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**ОРГАНИЗАЦИОННОЕ ПОВЕДЕНИЕ
на английском языке**

ЮНИТА 2

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

UNIT 2

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR AND CULTURE

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ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Course:

Unit 1. Foundations of Organizational Behavior.

Unit 2. Organizational Behavior and Culture.

Unit 3. Perception. Perception and Individual Decision Making.

Unit 4. Basic Motivation Concepts. Communication: A Process View.

Unit 5. Foundations of Group Behavior. Communication and Group
Decision Making.

Unit 6. Leadership and Power.

UNIT 2

Organizational Behavior and Culture

This unit is dedicated to so important subject as organizational behavior. It consists of methodological section (test- training, role-play, situations for discussion) and file of materials for study.

For the students of the Modern University for the Humanities.

Юнита соответствует профессиональной образовательной
программе № 2

ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН	5
ЛИТЕРАТУРА	6
Thematical Review	7
1. Organization Behavior in a Global Context	7
1.1. Multinational Corporations	8
1.2. Regional Cooperative Arrangements	8
2. Facing the International Challenge	10
2.1. American Biases	11
2.2. Foreigners in America	12
3. The Relevant Question Are National Cultures	13
3.1. The Kluckhohn – Strodtbeck Framework	13
3.2. The Hofstede Framework	17
4. The Reality of Culture Shock	20
4.1. Keeping OB in a Global Context	21
4.2. Summary	22
5. Foundations of Individual Behavior	22
5.1. Biographical Characteristics	23
5.2. Age	23
5.3. Gender	24
5.4. Marital Status	25
5.5. Number of Dependents	25
5.6. Tenure	26
6. Ability	26
6.1. Intellectual Abilities	27
6.2. Physical Abilities	28
6.3. The Ability Job Fit	28
7. Personality	30
7.1. What is Personality	30
7.2. Personality Determinants	30
7.3. Personality Traits	32
7.4. Major Personality Attributes Influencing OB	34
7.5. Matching Personalities and Jobs	38
8. Learning	40
8.1. Definition of Learning	40
8.2. Theories of Learning	42
8.3. Shaping: A Managerial Tool	44
8.4. Some Specific Organizational Applications	48
9. Implications for Performance and Satisfaction	51
9.1. Biographical Characteristics	52
9.2. Ability	52

9.3. Personality	53
Course Tasks	54
ГЛОССАРИЙ *	

* Глоссарий расположен в середине учебного пособия и предназначен для самостоятельного заучивания новых понятий.

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Facing the international Challenge. American Biases. Foreigners in America, Cultural Relativism in Ethics. Assessing Differences Between Countries. The Reality of Culture Shock. Foundations of Individual Behavior. Biographical Characteristics. Ability. Personality. A Definition of Learning. Theories of Learning.

ЛИТЕРАТУРА

1. Robbins S. "Organizational behavior". Prentice Hall. Any edition.

Примечание. Знаком (*) отмечены работы, на основе которых составлен научный обзор.

1. ORGANIZATON BEHAVIOR IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT

*Japanese and American management is ninety-five percent the same,
and differs in all important respects.
S. HONDA*

It opened in the spring of 1992, and it cost more than \$4.2 billion. While the corporation that developed it has an impressive record of doing projects very similar to it, this new project may be the most visible and expensive flop in the company's history. The project we're talking about is Euro Disneyland and the corporation that developed it is the Walt Disney Co.

Disney, of course, is the king of theme parks. Its U.S. parks in California and Florida are unparalleled successes. Why should Euro Disneyland, twenty miles east of Paris, be any different? Consider a few of the challenges that Euro Disneyland presents that the Disney Co. never had to face in California or Florida:

- Unlike Americans, the French have had little previous exposure to theme parks. Just the idea of having to pay to merely walk inside the gate of any park is totally alien to them.
- The French reserve one day and only one day of the week—Sunday—for family outings. The notion of going out with the family on a Saturday or a weekday isn't something they're used to.
- The French do their vacationing en masse. In August, businesses and schools close down and everyone goes on vacation. Demand at the theme park is unlikely, therefore, to be ongoing, as it is in the United States.
- The French have a traditional aversion to meeting strangers. Being welcomed by strangers with buoyant smiles and a lighthearted greeting is not appreciated.
- In the United States, fifty percent of Disney visitors eat fast food at the parks. But most French people don't snack. Moreover, they don't select their "lunchtime" arbitrarily, as Americans do. The French insist on eating their lunch at exactly 12:30.
- The French are impatient. They are not comfortable waiting in long lines. Americans seem to accept waiting thirty minutes or more for the most popular rides at Disneyland and Disney World.
- The French adore their dogs. They take them everywhere—inside resorts and even fine restaurants. Dogs, however, have always been banned from Disney parks.

* Жирным шрифтом выделены новые понятия, которые необходимо усвоить, знание этих понятий будет проверяться при тестировании.

- The practice of having Disney employees wear badges with only then- first names on them is fine in the United States, where informality is well accepted. But this is not the French way of doing business.
- French workers don't like to obey orders. They are not likely to take kindly to management's demands that they obey a dress code and not smoke, chew gum, or converse with their co-workers.

1.1. Multinational Corporations

Most of the firms currently listed in the Fortune 500 are **multinational corporations** — companies that maintain significant operations in two or more countries simultaneously.

While international businesses have been around for centuries, multinationals are a relatively recent phenomenon. They are a natural outcome of the global economy. Multinationals use their world-wide operations to develop global strategies. Rather than confining themselves to their domestic borders, they scan the world for competitive advantages. The result? Manufacturing, assembly, sales, and other functions are being strategically located to give firms advantages in the marketplace. A photocopying machine, for instance, might be designed in Toronto, have its microprocessing chips made in Taiwan, its physical case manufactured in Japan, be assembled in South Korea, and then be sold out of warehouses located in Melbourne, London, and Los Angeles.

How big are multinationals? It's hard to overstate their size and influence. In a list in which nations are ranked by gross national product and industrial firms by total sales, thirty-seven of the first one hundred names on the list would be industrial corporations. Exxon's sales, as a case in point, exceed the GNPs of such countries as Indonesia, Nigeria, Argentina, and Denmark.

Managers of multinationals confront a wealth of challenges. They face diverse political systems, laws, and customs. But these differences create both problems and opportunities. It's obviously more difficult to manage an operation that spans fifteen thousand miles and whose employees speak five different languages than one located under a single roof where a common language is spoken. Differences create opportunities, and that has been the primary motivation for corporations to expand their worldwide operations.

1.2. Regional Cooperative Arrangements

National boundaries are also being blurred by the creation of regional cooperative arrangements. The most notable of these, so far, is the European Community, made up of twelve West European countries. But the United

States and Mexico have established border zones to stimulate low-cost manufacturing, the United States and Canada have negotiated an agreement to reduce trade barriers, and the recent reunification of Germany signals the beginning of international cooperative arrangements among East European countries.

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY On December 31, 1992, the United States of Europe was created. There are 335 million people in the twelve nations — France, Denmark, Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom, and Germany — that make up the European Community. Before 1992, they had border controls, border taxes, border subsidies, nationalistic policies, and protected industries. Now they are a single market. Gone are national barriers to travel, employment, investment, and trade. In their place are a free flow of money, workers, goods, and services. A driver hauling cargo from Amsterdam to Lisbon is now able to clear four border crossings and five countries merely by showing a single piece of paper. In 1991, that same driver needed two pounds of documents.

The primary motivation for these twelve nations to unite was the desire to strengthen their position against the industrial might of the United States and Japan. When they were separate countries creating barriers against one another, their industries were unable to develop the economies of scale enjoyed by the United States and Japan. The new European Community, however, allows European firms to tap into what has become the world's single richest market. This reduction in trade barriers also encourages non-West European companies to invest in these countries to take advantage of new opportunities. Finally, European multinationals have new clout in attacking American, Japanese, and other world-wide markets.

MAQUILADORAS Maquiladoras are domestic Mexican firms that manufacture or assemble products for a company of another nation, which are then sent back to the foreign company for sale and distribution. The key to the success of maquiladoras is that they allow non-Mexican firms to take advantage of Mexico's low labor costs with minimal trade restrictions. More than fourteen hundred foreign companies — including General Motors, GE, Zenith, Honeywell, Hitachi, and Sanyo — are currently doing business with maquiladoras along the Mexican side of the border from Texas to California.

The maquiladoras concept was devised by the Mexican and U.S. governments in 1965 to help develop both sides of the impoverished border region. But it was the massive devaluation of the peso that occurred in 1982 that initiated a virtual explosion of maquiladoras. Since 1982, the number of these plants has nearly tripled. They're in Ciudad Juárez, Nogales, Tijuana, Mexicali, and similar northern Mexican cities. One estimate indicates that these cross-border plants could employ as many as three million workers by the year 2000.

Mexican wages are equal to, or even lower than, wages in many Asian countries. With a Mexican minimum wage of around 40 cents an hour at current exchange rates, companies producing for North American markets no longer have to go to the Far East to find low-cost labor.

U.S.-CANADA ALLIANCE Another set of national barriers is coming down between the United States and Canada. These two countries are already the world's largest trading partners—they do at least \$150 billion worth of business a year with each other. The recent signing of the United States-Canadian Free Trade Agreement means increased competition for firms and expanded opportunities in each country.

The Free Trade Agreement phases out tariffs on most goods traded between the two countries. It is also triggering a wave of consolidations as Canadian companies merge among themselves or with American companies to form single giant firms.

The U.S.-Canada alliance is likely to soon be expanded to include Mexico—establishing a unified North American free trade zone stretching from the Yukon to the Yucatan. When this occurs, it will create a market with 360 million consumers; shift a number of low-paying jobs to Mexico from the United States, Canada, and the Far East; and generate high-skilled and better-paying jobs in the United States and Canada as a result of the growth in exports.

THE NEW EASTERN EUROPE In early 1989, Romania, Poland, Hungary, and East Germany were communist countries whose peoples were confined behind an Iron Curtain, East Germans, for instance, literally put their lives on the line when they sneaked into West Germany. Eighteen months later, East Germany and West Germany were reunified and vendors were selling the Berlin Wall in two-inch-square pieces to tourists. U.S. – Soviet relations are now better than they have been in nearly fifty years; the concern over a world war between these superpowers has almost completely faded; and entrepreneurs are creating new businesses to serve the needs of the East European masses.

A free Eastern Europe creates almost unlimited opportunities for multinationals. It offers new markets with huge growth potentials. It also creates a new supply of high-skilled, low-cost labor. More than any other incident in recent times, the fall of communism in Eastern Europe signaled the arrival of a truly global economy.

2. FACING THE INTERNATIONAL CHALLENGE

A global economy presents challenges to managers that they never had to confront when their operations were constrained within national borders. They face different legal and political systems. They confront different

economic climates and tax policies. But they also must deal with varying **national cultures** — the primary values and practices that characterize particular countries — many of which are nothing like those in which they have spent their entire lives.

If this were an economics text, we would carefully dissect the economic implications for managers of a global economy. But this unit is about organizational behavior and understanding people at work. Therefore, let's look at why managers, especially those born and raised in the United States, often find managing people in foreign lands so difficult.

2.1. American Biases

Americans have been singled out as suffering particularly from **parochialism**; that is, they view the world solely through their own eyes and perspective. People with a parochial perspective do not recognize that other people have different ways of living and working. We see this most explicitly in Americans' knowledge of foreign languages. While it is not uncommon for Europeans to speak three or four languages, Americans are almost entirely monolingual. The reasons probably reflect the huge domestic market in the United States, the geographical separation of the United States from Europe and Asia, and the reality that English has become the international business language in many parts of the world.

Americans have also been frequently criticized for holding **ethnocentric views**. They believe that their cultural values and customs are superior to all others. This may offer another explanation for why Americans don't learn foreign languages. Many think their language is superior and that it's the rest of the world's responsibility to learn English.

There is no shortage of stories illustrating the problems created when American managers failed to understand cultural differences. Consider the following examples:

An American manager recently transferred to Saudi Arabia successfully obtained a million-dollar contract from a Saudi manufacturer. The manufacturer's representative had arrived at the meeting several hours late, but the American executive considered it unimportant. The American was certainly surprised and frustrated to learn later that the Saudi had no intention of honoring the contract. He had signed it only to be polite after showing up late for the appointment.

An American executive operating in Peru was viewed by Peruvian managers as cold and unworthy of trust because, in face-to-face discussions, the American kept backing up. He did not understand that in Peru, the custom is to stand quite close to the person with whom you are speaking.

An American manager in Japan offended a high-ranking Japanese executive by failing to give him the respect his position deserved. The American was introduced to the Japanese executive in the latter's office. The American assumed that the executive was a low-level manager and paid him little attention because of the small and sparsely furnished office he occupied. The American didn't realize that the offices of top Japanese executives do not flaunt the status symbols of their American counterparts.

U.S. parochialism and ethnocentrism may not have been debilitating in the post-World War II period, when the United States accounted for seventy-five percent of the world's gross national product. But it is a "life-threatening disease" today, when U.S. firms produce only about twenty-two percent of the world's GNP. The point is that the world is not dominated by U.S. economic power any more, and unless U.S. managers conquer their parochialism and ethnocentrism, they will not be able to take full advantage of the new global opportunities.

2.2. Foreigners in America

Don't assume that Americans are alone in blundering on foreign soil. Cultural ignorance goes two ways. Foreign owners now control more than twelve percent of all American manufacturing assets and employ over three million American workers. In one recent year alone, foreign investors acquired nearly four hundred American businesses, worth a total of \$60 billion. However, these foreign owners are facing the same challenges and making many of the same mistakes that American executives have long made overseas.

Americans, for instance, are used to stability. When new owners with different management styles take over a U.S. company, American workers often feel threatened by high uncertainty, yet this is often ignored by foreign managers. Some foreign owners, especially those from relatively homogeneous cultures, have the outmoded, stereotypical attitudes toward women and minorities that build ill-will. Many American employees complain that they feel left out of the established personal networks in traditional European and Asian corporations that acquire American firms. Japanese managers, as a case in point, work ten to twelve-hour days and then socialize until midnight. A lot of important business is done at these social gatherings, but American managers are excluded, and this exclusion creates feelings of hurt and distrust. The Japanese way of dealing with people also confounds Americans. Communication, for example, is often more difficult. Americans value directness. They tend to say exactly what they mean. The Japanese are more subtle and see this directness as rude and abrasive. The Japanese emphasis on group consensus is another practice that doesn't fit well in the

United States. Americans, used to making decisions fast, get frustrated by what they interpret as unnecessary delays.

3. THE RELEVANT QUESTION: ARE NATIONAL CULTURES BECOMING MORE HOMOGENEOUS?

To illustrate the difficulty of accurately describing the unique qualities of one's own culture, if you're an American, raised in the United States ask yourself: What are Americans like? Think about it for a moment and then see how many of the points in Table 1 you identified correctly.

TABLES 1. What Are Americans Like?

Americans are very *informal*. They don't tend to treat people differently even when there are great differences in age or social standing.

Americans are *direct*. They don't talk around things. To some foreigners, this may appear as abrupt or even rude behavior.

Americans are *competitive*. Some foreigners may find Americans assertive or overbearing.

Americans are *achievers*. They like to keep score, whether at work or at play. They emphasize accomplishments.

Americans are *independent* and *individualistic*. They place a high value on freedom and believe that individuals can shape and control their own destinies.

Americans are *questioners*. They ask a lot of questions, even of someone they have just met. Many of these questions may seem pointless ("How ya doing?") or personal ("What kind of work do you do?").

Americans dislike *silence*. They would rather talk about the weather than deal with silence in a conversation.

Americans value *punctuality*. They keep appointment calendars and live according to schedules and clocks.

Americans value *cleanliness*. They often seem obsessed with bathing, eliminating body odors, and wearing clean clothes.

Although foreign culture is difficult to fathom from what its "natives" tell you, there is an expanding body of research that can tell us how cultures vary and what the key differences are between, say, the United States and Venezuela. Let's look at the two best known of these research frameworks.

3.1. The Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck Framework

One of the most widely referenced approaches for analyzing variations among cultures is the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework. It identifies six

basic cultural dimensions: relationship to the environment, time orientation, nature of people, activity orientation, focus of responsibility, and conception of space. In this section, we'll review each of these dimensions.

RELATIONSHIP TO THE ENVIRONMENT Are people *subjugated* to their environment, in *harmony* with it, or able to *dominate* it? In many Middle Eastern countries, people see life as essentially preordained. When something happens, they tend to see it as "God's will." In contrast, Americans and Canadians believe they can control nature. They're willing to spend billions of dollars each year on cancer research, for instance, because they think that cancer's cause can be identified, a cure found, and the disease eventually eradicated.

In between these two extreme positions is a more moderate view that seeks harmony with nature. In many Far Eastern countries, for example, people's way of dealing with the environment is to work around it.

You should expect these different perspectives toward the environment to influence organizational practices. Take the setting of goals as an example. In a subjugation society, goal setting is not likely to be very popular. Why set goals if you believe people can't do much toward achieving them? In a harmony society, goals are likely to be used, but deviations are expected and penalties for failing to reach the goals are likely to be minimal. In a domination society, goals are widely applied, people are expected to achieve them, and the penalties for failure tend to be quite high.

TIME ORIENTATION Does the culture focus on the *past*, *present*, or *future*? Societies differ in the value they place on time. For instance, Western cultures perceive time as a scarce resource. "Time is money" and must be used efficiently. Americans focus on the present and the near-future. You see evidence of this in the short-term orientation of performance appraisals. In the typical North American organization, people are evaluated every six months or once a year. The Japanese, in contrast, take a longer-term view and this is reflected in their performance appraisal methods. Japanese workers are often given ten years or more to prove their worth.

Some cultures take still another approach to time: They focus on the past. Italians, for instance, follow their traditions and seek to preserve their historical practices.

Knowledge of different cultures' time orientations can provide you with insights into the importance of deadlines, whether long-term planning is widely practiced, the length of job assignments, and what constitutes lateness. It can explain, for instance, why Americans are obsessed with making and keeping appointments. It also suggests why not every society is as likely to be enamored of timesaving devices—such as day planners, overnight mail delivery, car phones, and fax machines—as North Americans are.

NATURE OF PEOPLE Does a culture view people as *good*, *evil*, or some *mix* of these two? In many Third World countries, people see

themselves as basically honest and trustworthy. People in the former Soviet Union, on the other hand, take a rather evil view of human nature. North Americans tend to be somewhere in between. They see people as basically good, but are cautious so as not to be taken advantage of.

You can readily see how a culture's view of the nature of people might influence the dominant leadership style of its managers. A more autocratic style is likely to rule in countries that focus on the evil aspects of people. Participation or even a laissez-faire style should prevail in countries that emphasize trusting values. In mixed cultures, leadership is likely to emphasize participation but provide close controls that can quickly identify deviations.

ACTIVITY ORIENTATION Some cultures emphasize *doing* or action. They stress accomplishments. Some cultures emphasize *being* or living for the moment. They stress experiencing life and seeking immediate gratification of desires. Still other cultures focus on *controlling*. They stress restraining desires by detaching oneself from objects.

North Americans live in doing-oriented societies. They work hard and expect to be rewarded with promotions, raises, and other forms of recognition for their accomplishments. Mexico, in contrast, is being-oriented. The afternoon siesta is consistent with the slower pace and enjoying-the-moment orientation of the culture. The French have a controlling orientation and put emphasis on rationality and logic.

An understanding of a culture's activity orientation can give you insights into how its people approach work and leisure, how they make decisions, and the criteria they use for allocating rewards. For instance, in cultures with a dominant being orientation, decisions are likely to be emotional. In contrast, doing and controlling cultures are likely to emphasize pragmatism and rationality, respectively, in decision making.

FOCUS OF RESPONSIBILITY Cultures can be classified according to where responsibility lies for the welfare of others. Americans, for instance, are highly individualistic. They use personal characteristics and achievements to define themselves. They believe that a person's responsibility is to take care of himself or herself. Countries like Malaysia and Israel focus more on the group. In an Israeli kibbutz, for example, people share chores and rewards. Emphasis is on group harmony, unity, and loyalty. The British and French follow another orientation by relying on *hierarchical* relationships. Groups in these countries are hierarchically ranked and a group's position remains essentially stable over time. Hierarchical societies tend to be aristocratic.

This dimension of culture has implications for the design of jobs, approaches to decision making, communication patterns, reward systems, and selection practices in organizations. For instance, selection in individualistic societies emphasizes personal accomplishments. In group

societies, working well with others is likely to be of primary importance. In hierarchycal societies, selection decisions are made on the basis of a candidate’s social ranking. This dimension helps to explain the popularity in the United States of the resume, which lists personal achievements, and the negative judgment of “nepotism” (hiring one’s relatives).

CONCEPTION OF SPACE The final dimension in the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework relates to ownership of space. Some cultures are very open and conduct business in public. At the other extreme are cultures that place a great deal of emphasis on keeping things private. Many societies mix the two and fall somewhere in between.

Japanese organizations reflect the public nature of their society. There are, for instance, few private offices. Managers and operative employees work in the same room and there are no partitions separating their desks. North American firms also reflect their cultural values. They use offices and privacy to reflect status. Important meetings are held behind closed doors. Space is frequently given over for the exclusive use of specific individuals. In societies that have a mixed orientation, there is a blend of the private and public. For instance, there might be a large office where walls are only five or six feet high, thus creating “limited privacy.” These differences in the conception of space have obvious implications for organizational concerns such as job design and communication.

SUMMARY Table 2 summarizes the six cultural dimensions in the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework and the possible variations for each. As a point of reference, the jagged line in the table identifies where the United States tends to fall along these dimensions.

TABLE 2. Variations in Value Dimensions

Value Dimension	Variations		
Relationship to the environment	Domination	Harmony	Subjugation
Time orientation	Past	Present	Future
Nature of people	Good	Mixed	Evil
Activity orientation	Being	Controlling	Doing
Focus of responsibility	Individualistic	Group	Hierarchical
Conception of space	Private	Mixed	Public

Note The jagged line identifies where the United States tends to fall along these dimensions

3.2. The Hofstede Framework

A more comprehensive analysis of cultural diversity has been done by Geert Hofstede. In contrast to most of the previous organizational studies, which either included a limited number of countries or analyzed different companies in different countries, Hofstede surveyed over 116,000 employees in forty countries who all worked for a single multinational corporation. This database eliminated any differences that might be attributable to varying practices and policies in different companies. So any variations that he found between countries could reliably be attributed to national culture.

What did Hofstede find? His huge database confirmed that national culture had a major impact on employees' work-related values and attitudes. More important, Hofstede found that managers and employees vary on four dimensions of national culture: (1) individualism versus collectivism; (2) power distance; (3) uncertainty avoidance; and (4) quantity versus quality of life. (Actually, Hofstede called this fourth dimension masculinity versus femininity, but we've changed his terms because of their strong sexist connotation.)

INDIVIDUALISM VS. COLLECTIVISM **Individualism** refers to a loosely knit social framework in which people are chiefly supposed to look after their own interests and those of their immediate family. This is made possible because of the large amount of freedom that such a society allows individuals. Its opposite is **collectivism**, which is characterized by a tight social framework in which people expect others in groups to which they belong (such as an organization) to look after them and protect them when they are in trouble. In exchange for this security, they feel they owe absolute loyalty to the group.

Hofstede found that the degree of individualism in a country is closely related to that country's wealth. Rich countries like the United States, Great Britain, and the Netherlands are very individualistic. Poor countries like Colombia and Pakistan are very collectivist.

POWER DISTANCE People naturally vary in their physical and intellectual abilities. This, in turn, creates differences in wealth and power. How does a society deal with these inequalities? Hofstede used the term **power distance** as a measure of the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. A high-power-distance society accepts wide differences in power in organizations. Employees show a great deal of respect for those in authority. Titles, rank, and status carry a lot of weight. When negotiating in high-power-distance countries, companies find it helps to send representatives with titles at least as high as those with whom they're bargaining. Countries high in power distance include the Philippines, Venezuela, and India. In contrast, a low-power-distance society plays down inequalities as much as possible.

Superiors still have authority, but employees are not fearful or in awe of the boss. Denmark, Israel, and Austria are examples of countries with low-power-distance scores.

UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE We live in a world of uncertainty. The future is largely unknown and always will be. Societies respond to this uncertainty in different ways. Some socialize their members into accepting it with equanimity. People in such societies are more or less comfortable with risks. They're also relatively tolerant of behavior and opinions that differ from their own because they don't feel threatened by them. Hofstede describes such societies as having low **uncertainty avoidance**; that is, people feel relatively secure. Countries that fall into this category include Singapore, Hong Kong, and Denmark.

A society high in uncertainty avoidance is characterized by a high level of anxiety among its people, which manifests itself in nervousness, stress, and aggressiveness. Because people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity in these societies, mechanisms are created to provide security and reduce risk. Organizations are likely to have more formal rules, there will be less tolerance for deviant ideas and behaviors, and members will strive to believe in absolute truths. Not surprisingly, in organizations in countries with high uncertainty avoidance, employees demonstrate relatively low job mobility and lifetime employment is a widely practiced policy. Countries in this category include Japan, Portugal, and Greece.

QUANTITY VS. QUALITY OF LIFE The fourth dimension, like individualism and collectivism, represents a dichotomy. Some cultures emphasize **quantity of life** and value things like assertiveness and the acquisition of money and material things. Other cultures emphasize the **quality of life**, the importance of relationships, and show sensitivity and concern for the welfare of others.

Hofstede found that Japan and Austria scored high on the quantity dimension. In contrast, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland scored high on the quality dimension.

THE UNITED STATES AND OTHER COUNTRIES ON HOFSTEDES DIMENSIONS Comparing the forty countries on the four dimensions, Hofstede found U.S. culture to rank as follows:

- Individualism – collectivism = Highest among all countries on individualism
- Power distance = Below average
- Uncertainty avoidance = Well below average
- Quantity – quality = Well above average on quantity

These results are not inconsistent with the world image of the United States. The below-average score on power distance aligns with what one might expect in a country with a representative type of government with

democratic ideals. In this category, the United States would rate below nations with a small ruling class and a large, powerless set of subjects, and above those nations with very strong commitments to egalitarian values. The well-below-average ranking on uncertainty avoidance is also consistent with a representative type of government having democratic ideals. Americans perceive themselves as being relatively free from threats of uncertainty. The individualistic ethic is one of the most frequently used stereotypes to describe Americans, and, based on Hofstede’s research, the stereotype seems well founded. The United States was ranked as the single most individualistic country in his entire set. Finally, the well-above-average score on quantity of life is also no surprise. Capitalism—which values aggressiveness and materialism—is consistent with Hofstede’s quantity characteristics.

TABLE 3. Examples of Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions

Country	Individualism-Collectivism	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Quantity * of Life
Australia	Individual	Small	Moderate	Strong
Canada	Individual	Small	Low	Moderate
England	Individual	Small	Moderate	Strong
France	Individual	Large	High	Weak
Greece	Collective	Large	High	Moderate
Italy	Individual	Moderate	High	Strong
Japan	Collective	Moderate	High	Strong
Mexico	Collective	Large	High	Strong
Singapore	Collective	Large	Low	Moderate
Sweden	Individual	Small	Low	Weak
United States	Individual	Small	Low	Strong
Venezuela	Collective	Large	High	Strong

*A weak quantity-of-life score is equivalent to a high quality-of-life score.
Source: Based on G. Hofstede, “Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?”, *Organizational Dynamic*, Summer 1980, pp. 42—63.

We haven’t the space here to review the results Hofstede obtained for all forty countries, although a dozen examples are presented in Table 3. Since our concern is essentially with identifying similarities and differences among cultures, let’s briefly identic those countries that are most and least like the United States on the four dimensions.

The United States is strongly individualistic but low on power distance. This same pattern was exhibited by England, Australia, Sweden, the

Netherlands, and New Zealand. Those least similar to the United States on these dimensions were Venezuela, Colombia, Pakistan, Singapore, and the Philippines.

The United States scored low on uncertainty avoidance and high on quantity of life. The same pattern was shown by Ireland, the Philippines, New Zealand, India, and South Africa. Those least similar to the United States on these dimensions were Chile, Yugoslavia, and Portugal.

4. THE REALITY OF CULTURE SHOCK

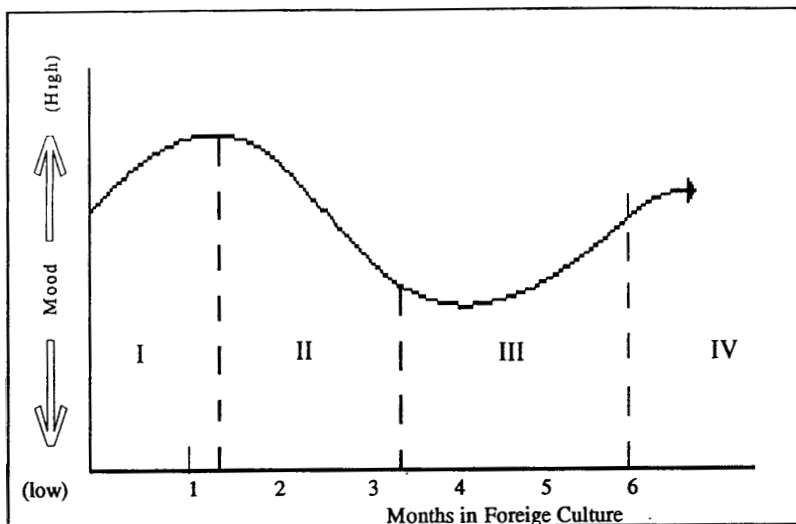
Any move from one country to another will create a certain amount of confusion, disorientation, and emotional upheaval. We call this **culture shock**. The transfer of an executive from the United States to Canada, for example, would require about as little adjustment as one could possibly make. Why? Because the United States and Canada look very much alike in terms of Hofstede's four cultural dimensions. Even so, there would be some culture shock. The executive would still have to adjust to differences that would include the form of representative government (Canadians have a parliamentary system, much like the one in Great Britain), language (Canada is a bilingual—English and French-speaking—country), and even holidays (the Canadian Thanksgiving is in early October). However, culture shock will obviously be more severe when individuals move to cultures that are most unlike their old environment.

The adjustment to a foreign country has been found to follow a U-shaped curve that contains four distinct stages. This is shown in Figure 4.

The initial stage, I, is one of novelty. The newcomer is excited and optimistic. His or her mood is high. For the temporary visitor to a foreign country, this stage is all that is experienced. A person who spends a week or two on vacation in a strange land considers cultural differences to be interesting, even educational. However, the employee who makes a permanent, or relatively permanent, move experiences euphoria and then disillusionment. In this stage, II, the "quaint" quickly becomes "obsolete," and the "traditional," "inefficient." The opportunity to learn a new language turns into the reality of struggling to communicate. After a few months, the newcomer hits bottom. At this stage, III, any and all of the culture's differences have become blatantly clear. The newcomer's basic interpretation system, which worked fine at home, now no longer functions. He or she is bombarded by millions of sights, sounds, and other cues that are uninterpretable. Frustration and confusion are highest and mood lowest in Stage III. Finally, the newcomer begins to adapt, and the negative responses related to culture shock dissipate. In this stage, IV, the newcomer has learned what is important and what can be ignored about the new culture.

What are the implications of this model? There are at least two. First, if you're a newcomer in a foreign land or you are managing a newcomer, expect culture shock. It's not abnormal. To some degree, everyone goes through it. Second, culture shock follows a relatively predictable pattern. Expect early euphoria, followed by depression and frustration. However, after about four to six months, most people adjust to their new culture. What was previously different and strange becomes understandable.

Figure 4. Culture Shock Cycle



4.1. Keeping OB in a Global Context

Most of the concepts that currently make up the body of knowledge we call **organizational behavior** have been developed by Americans using American subjects within domestic contexts. A comprehensive study, for instance, of more than eleven thousand articles published in twenty-four management and organizational behavior journals over a ten-year period revealed that approximately eighty percent of the studies were done in the United States and had been conducted by Americans. What this means is that not all the concepts that you'll read about in future chapters are universally applicable to managing people around the world.

As you review concepts in this unit, ask yourself: *Is this concept culture-bound?* If it was developed and tested in the United States, for instance, do you think it is generalizable to Mexico, or France, or India? If not, *why not?*

The more that a country's culture deviates from that of the United States, as depicted by the jagged line in Table 4 or the United States' ratings on Hofstede's four cultural dimensions, the more you need to be on guard to consider how cultural differences might modify the application of OB concepts.

4.2. Summary

An understanding of differences between cultures should be particularly valuable for people who were born and raised in non-Anglo countries, those who plan on living and working in another country, and those who work with or manage people whose cultural backgrounds are different from their own.

If you fall into one of these groups, how do you use the information provided in this unit? First, find out where the person or people whose behavior you're trying to understand comes from. Second, evaluate that country, using one or both of the cultural-differences frameworks presented in this chapter. Third, compare the national culture in question against the data for the United States and identify relevant differences. This is necessary because most of the research in OB has been conducted on Americans in the U.S.. Finally, modify those concepts about to be introduced here that explain and predict employee behavior to reflect these differences.

5. FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

I ain't much, baby—but I'm all I've got.
J.LAIR

His detractors often refer to him as “Neutron Jack.” Since becoming chief executive of General Electric in 1981, John (“Jack”) F. Welch, Jr., has totally restructured GE, including the elimination of well over 100,000 jobs through layoffs, attrition, and the sale of businesses. Although he is widely regarded as one of the world's toughest managers, you can't argue with his success.

Jack Welch's determination to control his own life is a personality characteristic that he developed at an early age. His mother instilled in him the idea that assertive behavior was acceptable, even desirable. And she shaped his behavior through encouragement and physical punishment.

Jack Welch is not unique. *All* our behavior is somewhat shaped by our personalities and the learning experiences we've encountered. In this

chapter, we will look at four individual-level variables — biographical characteristics, ability, personality, and learning — and consider their effect on employee performance and satisfaction.

5.1. Biographical Characteristics

As discussed previously, this text is essentially concerned with finding and analyzing those variables that have an impact on employee productivity, absence, turnover, and satisfaction. The list of these variables is long and contains a number of complicated concepts. Many of these concepts — motivation level, say, or power relations or organizational culture — are hard to assess. It might be valuable, then, to begin by looking at factors that are easily definable and readily available, data that can be obtained, for the most part, simply from information available in an employee's personnel file. What factors would these be? Obvious characteristics would be an employee's age, gender, marital status, number of dependents, and length of service with an organization. Fortunately, there is a sizable amount of research that has specifically analyzed many of these **biographical characteristics**.

5.2. Age

The relationship between age and job performance is likely to be an issue of increasing importance during the next decade. Why? There are at least three reasons. First, there is a widespread belief that job performance declines with increasing age. Regardless of whether it's true or not, a lot of people believe it and act on it. Second is the reality that the work force is aging. For instance, between the years 1985 and 2000, the number of workers between the ages of forty-five and sixty-five will grow by forty-one percent. The third reason is recent American legislation that, for all intents and purposes, outlaws mandatory retirement. Most workers today no longer have to retire at the age of seventy.

Now let's take a look at the evidence. What effect does age actually have on turnover, absenteeism, productivity, and satisfaction?

The older you get, the less likely you are to quit your job. That is the overwhelming conclusion based on studies of the age-turnover relationship. Of course, this conclusion should not be too surprising. As workers get older, they have fewer alternative job opportunities. In addition, older workers are less likely to resign because their longer tenure tends to provide them with higher wage rates, longer paid vacations, and more attractive pension benefits.

It's tempting to assume that age is also inversely related to absenteeism. After all, if older workers are less likely to quit, wouldn't they also demonstrate higher stability by coming to work more regularly? Not necessarily! Most studies *do* show an inverse relationship, but closer

examination finds that the age-absence relationship is partially a function of whether the absence is avoidable or unavoidable. Generally, older employees have lower rates of avoidable absence than do younger employees. However, they have higher rates of unavoidable absence. This is probably due to the poorer health associated with aging and the longer recovery period that older workers need when injured.

How does age affect productivity? There is a widespread belief that productivity declines with age. It is often assumed that an individual's skills — particularly speed, agility, strength, and coordination — decay over time, and that prolonged job boredom and lack of intellectual stimulation all contribute to reduced productivity. The evidence, however, contradicts these beliefs and assumptions. A recent meta-analysis of the literature found that age and job performance were unrelated. Moreover, this seems to be true for all types of jobs, professional and nonprofessional. The natural conclusion is that the demands of most jobs, even those with heavy manual labor requirements, are not extreme enough for any declines in physical skills due to age to have an impact on productivity; or if there is some decay due to age, it is offset by gains due to experience.

Our final concern is the relationship between age and job satisfaction. On this issue, the evidence is mixed. Most studies indicate a positive association between age and satisfaction, at least up to age sixty. Other studies, however, have found a U-shaped relationship. Several explanations could clear up these results, the most plausible being that these studies are intermixing professional and nonprofessional employees. When the two types are separated, satisfaction tends to continually increase among professionals as they age, whereas it falls among nonprofessionals during middle age and then rises again in the later years.

5.3. Gender

Few issues initiate more debates, myths, and unsupported opinions than whether females perform as well on jobs as males do. In this section, we review the research on this issue.

The evidence suggests that the best place to begin is with the recognition that there are few, if any, important differences between males and females that will affect their job performance. There are, for instance, no consistent male-female differences in problem-solving ability, analytical skills, competitive drive, motivation, sociability, or learning ability. While psychological studies have found that women are more willing to conform to authority, and that men are more aggressive and more likely than women to have expectations of success, these differences are minor. Given the significant changes that have taken place in the last twenty years in terms of increasing female participation rates in the work force and rethinking what

constitutes male and female roles, you should operate on the assumption that there is no significant difference in job productivity between males and females. Similarly, there is no evidence indicating that an employee's gender affects job satisfaction.

But what about absence and turnover rates? Are females less stable employees than males? First, on the question of turnover, the evidence is mixed. Some have found females to have higher turnover rates, while others have found no difference. There doesn't appear to be enough information from which to draw meaningful conclusions. The research on absence, however, is a different story. The evidence consistently indicates that women have higher rates of absenteeism than men do. The most logical explanation for this finding is that our society has historically placed home and family responsibilities on the female. When a child is ill or someone needs to stay home to await the plumber, it has been the woman who has traditionally taken time off from work. However, this research is undoubtedly time-bound. The historical role of the woman in child caring and as secondary breadwinner has definitely changed in the past decade; and a large proportion of men nowadays are as interested in day care and the problems associated with child care in general as are women.

5.4. Marital Status

There are not enough studies to draw any conclusions about the effect of marital status on productivity. But consistent research indicates that married employees have fewer absences, undergo less turnover, and are more satisfied with their jobs than their unmarried coworkers.

Marriage imposes increased responsibilities that may make a steady job more valuable and important. Of course, the results represent correlational studies, so the causation issue is not clear. It may very well be that conscientious and satisfied employees are more likely to be married. Another offshoot of this issue is that research has not pursued other statuses besides single or married. Does being divorced have an impact on an employee's performance and satisfaction? What about couples who live together without being married? These are questions in need of investigation.

5.5. Number of Dependents

Again, we don't have enough information relating to employee productivity, but quite a bit of research has been done on the relationship between the number of dependents an employee has and absence, turnover, and job satisfaction.

There is very strong evidence that the number of children an employee has is positively correlated with absence, especially among females.

Similarly, the evidence seems to point to a positive relationship between number of dependents and job satisfaction. In contrast, studies relating number of dependents and turnover produce a mixed bag of results. Some indicate that children increase turnover, while others show that they result in lower turnover. At this point, the evidence regarding turnover is just too contradictory to permit us to draw conclusions.

5.6. Tenure

The last biographical characteristic well look at is tenure. With the exception of the issue of male-female differences, probably no issue is more subject to myths and speculations than the impact of seniority on job performance.

Extensive reviews of the seniority—productivity relationship have been conducted. While past performance tends to be related to output in a new position, seniority by itself is not a good predictor of productivity. In other words, holding all other things equal, there is no reason to believe that people who have been on a job longer are more productive than are those with less seniority.

The research relating tenure to absence is quite straightforward. Studies consistently demonstrate seniority to be negatively related to absenteeism. In fact, in terms of both absence frequency and total days lost at work, tenure is the single most important explanatory variable.

As with absence, tenure is also a potent variable in explaining turnover. “Tenure has consistently been found to be negatively related to turnover and has been suggested as one of the single best predictors of turnover.” Moreover, consistent with research that suggests that past behavior is the best predictor of future behavior, evidence indicates that tenure on an employee’s previous job is a powerful predictor of that employee’s future turnover.

6. ABILITY

Contrary to what we were taught in grade school, we *weren’t* all created equal. Most of us are to the left of the median on some normally distributed ability curve. Regardless of how motivated you are, it is unlikely that you can act as well as Meryl Streep, run as fast as Carl Lewis, write horror stories as well as Stephen King, or sing as well as Whitney Houston. Of course, just because we aren’t all equal in abilities does not imply that some individuals are humanly inferior to others. What we’re acknowledging is that everyone has strengths and weaknesses in terms of ability that make him or her relatively superior or inferior to others in performing certain tasks or activities. From management’s standpoint, the issue isn’t whether or not people differ in terms of their abilities. They do! The issue is knowing *how*

people differ in abilities and *using* that knowledge to increase the likelihood that an employee will perform his or her job well.

What does **ability** mean? As we'll use the term, ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is a current assessment of what one *can* do. An individual's overall abilities are essentially made up of two sets of skills: intellectual and physical.

6.1. Intellectual Abilities

Intellectual abilities are those needed to perform mental activities. IQ tests, for example, are designed to ascertain one's intellectual abilities. So, too, are popular college admission tests like the SAT and ACT and graduate admission tests in business (GMAT), law (LSAT), and medicine (MCAT). Some of the more relevant dimensions making up intellectual abilities include number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, and inductive reasoning Table 5 describes these dimensions.

Jobs differ in the demands they place on incumbents to use their intellectual abilities. Generally speaking, the higher an individual rises in organization's hierarchy, the more general intelligence and verbal abilities will be necessary to perform the job successfully. A high IQ is not a prerequisite for all jobs. In fact, for many jobs — where employee behavior is highly routine and there are little or no opportunities to exercise discretion — a high IQ may be unrelated to performance. On the other hand, a careful review of the evidence demonstrates that tests that assess verbal, numerical, spatial, and perceptual abilities are valid predictors of job proficiency across all levels of jobs. So tests that measure specific dimensions of intelligence have been found to be strong predictors of job performance.

TABLE 5. Dimensions of Intellectual Ability

Dimension	Description	Job Example
Number aptitude	Ability to do speedy and accurate arithmetic	Accountant: Computing the sales tax on a set of items
Verbal comprehension	Ability to understand what is read or heard and the relationship of words to each other	Plant Manager: Following corporate policies
Perceptual speed similarities and differences	Ability to identify visual quickly and accurately	Fire Investigator: Identifying clues to support a charge of arson
Inductive reasoning	Ability to identify a logical sequence in a problem and then solve the problem	Market Researcher: Forecasting demand for a product in the next time period

The major dilemma faced by employers who use mental ability tests for selection, promotion, training, and similar personnel decisions is that they may have a negative impact on racial and ethnic groups. The evidence indicates that some minority groups score, on the average, as much as one standard deviation lower than whites on verbal, numerical, and spatial ability tests. The negative impact from these tests can be eliminated either by avoiding these types of tests or by seeking racial and ethnic balance by hiring and promoting on the basis of ability within each ethnic group separately. The latter suggestion, incidentally, underlies legal efforts by the courts to eliminate employment discrimination through the use of targets and goals.

6.2. Physical Abilities

To the same degree that intellectual abilities play a larger role in performance as individuals move up the organizational hierarchy, specific **physical abilities** gain importance for successfully doing less skilled and more standardized jobs in the lower part of the organization. Jobs in which success demands stamina, manual dexterity, leg strength, or similar talents require management to identify an employee's physical capabilities.

Research on the requirements needed in hundreds of jobs has identified nine basic abilities involved in the performance of physical tasks. These are described in Table 6. Individuals differ in the extent to which they have each of these abilities. Not surprisingly, there is also little relationship between them. A high score on one is no assurance of a high score on others. High employee performance is likely to be achieved when management has ascertained the extent to which a job requires each of the nine abilities and then ensures that employees in that job have those abilities.

6.3. The Ability - Job Fit

Our concern is with explaining and predicting the behavior of people at work. In this section, we have demonstrated that jobs make differing demands on people and that people differ in the abilities they possess. Employee performance, therefore, is enhanced when there is a high ability-job fit.

The specific intellectual or physical abilities required for adequate job performance depend on the ability requirements of the job. Directing attention at only the employee's abilities or the ability requirements of the job ignores that employee performance depends on the interaction of the two.

TABLE 6. Nine Basic Physical Abilities

Strength Factors	
1 Dynamic strength	Ability to exert muscular force repeatedly or continuously over time
2 Trunk strength	Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk (particularly abdominal) muscles
3 Static strength	Ability to exert force against external objects
4 Explosive strength	Ability to expend a maximum of energy in one or a series of explosive acts

Flexibility Factors	
5 Extent flexibility	Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible
6 Dynamic flexibility	Ability to make rapid, repeated flexing movements

Other Factors	
7 Body coordination	Ability to coordinate the simultaneous actions of different parts of the body
8 Balance	Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance
9 Stamina	Ability to continue maximum effort requiring prolonged effort other time

What predictions can we make when the fit is poor? As alluded to previously, if employees lack the required abilities, they are likely to fail. If you're hired as a word processor and you can't meet the job's basic keyboard typing requirements, your performance is going to be poor irrespective of your positive attitude or your high level of motivation. When the ability-job fit is out of sync because the employee has abilities that far exceed the requirements of the job, our predictions would be very different. Job performance is likely to be adequate, but there will be organizational inefficiencies and possible declines in employee satisfaction. Given that pay tends to reflect the highest skill level that employees possess, if an employee's abilities far exceed those necessary to do the job, management will be paying more than it needs to. Abilities significantly above those required can also reduce the employee's job satisfaction when the employee's desire to use his or her abilities is particularly strong and is frustrated by the limitations of the job.

7. PERSONALITY

Why are some people quiet and passive, while others are loud and aggressive? Are certain personality types better adapted for certain job types? What do we know from theories of personality that can help us to explain and predict the behavior of individuals in organizations? In this section, we will attempt to answer such questions.

7.1. What Is Personality?

When we talk of personality, we do not mean that a person has charm, a positive attitude toward life, a smiling face, or is a finalist for “Happiest and Friendliest” in this year’s Miss America contest. When psychologists talk of personality, they mean a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person’s whole psychological system. Rather than looking at parts of the person, personality looks at some aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of the parts.

The most frequently used definition of personality was produced by Gordon Allport more than fifty years ago. He said personality is “the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.” For our purposes, you should think of **personality** as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. This is most often described in terms of measurable personality traits that a person exhibits.

7.2. Personality Determinants

An early argument in personality research was whether an individual’s personality was the result of heredity or environment. Was the personality predetermined at birth, or was it the result of the individual’s interaction with his or her environment? Clearly, there is no simple black-and-white answer. Personality appears to be a result of both influences. Additionally, there has recently been an increased interest in a third factor—the situation. Thus, an adult’s personality is now generally considered to be made up of both hereditary and environmental factors, moderated by situational conditions.

HEREDITY Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are generally considered to be either completely or substantially influenced by who your parents were; that is, by their biological, physiological, and inherent psychological make-up. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual’s personality is the

molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes. "In fact, much of the early work in personality could be subsumed under the series: Heredity is transmitted through the genes; the genes determine the hormone balance; hormone balance determines physique; and physique shapes personality."

The heredity argument can be used to explain why Veronica's nose looks like her father's or why her chin resembles her mother's. It may explain why Diane is a gifted athlete when both her parents were similarly gifted. More controversy would surround the conclusion, by those who advocate the heredity approach, that Michael is lethargic as a result of inheriting this characteristic from his parents.

If all personality characteristics were completely dictated by heredity, they would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience could alter them. If you were relaxed and easygoing as a child, for example, that would be the result of your genes, and it would not be possible for you to change these characteristics. While this approach may be appealing to the bigots of the world, it is an inadequate explanation of personality.

ENVIRONMENT Among the factors that exert pressures on our personality formation are the culture in which we are raised, our early conditioning, the norms among our family, friends, and social groups, and other influences that we experience. The environment we are exposed to plays a critical role in shaping our personalities.

For example, culture establishes the norms, attitudes, and values that are passed along from one generation to the next and create consistencies over time. An ideology that is intensely fostered in one culture may have only moderate influence in another. For instance, North Americans have had the themes of industriousness, success, competition, independence, and the Protestant work ethic constantly instilled in them through books, the school system, family, and friends. North Americans, as a result, tend to be ambitious and aggressive relative to individuals raised in cultures that have emphasized getting along with others, cooperation, and the priority of family over work and career.

An interesting area of research linking environmental factors and personality has focused on the influence of birth order. It has been argued that sibling position is an important psychological variable "because it represents a microcosm of the significant social experiences of adolescence and adulthood." Those who see birth order as a predictive variable propose that while personality differences between children are frequently attributed to heredity, the environment in which the children are raised is really the critical factor that creates the differences. And the environment that a firstborn child is exposed to is different from that of later-born children.

The research indicates that firstborns are more prone to schizophrenia, more susceptible to social pressure, and more dependent than the laterborn. The firstborn are also more likely to experience the world

as more orderly, predictable, and rational than later-born children. Of course, there is much debate as to the differing characteristics of first versus later-born children, but the evidence does indicate that firstborns are “more concerned with social acceptance and rejection, less likely to break the rules imposed by authority, more ambitious and hard-working, more cooperative, more prone to guilt and anxiety, and less openly aggressive.”

Careful consideration of the arguments favoring either heredity or environment as the primary determinant of personality forces the conclusion that both are important. Heredity sets the parameters or outer limits, but an individual's full potential will be determined by how well he or she adjusts to the demands and requirements of the environment.

SITUATION A third factor, the situation, influences the effects of heredity and environment on personality. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The different demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality. We should not, therefore, look at personality patterns in isolation.

While it seems only logical to suppose that situations will influence an individual's personality, a neat classification scheme that would tell us the impact of various types of situations has so far eluded us. “Apparently we are not yet close to developing a system for clarifying situations so that they might be systematically studied.” However, we do know that certain situations are more relevant than others in influencing personality.

What is of interest taxonomically is that situations seem to differ substantially in the constraints they impose on behavior, with some situations — e.g. church, an employment interview — constraining many behaviors and others — e.g. a picnic in a public park — constraining relatively few.

Furthermore, although certain generalizations can be made about personality, there are significant individual differences. As we shall see, the study of individual differences has come to receive greater emphasis in personality research, which originally sought out more general, universal patterns.

7.3. Personality Traits

The early work in the structure of personality revolved around attempts to identify and label enduring characteristics that describe an individual's behavior. Popular characteristics include shy, aggressive, submissive, lazy, ambitious, loyal, and timid. These characteristics, when they are exhibited in a large number of situations, are called **personality traits**. The more consistent the characteristic and the more frequently it occurs in diverse situations, the more important that trait is in describing the individual.

Efforts to isolate traits have been hindered because there are so many of them. In one study, 17,953 individual traits were identified. It is virtually impossible to predict behavior when such a large number of traits must be taken into account. As a result, attention has been directed toward reducing these thousands to a more manageable number.

TABLE 7. Sixteen Primary Traits

1. Reserved	vs.	Outgoing
2. Less intelligent	vs.	More intelligent
3. Affected by feelings	vs.	Emotionally stable
4. Submissive	vs.	Dominant
5. Serious	vs.	Happy-go-lucky
6. Expedient	vs.	Conscientious
7. Timid	vs.	Venturesome
8. Tough-minded	vs.	Sensitive
9. Trusting	vs.	Suspicious
10. Practical	vs.	Imaginative
11. Forthright	vs.	Shrewd
12. Self-assured	vs.	Apprehensive
13. Conservative	vs.	Experimenting
14. Group-dependent	vs.	Self-sufficient
15. Uncontrolled	vs.	Controlled
16. Relaxed	vs.	Tense

One researcher isolated 171 traits but concluded that they were superficial and lacking in descriptive power. What he sought was a reduced set of traits that would identify underlying patterns. The result was the identification of sixteen personality factors, which he called the *source or primary traits*. They are shown in Table 7. These sixteen traits have been found to be generally steady and constant sources of behavior, allowing prediction of an individual’s behavior in specific situations by weighing the characteristics for their situational relevance.

Traits can additionally be grouped to form personality types. Instead of looking at specific characteristics, we can group those qualities that go together into a single category. For example, ambition and aggression tend to be highly correlated. Efforts to reduce the number of traits into common groups tend to isolate introversion – extroversion and something approximating high anxiety-low anxiety as the underlying interconnecting characteristics. As depicted in Figure 8, these dimensions suggest four personality types. For example, an individual with high anxiety and

extroversion would be tense, excitable, unstable, warm, sociable, and dependent.

Should you put a lot of weight on personality traits as explanatory devices or predictors of employee behavior across a broad spectrum of situations? Probably not! This is because traits ignore situational contexts. They are not contingency-oriented and, therefore, largely ignore the dynamic interchange that occurs between an individual's personality and his or her environment. As a result, personality traits tend to be most valuable as predictors with individuals who hold a trait at its extreme. We might be able to predict some common behaviors among *extreme* extroverts or individuals who are *highly* anxious. But since the majority of people are in the vast middle range on most trait characteristics, personality traits must be considered in their situational context.

Figure 8

		High anxiety	Low anxiety
Extrovert	Introvert	Tense, exciliable, instable, warm, sociable, and dependent	Composed, confident, trustful, adaptable, warm, sociable, and dependent
		Tense, excitable, unstable, cold, and shy	Composed, confident, trustful, adaptable, calm, cold, and shy

7.4. Major Personality Attributes Influencing OB

A number of specific personality attributes have been isolated as having potential for predicting behavior in organizations. The first of these is related to where one perceives the locus of control in one's life. The others are achievement orientation, authoritarianism, Machiavellianism, self-esteem, self-monitoring, and propensity for risk-taking. In this section, we shall briefly introduce these attributes and summarize what we know about their ability to explain and predict employee behavior.

LOCUS OF CONTROL Some people believe that they are masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. The first type, those who believe that they control their destinies, have been labeled

internals, whereas the latter, who see their lives as being controlled by outside forces, have been called **externals**.

A large amount of research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting, and are less involved on their jobs than are internals.

Why are externals more dissatisfied? The answer is probably because they perceive themselves as having little control over those organizational outcomes that are important to them. Internals, facing the same situation, attribute organizational outcomes to their own actions. If the situation is unattractive, they believe that they have no one else to blame but themselves. Also, the dissatisfied internal is more likely to quit a dissatisfying job.

The impact of **locus of control** on absence is an interesting one. Internals believe that health is substantially under their own control through proper habits, so they take more responsibility for their health and have better health habits. This leads to lower incidences of sickness and, hence, lower absenteeism.

We shouldn't expect any clear relationship between locus of control and turnover. The reason is that there are opposing forces at work. "On the one hand, internals tend to take action and thus might be expected to quit jobs more readily. On the other hand, they tend to be more successful on the job and more satisfied, factors associated with less individual turnover."

The overall evidence indicates that internals generally perform better on their jobs, but that conclusion should be moderated to reflect differences in jobs. Internals search more actively for information before making a decision, are more motivated to achieve, and make a greater attempt to control their environment. Externals, however, are more compliant and willing to follow directions. Therefore, internals do well on sophisticated tasks—which includes most managerial and professional jobs—that require complex information processing and learning. Additionally, internals are more suited to jobs that require initiative and independence of action. In contrast, externals should do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and where success depends heavily on complying with the direction of others.

ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION We have noted that internals are motivated to achieve. This achievement orientation has also been singled out as a personality characteristic that varies among employees and that can be used to predict certain behaviors.

Research has centered around the need to achieve (**nAch**). People with a high need to achieve can be described as continually striving to do things better. They want to overcome obstacles, but they want to feel that their success (or failure) is due to their own actions. This means they like tasks of intermediate difficulty. If a task is very easy, it will lack challenge. High achievers receive no feeling of accomplishment from doing tasks that

fail to challenge their abilities. Similarly, they avoid tasks that are so difficult that the probability of success is very low and where, even if they do succeed, it is more apt to be due to luck than to ability. Given the high achiever's propensity for tasks where the outcome can be attributed directly to his or her efforts, the high-*nAch* person looks for challenges having approximately a fifty-fifty chance of success.

What can we say about high achievers on the job? In jobs that provide intermediate difficulty, rapid performance feedback, and allow the employee control over his or her results, the high-*nAch* individual will perform well. This implies that high achievers will do better in sales, professional sports, or in management than on an assembly line or in clerical tasks. That is, those individuals with a high-*nAch* will not always outperform those who are low or intermediate in this characteristic. The tasks that high achievers undertake must provide the challenge, feedback, and responsibility they look for if the high-*nAch* personality is to be positively related to job performance.

AUTHORITARIANISM There is evidence that there is such a thing as an authoritarian personality, but its relevance to job behavior is more speculation than fact. With that qualification, let us examine authoritarianism and consider how it might be related to employee performance.

Authoritarianism refers to a belief that there should be status and power differences among people in organizations. The extremely high-authoritarian personality is intellectually rigid, judgmental of others, deferential to those above and exploitative of those below, distrustful, and resistant to change. Of course, few people are extreme authoritarians, so conclusions must be guarded. It seems reasonable to postulate, however, that possessing a high-authoritarian personality would be related negatively to performance where the job demands sensitivity to the feelings of others, tact, and the ability to adapt to complex and changing situations. On the other hand, where jobs are highly structured and success depends on close conformance to rules and regulations, the high-authoritarian employee should perform quite well.

MACHIAVELLIANISM Closely related to authoritarianism is the characteristic of **Machiavellianism** (Mach), named after Niccolo Machiavelli, who wrote in the sixteenth century on how to gain and manipulate power. An individual high in Machiavellianism is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance, and believes that ends can justify means. "If it works, use it" is consistent with a high-Mach perspective.

A considerable amount of research has been directed toward relating high and low-Mach personalities to certain behavioral outcomes. High-Machs manipulate more, win more, are persuaded less, and persuade others more than do low-Machs. Yet these high-Mach outcomes are moderated by situational factors. It has been found that high-Machs flourish (1) when they interact face-to-face with others rather than indirectly; (2) when the situation

has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation; and (3) where emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts low-Machs.

Should we conclude that high-Machs make good employees? That answer depends on the type of job and whether you consider ethical implications in evaluating performance. In jobs that require bargaining skills (such as labor negotiation) or where there are substantial rewards for winning (as in commissioned sales), high-Machs will be productive. But if ends can't justify the means, if there are *absolute* standards of behavior, or if the three situational factors noted in the previous paragraph are not in evidence, our ability to predict a high-Mach's performance will be severely curtailed.

SELF-ESTEEM People differ in the degree to which they like or dislike themselves. This trait is called **self-esteem**.

The research on self-esteem (SE) offers some interesting insights into organizational behavior. For example, self-esteem is directly related to expectations for success. High-SEs believe that they possess more of the ability they need in order to succeed at work. Individuals with high SEs will take more risks in job selection and are more likely to choose unconventional jobs than people with low SEs.

The most generalizable finding on self-esteem is that low-SEs are more susceptible to external influence than are high-SEs. Low-SEs are dependent on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result, they are more likely to seek approval from others and more prone to conform to the beliefs and behaviors of those they respect than are high-SEs. In managerial positions, low-SEs will tend to be concerned with pleasing others and, therefore, are less likely to take unpopular stands than are high-SEs.

Not surprisingly, self-esteem has also been found to be related to job satisfaction. A number of studies confirm that high-SEs are more satisfied with their jobs than low-SEs.

SELF-MONITORING Another personality trait that has recently received increased attention is called **self-monitoring**. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational factors.

Individuals high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behavior to external situational factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. High self-monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public persona and their private self. Low self-monitors can't disguise themselves this way. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation; hence, there is high behavioral consistency between who they are and what they do.

The research on self-monitoring is in its infancy, so predictions must be guarded. However, preliminary evidence suggests that high self-monitors

tend to pay closer attention to the behavior of others and are more capable of conforming than are low self-monitors. We might also hypothesize that high self-monitors will be more successful in managerial positions where individuals are required to play multiple, and even contradicting, roles. The high self-monitor is capable of putting on different “faces” for different audiences.

RISK-TAKING People differ in their willingness to take chances. This propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice. For instance, seventy-nine managers worked on simulated personnel exercises that required them to make hiring decisions. High-risk-taking managers made more rapid decisions and used less information in making their choices than did the low-risk-taking managers. Interestingly, the decision accuracy was the same for both groups.

While it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organizations are risk-averse, there are still individual differences on this dimension. As a result, it makes sense to recognize these differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands. For instance, a high-risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm because this type of job demands rapid decision making. On the other hand, this personality characteristic might prove a major obstacle to accountants performing auditing activities. The latter job I might be better filled by someone with a low-risk-taking propensity.

7.5. Matching Personalities and Jobs

In the previous discussion of personality attributes, our conclusions were often qualified to recognize that the requirements of the job moderated the relationship between possession of the personality characteristic and job performance. This concern with matching the job requirements with personality characteristics has recently received increased attention. It is best articulated in John Holland’s personality-job fit theory. The theory is based on the notion of fit between a person’s personality characteristics and his or her occupational environment. Holland presents six personality types and proposes that satisfaction and the propensity to leave a job depend on the degree to which individuals successfully match their personalities to a congruent occupational environment.

Each one of the six personality types has a congruent occupational environment. Table 9 describes the six types and their personality characteristics, and gives examples of congruent occupations.

TABLE 9. Holland's Typology of Personality and Congruent Occupations

Type	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
<i>Realistic</i> : Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength, and coordination	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer
<i>Investigative</i> : Prefers activities that involve thinking, organizing, and understanding	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter
<i>Social</i> : Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologist
<i>Conventional</i> : Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities	Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, inflexible	Accountant, corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk
<i>Enterprising</i> : Prefers verbal activities where there are opportunities to influence others and attain power	Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering	Lawyer, real estate agent, public relations specialist, small-business manager
<i>Artistic</i> : Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator

Holland has developed a Vocational Preference Inventory questionnaire that contains 160 occupational titles. Respondents indicate which of these occupations they like or dislike, and these answers are used to form personality profiles. Utilizing this procedure, research strongly supports the hexagonal diagram in Figure 10. This figure shows that the closer two fields or orientations are in the hexagon, the more compatible they are. Adjacent categories are quite similar, while those diagonally opposite are highly dissimilar.

What does all this mean? The theory argues that satisfaction is highest and turnover lowest where personality and occupation are in agreement. Social individuals should be in social jobs, conventional people in conventional jobs, and so forth. A realistic person in a realistic job is in a more congruent situation than is a realistic person in an investigative job. A realistic person in a social job is in the most incongruent situation possible. The key points of this model are that (1) there do appear to be intrinsic differences in personality among individuals, (2) there are different types of jobs, and (3) people in job

environments congruent with their personality types should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than should people in incongruent jobs.

8. LEARNING

The last topic we will introduce in this chapter is learning. It is included for the obvious reason that almost all complex behavior is learned. If we want to explain and predict behavior, we need to understand how people learn.

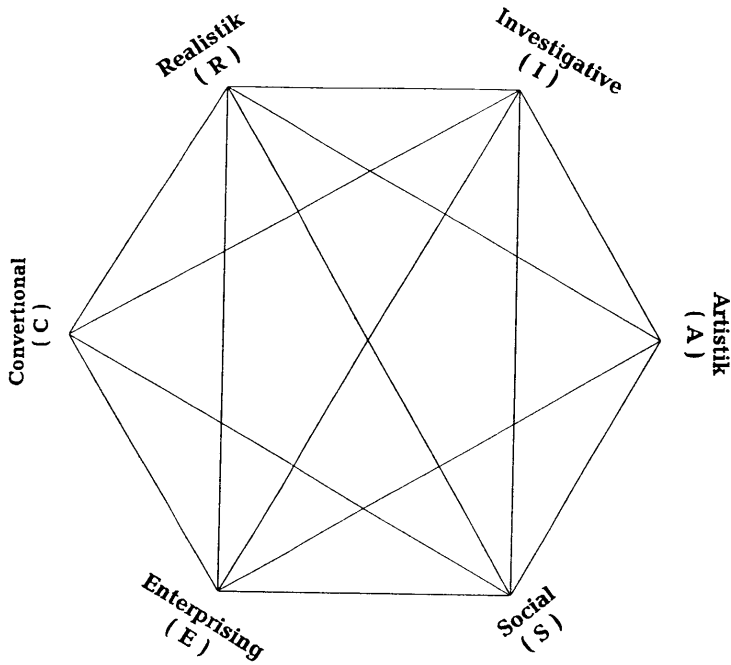
8.1. A Definition of Learning

What is **learning**? A psychologist's definition is considerably broader than the layperson's view that "it's what we did when we went to school." In actuality, each of us is continuously going "to school." Learning occurs all of the time. A generally accepted definition of learning is, therefore, *any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience*. Ironically, we can say that changes in behavior indicate that learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behavior.

Obviously, the foregoing definition suggests that we shall never see someone "learning". We can see changes taking place, but not the learning itself. The concept is theoretical and, hence, not directly observable:

You have seen people in the process of learning, you have seen people who behave in a particular way as a result of learning and some of you (in fact, I guess the majority of you) have "learned" at some time in your life. In other words, we infer that learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved.

FIGURE 10. Relationships Among Occupational Personality Types



Our definition has several components that deserve clarification. First, learning involves change. This may be good or bad from an organizational point of view. People can learn unfavorable behaviors — to hold prejudices or to restrict their output, for example—as well as favorable behaviors. Second, the change must be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and fail to represent any learning. Therefore, this requirement rules out behavioral changes caused by fatigue or temporary adaptations. Third, our definition is concerned with behavior. Learning takes place where there is a change in actions. A change in an individual's thought processes or attitudes, if accompanied by no change in behavior, would not be learning. Finally, some form of experience is necessary for learning. This may be acquired directly through observation or practice. Or it may result from an indirect experience, such as that acquired through reading. The crucial test still remains. Does this experience result in a relatively permanent change in behavior". If the answer is "Yes," we can say that learning has taken place.

8.2. Theories of Learning

How do we learn? Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behavior. These are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning

CLASSICAL CONDITIONING **Classical conditioning** grew out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell, conducted at the turn of the century by a Russian physiologist, Ivan Pavlov.

A simple surgical procedure allowed Pavlov to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog. When Pavlov presented the dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and merely rang a bell, the dog had no salivation. Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered. In effect, the dog had learned to respond — that is, to salivate — to the bell. Let's review this experiment to introduce the key concepts in classical conditioning.

The meat was an *unconditioned stimulus*, it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way. The reaction that took place whenever the unconditioned stimulus occurred was called the *unconditioned response* (or the noticeable increase in salivation, in this case). The bell was an artificial stimulus, or what we call the *conditioned stimulus*. While it was originally neutral, after the bell was paired with the meat (an unconditioned stimulus), it eventually produced a response when presented alone. The last key concept is the *conditioned response*. This describes the behavior of the dog salivating in reaction to the bell alone.

Using these concepts, we can summarize classical conditioning. Essentially, learning a conditioned response involves building up an association between a conditioned stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus. Using the paired stimuli, one compelling and the other one neutral, the neutral one becomes a conditioned stimulus and, hence, takes on the properties of the unconditioned stimulus.

Classical conditioning can be used to explain why Christmas carols often bring back pleasant memories of childhood — the songs being associated with the festive Christmas spirit and initiating fond memories and feelings of euphoria. In an organizational setting, we can also see classical conditioning operating. For example, at one manufacturing plant, every time the top executives from the head office were scheduled to make a visit, the plant management would clean up the administrative offices and wash the windows. This went on for years. Eventually, employees would turn on their best behavior and look prim and proper whenever the windows were cleaned—even in those occasional instances when the cleaning was not

paired with the visit from the top brass. People had learned to associate the cleaning of the windows with the visit from the head office.

Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific way. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such it can explain simple reflexive behaviors. But most behavior — particularly the complex behavior of individuals in organizations — is emitted rather than elicited. It is voluntary rather than reflexive. For example, employees choose to arrive at work on time, ask their boss for help with problems, or “goof off” when no one is watching. The learning of these behaviors is better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

OPERANT CONDITIONING **Operant conditioning** argues that behavior is a function of its consequences. People learn to behave to get something they want or avoid something they don't want. Operant behavior means voluntary or learned behavior in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behavior. The tendency to repeat such behavior is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behavior. Reinforcement, therefore, strengthens a behavior and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the late Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did for operant conditioning. Building on earlier work in the field, Skinner's research extensively expanded our knowledge of operant conditioning. Even his staunchest critics, who represent a sizable group, admit that his operant concepts work.

Behavior is assumed to be determined from without—that is, learned— rather than from within—reflexive or unlearned. Skinner argued that by creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behavior, the frequency of that behavior will increase. People will most likely engage in desired behaviors if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards, for example, are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. Additionally, behavior that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated.

You see illustrations of operant conditioning everywhere. For example, any situation in which it is either explicitly stated or implicitly suggested that reinforcements are contingent on some action on your part involves the use of operant learning. Your instructor says that if you want a high grade in the course you must supply correct answers on the test. A commissioned salesperson wanting to earn a sizable income finds that this is contingent on generating high sales in her territory. Of course, the linkage can also work to teach the individual to engage in behaviors that work against the best interests of the organization. Assume your boss tells you that if you will work overtime during the next three-week busy season, you will be compensated for it at the next performance appraisal. However, when performance appraisal time comes, you find that you are given no positive reinforcement

for your overtime work. The next time your boss asks you to work overtime, what will you do? You will probably decline! Your behavior can be explained by operant conditioning: If a behavior fails to be positively reinforced, the probability that the behavior will be repeated declines.

SOCIAL LEARNING Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences. So, for example, much of what we have learned comes from watching models—parents, teachers, peers, motion picture and television performers, bosses, and so forth. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience has been called **social-learning theory**.

While social-learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning—that is, it assumes that behavior is a function of consequences — it also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning. People respond to how they perceive and define consequences, not to the objective consequences themselves.

The influence of models is central to the social-learning viewpoint. Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. As we show later in this chapter, the inclusion of the following processes when management sets up employee training programs will significantly improve the likelihood that the programs will be successful:

1. *Attentional processes*. People only learn from a model when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us, or similar to us in our estimation.
2. *Retention processes*. A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.
3. *Motor reproduction processes*. After a person has seen a new behavior by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.
4. *Reinforcement processes*. Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviors that are reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

8.3. Shaping: A Managerial Tool

Because learning takes place on the job as well as prior to it, managers will be concerned with how they can teach employees to behave in ways that most benefit the organization. When we attempt to mold individuals by guiding their learning in graduated steps, we are **shaping behavior**.

Consider the situation in which an employee's behavior is significantly different from that sought by management. If management only reinforced the individual when he or she showed desirable responses, there might be very little reinforcement taking place. In such a case, shaping offers a logical approach toward achieving the desired behavior.

We *shape* behavior by systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves the individual closer to the desired response. If an employee who has chronically been a half-hour late for work comes in only twenty minutes late, we can reinforce this improvement. Reinforcement would increase as responses more closely approximate the desired behavior.

METHODS OF SHAPING BEHAVIOR There are four ways in which to shape behavior: through positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment, and extinction.

When a response is followed with something pleasant, it is called *positive reinforcement*. This would describe, for instance, the boss who praises an employee for a job well done. When a response is followed by the termination or withdrawal of something unpleasant, it is called *negative reinforcement*. If your college instructor asks a question and you don't know the answer, looking through your lecture notes is likely to preclude your being called on. This is a negative reinforcement because you have learned that looking busily through your notes prevents the instructor from calling on you. *Punishment* is causing an unpleasant condition in an attempt to eliminate an undesirable behavior. Giving an employee a two-day suspension from work without pay for showing up drunk is an example of punishment. Eliminating any reinforcement that is maintaining a behavior is called *extinction*. When the behavior is not reinforced, it tends to gradually be extinguished. College instructors who wish to discourage students from asking questions in class can eliminate this behavior in their students by ignoring those who raise their hands to ask questions. Hand-raising will become extinct when it is invariably met with an absence of reinforcement.

Both positive and negative reinforcement result in learning. They strengthen a response and increase the probability of repetition. In the preceding illustrations, praise strengthens and increases the behavior of doing a good job because praise is desired. The behavior of "looking busy" is similarly strengthened and increased by its terminating the undesirable consequence of being called on by the teacher. Both punishment and extinction, however, weaken behavior and tend to decrease its subsequent frequency.

Reinforcement, whether it is positive or negative, has an impressive record as a shaping tool. Our interest, therefore, is in reinforcement rather than in punishment or extinction. A review of research findings on the impact of reinforcement upon behavior in organizations concluded that

1. Some type of reinforcement is necessary to produce a change in behavior.
 2. Some types of rewards are more effective for use in organizations than others.
 3. The speed with which learning takes place and the permanence of its effects will be determined by the timing of reinforcement.
- Point 3 is extremely important and deserves considerable elaboration.

SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT The two major types of reinforcement schedules are *continuous* and *intermittent*. A **continuous reinforcement** schedule reinforces the desired behavior each and every time it is demonstrated. For example, in the case of someone who has historically had trouble arriving at work on time, every time he is *not* tardy his manager might compliment him on his desirable behavior. In an intermittent schedule, on the other hand, not every instance of the desirable behavior is reinforced but reinforcement is given often enough to make the behavior worth repeating. This latter schedule can be compared to the workings of a slot machine, which people will continue to play even when they know that it is adjusted to give a considerable return to the gambling house. The intermittent payoffs occur just often enough to reinforce the behavior of slipping in coins and pulling the handle. Evidence indicates that the intermittent or varied form of reinforcement tends to promote more resistance to extinction than does the continuous form.

An **intermittent reinforcement** can be of a ratio or interval type. Ratio schedules depend upon how many responses the subject makes. The individual is reinforced after giving a certain number of specific types of behavior. Interval schedules depend upon how much time has passed since the last reinforcement. With interval schedules, the individual is reinforced on the first appropriate behavior after a particular time has elapsed. A reinforcement can also be classified as fixed or variable. Intermittent techniques for administering rewards can, therefore, be placed into four categories, as shown in Figure 11.

When rewards are spaced at uniform time intervals, the reinforcement schedule is of the **fixed-interval** type. The critical variable is time, and it is held constant. This is the predominant schedule for almost all salaried workers in North America. When you get your paycheck on a weekly, semimonthly, monthly, or other predetermined time basis, you are rewarded on a fixed-interval reinforcement schedule.

If rewards are distributed in time so that reinforcements are unpredictable, the schedule is of the **variable-interval** type. When an instructor advises her class that there will be a number of pop quizzes given during the term (the exact number of which is unknown to the students), and the quizzes will account for twenty percent of the term grade, she is using

such a variable-interval schedule. Similarly, a series of randomly timed unannounced visits to a company office by the corporate audit staff is an example of a variable-interval schedule.

In a **fixed-ratio** schedule, after a fixed or constant number of responses are given, a reward is initiated. For example, a piece-rate incentive plan is a fixed-ratio schedule—the employee receives a reward based on the number of work pieces generated. If the piece rate for a zipper installer in a dressmaking factory is \$5.00 a dozen, the reinforcement (money in this case) is fixed to the number of zippers sewn into garments. After every dozen is sewn in, the installer has earned another \$5.00.

When the reward varies relative to the behavior of the individual, he or she is said to be reinforced on a **variable-ratio** schedule. Salespeople on commission are examples of individuals on such a reinforcement schedule. On some occasions, they may make a sale after only two calls on potential customers. On other occasions, they might need to make twenty or more calls to secure a sale. The reward, then, is variable in relation to the number of successful calls the salesperson makes. Figure 12 visually depicts the four categories of intermittent schedules.

FIGURE 11

	Interval	Ratio
Fixed	Fixed-interval	Fixed-ratio
Variable	Variable-interval	Variable-ratio

REINFORCEMENT SCHEDULES AND BEHAVIOR

Continuous reinforcement schedules can lead to early satiation, and under this schedule behavior tends to weaken rapidly when reinforcers are withheld. However, continuous reinforcers are appropriate for newly emitted, unstable, or low-frequency responses. In contrast, intermittent reinforcers preclude early satiation because they don't follow every response. They are appropriate for stable or high-frequency responses.

In general, variable schedules tend to lead to higher performance than fixed schedules. For example, as noted previously, most employees in

organizations are paid on fixed-interval schedules. But such a schedule does not clearly link performance and rewards. The reward is given for time spent on the job rather than for a specific response (performance). In contrast, variable-interval schedules generate high rates of response and more stable and consistent behavior because of a high-correlation between performance and reward and because of the uncertainty involved—the employee tends to be more alert since there is a surprise factor.

8.4. Some Specific Organizational Applications

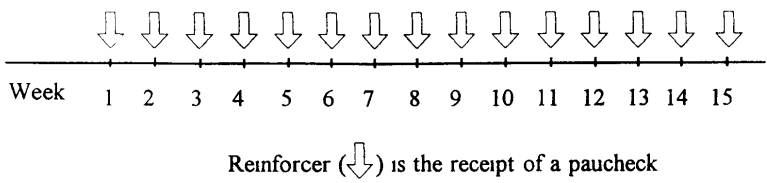
We have alluded to a number of situations where learning theory could be helpful to managers. In this section, we will briefly look at five specific applications: reducing absenteeism through the use of lotteries, substituting well pay for sick pay, disciplining problem employees, developing effective employee training programs, and creating mentoring programs for new employees.

USING LOTTERIES TO REDUCE ABSENTEEISM Management can design programs to reduce absenteeism utilizing learning theory. For example New York Life Insurance Co created a lottery that rewarded employees for attendance. Each quarter the names of all those headquarters employees with no absences are placed in a drum. In a typical quarter, about four thousand of the company's seventy-five hundred employees have their names placed in the drum. The first ten names pulled earn a \$200 bond, the next twenty earn a \$100 bond, and seventy more receive a paid day off. At the end of the year, another lottery is held for those with twelve months of perfect attendance. Twelve prizes are awarded — two employees receive \$1000 bonds and ten more earn five days off with pay.

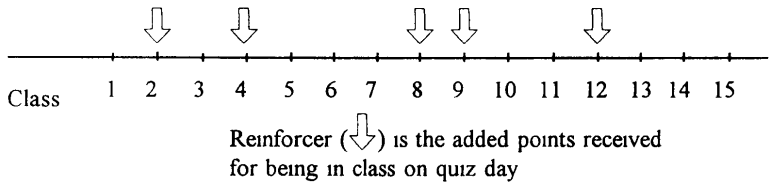
This lottery follows a variable-ratio schedule. A good attendance record increases an employee's probability of winning, yet having perfect attendance is no assurance that an employee will be rewarded by winning one of the prizes. Consistent with the research on reinforcement schedules, this lottery resulted in lower absence rates. In its first ten months of operation, for instance, absenteeism was twenty-one percent lower than for the comparable period in the preceding year.

FIGURE 12

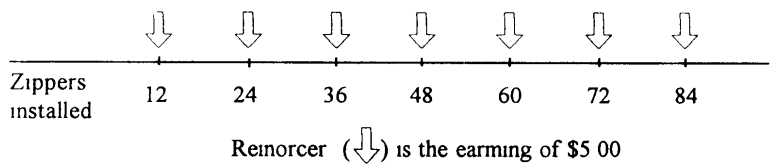
Fixed-interval Schedule Employees' receipt of weekly paycheck



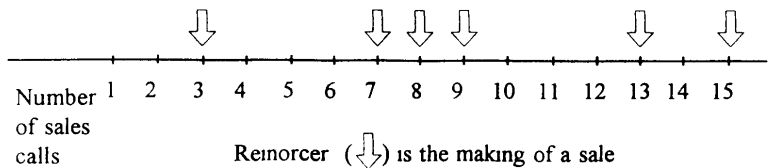
Werable-interval Schedule Pop quizzes in a classroom



Fixed-ratio Schedule Piece-rate plan for zipper installers



Variable-ratio Schedule Commissioned salespeople



WELL PAY VS SICK PAY Most organizations provide their salaried employees with paid sick leave as part of the employee's fringe benefit program. But ironically, organizations with paid sick leave programs experience almost twice the absenteeism of organizations without such programs. The reality is that sick leave reinforces the wrong behavior absence from work. Organizations should have programs that encourage employees to be on the job by discouraging unnecessary absences. When employees receive ten paid sick days a year, it is the unusual employee who isn't sure to use them all up, regardless of whether or not he or she is sick. This suggests that organizations should reward attendance, not absence. As a case in point, one. Midwest organization implemented a well-pay program that paid a bonus to employees who had no absence for any given four-week period and then only paid for sick leave after the first eight hours of absence. Evaluation of the well-pay program found that it produced increased savings to the organization, reduced absenteeism, increased productivity, and improved employee satisfaction

EMPLOYEE DISCIPLINE Every manager will, at some time, have to deal with an employee who drinks on the job, is insubordinate, steals company property, arrives consistently late for work, or engages in similar problem behaviors. Managers will respond with disciplinary actions such as oral reprimands, written warnings, and temporary suspensions. Research on discipline shows that the manager should act immediately to correct the problem, match the severity of the punishment to the severity of the "crime," and ensure that the employee sees the link between the punishment and the undesirable behavior. But, our knowledge about punishment's effect on behavior indicates that the use of discipline carries costs It may provide only a short-term solution and result in serious side effects.

Disciplining employees for undesirable behaviors only tells them what not to do It doesn't tell them what alternative behaviors are preferred. The result is that this form of punishment frequently leads to only short-term suppression of the undesirable behavior rather than its elimination. Continued use of punishment, rather than positive reinforcement, also tends to produce a conditional fear of the manager. As the punishing agent, the manager becomes associated in the employee's mind with adverse consequences. Employees respond by "hiding" from their boss. Hence, the use of punishment can undermine manager-employee relations. The popularity of discipline undoubtedly lies in its ability to produce fast results in the short run. Managers are reinforced for using discipline because it produces an immediate change in the employee's behavior. But over the long run, when used without positive reinforcement of desirable behaviors, it is likely to lead to employee frustration, fear of the manager, reoccurrences of the problem behaviors, and increases in absenteeism and turnover.

DEVELOPING TRAINING PROGRAMS Most large organizations are actively involved with employee training. Can these organizations draw from our discussion of learning in order to improve the effectiveness of their training programs? Certainly.

Social-learning theory offers such a guide. It tells us that training should offer a model to grab the trainee's attention; provide motivational properties; help the trainee to file away what he or she has learned for later use; provide opportunities to practice new behaviors; offer positive rewards for accomplishments; and, if the training has taken place off the job, allow the trainee some opportunity to transfer what he or she has learned to the job.

CREATING MENTORING PROGRAMS It's the unusual senior manager who, early in his or her career, didn't have an older, more experienced mentor higher up in the organization. This mentor took the protégé under his or her wing and provided advice and guidance on how to survive and get ahead in the organization. Mentoring, of course, is not limited to the managerial ranks. Union apprenticeship programs, for example, do the same thing by preparing individuals to move from unskilled apprentice status to that of skilled journeyman. A young electrician apprentice typically works under an experienced electrician for several years to develop the full range of skills necessary to effectively execute his or her job.

A successful mentoring program will be built on modeling concepts from social-learning theory. That is, a mentor's impact comes from more than merely what he or she explicitly tells a protégé. Mentors are role models. Protégés learn to convey the attitudes and behaviors that the organization wants by emulating the traits and actions of their mentors. They observe and then imitate. Top managers who are concerned with developing employees who will fit into the organization and with preparing young managerial talent for greater responsibilities should give careful attention to who takes on mentoring roles. The creating of formal mentoring programs—where young individuals are officially assigned a mentor—allows senior executives to manage the process and increases the likelihood that protégés will be molded the way top management desires.

9. IMPLICATIONS FOR PERFORMANCE AND SATISFACTION

Let's try to summarize what we've found in terms of what impact biographical characteristics, ability, personality, and learning have on an employee's performance and satisfaction.

9.1. Biographical Characteristics

Biographical characteristics are readily available to management. For the most part, they represent data that are contained in almost every employee's personnel file.

A review of the research allows some noteworthy conclusions. First, it is difficult to make accurate predictions about an employee's productivity based on biographical data. Perhaps the strongest statement we can make is that the belief that productivity declines with employee age is a myth. However, absence rates, turnover, and job satisfaction are influenced by several biographical characteristics.

The strongest evidence concerns an employee's age and seniority in the organization. Older workers are less likely to resign their jobs. Similarly, tenure is negatively related to both absence and turnover; that is, employees with longer service have better attendance records and are less likely to quit. Moreover, the longer an employee held his or her previous job, the less likely that employee is to quit his or her current job.

Investigation of two other variables—gender and marital status—also produced significant findings. Women demonstrate poorer attendance records than do men. However, this statistic is undoubtedly dated. It tends to reflect the historical role of women in our culture. As more women work and pursue long-term careers in organizations, any difference between males and females in terms of absenteeism will undoubtedly disappear. Finally, the evidence indicates that married employees show greater stability and higher satisfaction than do their single counterparts.

9.2. Ability

Ability directly influences an employee's level of performance and satisfaction through the ability-job fit. Given management's desire to get a compatible fit, what can be done?

First, an effective selection process will improve the fit. A job analysis will provide information about jobs currently being done and the abilities that individuals need to perform the jobs adequately. Applicants can then be tested, interviewed, and evaluated as to the degree to which they possess the necessary abilities. Second, promotion and transfer decisions affecting individuals already in the organization's employment should reflect the abilities of candidates. As with new employees, care should be taken to assess critical abilities that incumbents will need in the job and matching those requirements with the organization's human resources. Third, the fit can be improved by fine-tuning the job to better match an incumbent's abilities. Often modifications can be made in the job that, while not having a significant impact on the job's basic activities, better adapts it to the specific

talents of a given employee. Examples of this are changing some of the equipment used and reorganizing tasks within a group of employees. A final alternative is to provide training for employees. This is applicable to both new workers and present job incumbents. For the latter, training can keep their abilities current or provide new skills as times and conditions change.

9.3. Personality

A review of the personality literature offers general guidelines that can lead to effective job performance. As such, it can improve hiring, transfer, and promotion decisions. Because personality characteristics create the parameters for people's behavior, they give us a framework for predicting behavior. For example, individuals who are shy, introverted, and uncomfortable in social situations would probably be ill-suited as salespeople. Individuals who are submissive and conforming might not be effective as advertising "idea" people.

Can we predict which people will be high performers in sales, research, or assembly-line work based on their personality characteristics alone? The answer is no. But a knowledge of an individual's personality can aid in reducing mismatches, which, in turn, can lead to reduced turnover and higher job satisfaction.

COURSE TASKS

1. Make up a logic scheme of your basic knowledge on unit's theme.

2. SELF - ASSESSMENT:

1. What is the argument in support of the proposition that the world has become a global village?
2. What is the **European Community**? Why was it created?
3. What are **maquiladoras**? What advantages do they provide management?
4. How does American parochialism hinder U.S. companies' effectiveness in international business?
5. Is the variance between national cultures increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same?
6. Why is a country's national culture so hard to identify and understand?
7. What are Americans like?
8. Describe the United States in terms of Americans' relationship to the environment, time orientation, activity orientation, and conception of space.
9. Describe American culture in terms of Hofstede's four major criteria.
10. How could you use Hofstede's research if you, were an American manager transferred to Mexico?
11. In which countries are employees **most** like those in the United States? Least like those in the United States?
12. What is **Culture Shock**? How could you use the four-stage culture-shock model to better understand employee behavior?
13. Which biographical characteristics best predict **productivity**? **Absenteeism**? **Turnover**? **Satisfaction**?
14. Describe the specific steps you would take to ensure that an individual has the appropriate abilities to satisfactorily do a given job.
15. How does **heredity** influence personality? **Environment**? **The Situation**?
16. What constrains the ability of personality traits to precisely predict behavior?
17. What behavioral predictions might you make if you knew that an employee had
 - (a) an external locus of control?
 - (b) a high **nAch**?
 - (c) a low Mach score?
 - (d) low self-esteem?

18. "The type of job an employee does moderates the relationship between personality and job productivity." Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Discuss.
19. One day your boss comes in and he's nervous, edgy, and argumentative. The next day he is calm and relaxed. Does this suggest that personality traits aren't consistent from day to day?
20. How might employees actually learn unethical behavior on their jobs?
21. Contrast classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning.
22. "Managers should never use discipline with a problem employee." Do you agree or disagree? Discuss.
23. Learning theory can be used to **explain** behavior and to **control** behavior. Can you distinguish between the two objectives? Can you give any ethical or moral arguments why managers should not seek control over others' behavior? How valid do you think these arguments are?
24. What have you learned about "learning" that could help you to explain the behavior of students in a classroom if
 - (a) The instructor gives only one test - a final examination at the end of the course?
 - (b) The instructor gives four exams during the term, all of which are announced on the first day of class?
 - (c) The student's grade is based on the results of numerous exams, none of which are announced by the instructor ahead of time?

3. TEST-TRAINING:

1. WHO CONTROLS YOUR LIFE?

Instructions: Read the following statements and indicate whether you agree more with choice A or choice B.

- | A | B |
|--|---|
| 1. Making a lot of money is largely matter of getting the right breakes. | 1. Promotions are earned through hard work and a persistence. — |
| 2. I've noticed that there is usually a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. | 2. Many times the reactions of teachers seem a haphazard to me. — |

- | | | |
|--|--|-----|
| 3. The number of divorces indicates that more people aren't trying to make their marriages work. | 3. Marriage is largely a gamble. | ___ |
| 4. It is silly to think that one can really change another person's basic attitudes. | 4. When I am right I can convince others. | ___ |
| 5. Getting promoted is really a matter of being a little luckier than the next person. | 5. In our society a person's future earning power is dependent upon his or her ability. | ___ |
| 6. If one knows how to deal with people they are really quite easily led. | 6. I have little influence over the way other people behave. | ___ |
| 7. The grades I make are the result of my own efforts; luck has little or nothing to do with. | 7. Sometimes I feel that I have little to do with the grades I get. | ___ |
| 8. People like me can change the course of the world affairs if we make ourselves heard. | 8. It is only wishful thinking to believe that one can readily influence what happens in our society at large. | ___ |
| 9. A great deal that happens to me is probably a matter of chance. | 9. I'm the master of my fate. | ___ |
| 10. Getting along with people is a skill that must be practiced. | 10. It is almost impossible to figure out how please some people. | ___ |

II. HOW SELF-MONITORING ARE YOU?

Instructions: Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false by circling the appropriate number; for example, if a statement is always true, you would circle the 5 next to that statement.

5 = Certainly, always true

4 = Generally true

3 = Somewhat true, but with exceptions

2 = Somewhat false, but with exceptions

1 = Generally false 0 = Certainly, always false

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for. | 5 4 3 2 1 0 |
| 2. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes. | 5 4 3 2 1 0 |
| 3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression I wish to give them. | 5 4 3 2 1 0 |
| 4. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with. | 5 4 3 2 1 0 |

5. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives. 5 4 3 2 1 0
6. I can usually tell when others consider a joke in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly. 5 4 3 2 1 0
7. When I feel that the image I am portraying is not working, I can readily change it to something that does. 5 4 3 2 1 0
8. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading the listener's eyes. 5 4 3 2 1 0
9. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations. 5 4 3 2 1 0
10. I have found that can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in. 5 4 3 2 1 0
11. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression. 5 4 3 2 1 0
12. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front. 5 4 3 2 1 0
13. Once I know what the situation calls for, it is easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly. 5 4 3 2 1 0

ROLE PLAY

PART 1:

CASE INCIDENT

Read the text and prepare to answer the questions.

General Electric in Hungary

Tungsram was, by Hungarian standards, a large and successful manufacturer of light bulbs. In 1989, it held seven percent of the European market and had annual sales of \$300 million. Yet it was hard to see it as a well-run company. For instance, its technologically dated assembly lines broke one out of every four bulbs. Its accounting and control practices looked more like those described in a novel by Charles Dickens than the practices found at most modern North American companies.

Tungsram was founded in 1896. In the early part of this century, the company pioneered the use of tungsten filament, the key element in modern light bulbs, and was on the cutting edge of high technology of the day. But after the World War II, many of Hungary's best scientists fled the country when the communists took control. Over the next four decades, innovation at

Tungsram and other Hungarian companies was trampled in the manic drive to meet the production quotas set out in the government's central plan.

Nevertheless, in January 1990, General Electric bought a controlling interest in Tungsram. GE's motivation? Access to the growing markets in Western and Eastern Europe. The task of converting a formerly state-run enterprise to capitalism is proving a real challenge for GE.

Managers at Tungsram have had no real experience making decisions. Karoly Vigh, for instance, has been with Tungsram for over thirty years and rose to a top management position. Yet he was discouraged from making decisions on his own. Compliance, not initiative, was rewarded by the old regime. After GE took over, Vigh was technical director in the previously neglected environmental division. As he had always done, Vigh waited for instructions from the central planners. But none came. Tentatively, he began making some decisions, but, again as a result of his long experience working in a socialist enterprise, he wanted to tell his boss everything he was doing and get his boss's opinion on everything. What Vigh found out was that his American-trained boss didn't want to baby-sit him. He was told, "If I have to make all the decisions for you, one of us isn't necessary." Vigh's response: Amazement! "So much freedom, so much responsibility. We're not used to this."

One of the more challenging tasks facing GE is overhauling Tungsram's quaint record-keeping system. The introduction of an integrated data communication network capable of linking all of Tungsram's operations locally and throughout Europe has been delayed for a couple of years by a Hungarian phone system that makes calling the United States often easier than calling the other side of Budapest. And computers can only accomplish so much in Hungary. For instance, they can automate the payroll, but human hands are still needed to stuff envelopes with cash because personal banking services are rare.

David Gadra, one of GE's American managers transferred to Hungary, describes his frustration in trying to introduce sophisticated information systems into Tungsram. "Every morning I gather my managers together to see what can be learned from the problems of the previous twenty-four hours. What I often get is an eloquent, detailed description of what went wrong and what the current situation is, but an absolute silence about a plan to go forward to solve it. Day in and day out, you go back to the fundamentals. You keep reinforcing, reinforcing. As in athletics, you keep raising the bar of expectations. Some days you go out and see you can't even match yesterday. So you go back again to the fundamentals. "

QUESTIONS:

1. Does this case suggest that North American business practices are globally transferable? Discuss.
2. How do you think Hungary's culture compares with that of the United States? Be as specific as possible.
3. Contrast the problems of motivating employees in a GE plant in Cleveland, Ohio, with those encountered in a Tungsram plant in Budapest.

PART 2:

SITUATION FOR TUTORIAL

THEME: CULTURE SHOCK: WELCOME TO JAPAN.

TIME: Approximately 40 minutes.

OBJECTIVE: To compare two countries' cultures and to become — more familiar with the concept of culture shock.

Japan is different from the United States. The following facts highlight a few of the differences:

1. Birth control pills are illegal; abortion is legal.
2. There is a ninety-five percent conviction rate for those arrested for major crimes.
3. Japan has one-twentieth the crime rate of the United States.
4. Superiors resign if their subordinates engage in wrongdoing.
5. The Shinto religion has about eighty-thousand gods.
6. Dependency is a sign of health; independence is considered a kind of sickness.
7. Most prime ministers and company presidents are in their sixties and seventies.
8. Bosses often introduce their subordinates to prospective marriage partners.
9. All titles in Japanese companies mean the same thing across companies.
10. Japanese people literally do not know what words to use in a conversation until the hierarchical relationship between the speakers is clarified.
11. Compulsory retirement is often at the age of fifty-five.
12. Japanese people have the longest life expectancy in the world. For women, it is close to eighty years.
13. Taken together, the budgets of Japanese companies for after-work entertainment exceed the nation's defense budget.
14. Most Japanese can't stand American food.
15. Fifteen-hour workdays are common.

16. There are four thousand characters in the average Japanese person's alphabet.

17. Japan is a country of 120 million people on a landmass the size of California.

18. Land in Tokyo sometimes sells for several thousand dollars a square foot.

19. It is not unusual for an employee who works in Tokyo to spend five hours a day commuting to and from work.

20. In large Japanese companies, there are over a million employee suggestions a year for improvement of operations.

21. Japan has more than ten times as many industrial robots in operation as the United States has.

PROCEDURES:

1. After reviewing this list, do you see any major patterns or themes that differentiate Japanese from American culture? If so, what are they?
2. Of the twenty-one "facts", which three shocked you the most? That is, which did you find the most unusual?
3. For each of the facts you found most shocking, why did you think them strange?
4. Form groups of three to five students each and compare your individual assessments. Prepare to discuss with the whole class:
 - a. Themes differentiating the two cultures.
 - b. What difficulties Americans might have adjusting to living and working in Japan.
 - c. What challenges an American might have managing a group of Japanese employees.

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