside from this central point, our findings also point to important methodological lessons for instructors and practitioners who are choosing between various personality assessment tools. The MBTI and FFM are distinct assessment tools, but they do have some similarities. Notably, we discovered significant overlap between the two instruments, with parts of the MBTI being subsumed in the FFM.

Although there are some empirical similarities between the FFM and MBTI, we recommend that classroom instructors embrace the FFM over the MBTI. The psychology literature has established with little doubt that the FFM has much stronger theoretical justification, suggesting that the conclusions that can be drawn from its use are likely to be more robust. In addition to the theoretical rationale, the FFM is the assessment-tool equivalent of open source; scholars are free to use, cite, and create their own FFM assessment tools. The MBTI, however, is copyrighted, making usage expensive and replication difficult. This benefit of using the FFM is extremely important in the classroom context. Whereas a classroom instructor would have to pay for the MBTI out of a department or university budget, the FFM can be easily distributed to a class of students at no cost.

Teaching with the FFM, therefore, does not have to be merely theoretical; faculty can ask students to fill out the FFM, and students can learn more about their own personalities. Personality assessment of this type is also ripe for role-playing exercises, in which students talk with each other about how their personality inventories may influence their attitudes and behaviors. Most important, students can brain-

storm about how to use these personality instruments in practice. As Coe (1992) suggests, there is no “correct” personality type, but future public and nonprofit managers would be well served by understanding how knowledge of one’s own personality and the personality of one’s coworkers can “improve organizational communication and teamwork” (p. 44). This knowledge would improve the practice of both public and nonprofit management, and today’s MPA pedagogy should reflect this development.

REFERENCES

- Alatrasta, J., & Arrowsmith, J. (2004). Managing employee commitment in the not-for-profit sector. *Personnel Review*, 33(5), 536–548.
- Allport, G. W., & Odbert, H. S. (1936). *Trait-names: A psycholexical study*. Albany, NY: Psychological Review Company.
- Atteberry, M. G. (1977). *The relationship between emotional stability and job satisfaction of elementary school principals*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.
- Baran, R. B. (2005). Myers Briggs Type Indicator, burnout, and satisfaction in Illinois dentists. *General Dentistry*, 53(3), 228–234.
- Bjork, R. A., & Druckman, D. (Eds.). (1991). *In the mind’s eye: Enhancing human performance*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Block, J. (1995). A contrarian view of the five-factor approach to personality description. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(2), 187–215.
- Borzaga, C., & Tortia, E. (2006). Worker motivations, job satisfaction and loyalty in public and nonprofit social services. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 35(2), 225–248.
- Boyle, G. J. (1995). Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): Some psychometric limitations. *Australian Psychologist*, 30, 71–74.

- Bushhouse, B. K., & Sowa, J. (2012). Producing knowledge for practice: Assessing NVSQ 2000–2010. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 41(3), 497–513.
- Buss, D. M. (1991). Evolutionary personality psychology. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 42, 459–491.
- Campbell-Bridges, W. B. (2013). *Personality, job performance, and job satisfaction in non-profit organizations*. Unpublished master's thesis, Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, NC.
- Cann, A., & Calhoun, L. G. (2001). Perceived personality associations with differences in sense of humor: Stereotypes of hypothetical others with high or low senses of humor. *Humor: The International Journal of Humor Research*, 14(2), 117–130.
- Cattell, R. B. (1943). The description of personality: Basic traits resolved into clusters. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 38(4), 476–506.
- Cattell, R. B. (1947). Confirmation and clarification of the primary personality factors. *Psychometrika*, 12(3), 197–220.
- Coe, C. K. (1991). The MBTI: A tool for understanding and improving public management. *State and Local Government Review*, 23(1), 36–47.
- Coe, C. K. (1992). The MBTI: Potential uses and misuses in personnel administration. *Public Personnel Management*, 21(4), 511–522.
- Cooper, C. A., Carpenter, D., Reiner, A., & McCord, D. M. (2014). Personality and job satisfaction: Evidence from a sample of street-level bureaucrats. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 37(3), 155–162.
- Cooper, C. A., Knotts, H. G., Johnson, A. J., & McCord, D. M. (2012). Taking personality seriously: The five-factor model and public management. *American Review of Public Administration*, 43(4), 397–415.
- Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992a). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13(6) 653–665.
- Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992b). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R™) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1995). Domains and facets: Hierarchical personality assessment using the Revised NEO Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 64, 21–50.
- Danner, D. D., Snowdon, D. A., & Friesen, W. V. (2001). Positive emotions in early life and longevity: Findings from the nun study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(5), 804–813.
- Dattener, B. (2008, June 13). The use and misuse of personality tests for coaching and development. *Psychology Today*. Retrieved from <http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/minds-work/200806/the-use-and-misuse-personality-tests-coaching-and-development>.
- Derlega, V. J., Winstead, B. A., & Jones, W. H. (2005). *Personality: Contemporary theory and research* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson-Wadsworth.
- Diener, E., & Lucas, R. E. (1999). Personality and subjective well-being. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 213–229). New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Filiz, E., & Battaglio, R. P., Jr. (2016, July 9). Personality and decision-making in public administration: The five-factor model in cultural perspective. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*. doi:10.1177/0020852315585062.
- Finn, S. E. (1986). Stability and personality self-ratings over 30 years: Evidence for age/cohort interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(4), 813–818.
- Fiske, D. W. (1949). Consistency of the factorial structure of personality ratings from different sources. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 44(3), 329–344.
- Francis, L. J., & Robbins, M. (1999). The relationship between personality and satisfaction/dissatisfaction with ministry among female stipendiary Anglican clergy in the UK. *Pastoral Psychology*, 47, 439–444.
- Furnham, A. (1996). The big five versus the big four: The relationship between the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the NEO-PI five factor model of personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 21(2), 303–307.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48(1), 26–34.

- Goldberg, L. R. (1999). A broad-bandwidth, public-domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models. In I. Merivlede, I. Deary, F. DeFruyt, & F. Ostendorf (Eds.), *Personality psychology in Europe* (Vol. 7, pp. 7–28). Tilburg, Netherlands: Tilburg University Press.
- Goldberg, L. R., Johnson, J. A., Eber, H. W., Hogan, R., Ashton, M. C., Cloninger, C. R., et al. (2006). The international personality item pool and the future of public-domain personality measures. *Journal of Research in Personality, 40*, 84–96.
- Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann, W. B., Jr. (2003). A very brief measure of the Big-Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in Personality, 37*(6), 504–528.
- Ironson, G. H., Smith, P. C., Brannick, M. T., Gibson, W. M., & Paul, K. B. (1989). Construction of a job in general scale: A comparison of global, composite, and specific measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 193–200.
- Jang, C-L. (2012). The effect of personality traits on public service motivation: Evidence from Taiwan. *Social Behavior and Personality, 40*(5), 725–734.
- Johnson, A., & McCord, D. M. (2010). Relating sense of humor to the five factor theory personality domains and facets. *American Journal of Psychological Research, 6*(1), 32–40.
- Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 530–541.
- Jung, C. G. (1923). *Psychological types*. London, UK: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Krueger, R. F., Hicks, B. M., & McGue, M. (2001). Altruism and antisocial behavior: Independent tendencies, unique personality correlates, distinct etiologies. *Psychological Science, 12*(5), 397–402.
- LaRussa, G. W. (1981). *A personality study predicting the effectiveness and satisfaction of Catholic priests in pastoral ministry*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA.
- Liao-Troth, M. A. (2005). Are they here for the long haul? The effects of functional motives and personality factors on the psychological contracts of volunteers. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 34*(4), 510–530.
- McCrae, R. R. (2000). Nature over nurture: Temperament, personality, and life span development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*(1), 173–186.
- McCrae, R. R. (2011). Personality theories for the 21st century. *Teaching of Psychology, 38*(3) 209–214.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1983). Joint factors in self-reports and ratings: Neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience. *Personality and Individual Differences, 4*(3), 245–255.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(1) 81–90.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1989). Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator from the perspective of the five-factor model of personality. *Journal of Personality, 57*(1), 17–40.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1997). Personality trait structure as a human universal. *American Psychologist, 52*(5), 509–516.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality, 60*(2), 175–215.
- Meeusen, V. C. H., Brown-Mahoney, C., Van Dam, K., Van Zundert, A. A. J., & Knape, J. T. A. (2010). Personality dimensions and their relationship with job satisfaction among Dutch nurse anesthetists. *Journal of Nursing Management, 18*(5), 573–581.
- Mirabella, R. M., & Wish, N. B. (2000). The “best place” debate: A comparison of graduate education programs for nonprofit managers. *Public Administration Review, 60*(3), 219–229.
- Mondak, J. (2010). *Personality and the foundations of political behavior*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Norman, W. T. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66*(6), 574–583.
- Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology, 135*(3), 339–350.

- Ozer, D. J., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2006). Personality and the prediction of consequential outcomes. *Annual Review of Psychology, 57*, 401–421.
- Penner, L. A. (2002). Dispositional and organizational influences on sustained volunteerism: An interactionist perspective. *Journal of Social Issues, 58*(3), 447–467.
- Pervin, L. A. (2003). *The science of personality* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Pervin, L. A., & John, O. P. (2001). *Personality: Theory and research* (8th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Socha, A., Cooper, C. A., & McCord, D. M. (2010). Confirmatory factor analysis of the M5-50: An implementation of the international item pool item set. *Psychological Assessment, 22*(1), 43–49.
- Trull, T. J., & Sher, K. J. (1994). Relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Axis I disorders in a nonclinical sample. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 103*(2), 350–360.
- Tupes, E. C., & Christal, R. E. (1961). *Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings*. (USAF ASD Technical Report No. 61-97). Lackland Air Force Base, TX: U.S. Air Force.
- Tupes, E. C., & Christal, R. E. (1992). Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings. *Journal of Personality, 60*(2), 225–261.
- United Way. (2016). Home page. Retrieved February 3, 2016, from <http://unitedway.org>.
- van Saane, N., Sluiter, J. K., Verbeek, J. H. A. M., & Frings-Dresen, M. H. W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction: A systematic review. *Occupational Medicine, 53*(3), 191–200.
- Vigoda, E., & Golembiewski, R. T. (2001). Citizenship behavior and the spirit of new managerialism: A theoretical framework and challenge for governance. *American Review of Public Administration, 31*(3), 273–295.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Christopher A. Cooper is professor and department head in the Department of Political Science and Public Affairs at Western Carolina University. His current research in public administration focuses on the role of personality assessment in public and nonprofit management and the role of trust in public administration.

Whitney Campbell-Bridges is a graduate of Western Carolina University's Master in Experimental Psychology program. She is currently a resident of Charlotte, North Carolina, where she is senior staffing specialist at Allied Staff Augmentation Partners.

David M. McCord is professor of clinical psychology at Western Carolina University. His research areas include personality theory and personality assessment, in both the normal and abnormal domains.