LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have finished studying the chapter, you should be able to:
1. Explain the basic sources of personality determinants.
2. Identify some personality traits that affect behavior.
3. State how attitudes affect behavior.
4. Indicate how job satisfaction and organizational commitment affect performance.
5. Describe the relationship between individual differences and ethical behavior.

PREVIEW CASE: LARRY ELLISON AT ORACLE COMPUTER

PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS
Heredity
Environment

PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOR
Big Five Personality Factors
Self-Esteem
Competency: Managing Across Cultures—Computex Corporation
Locus of Control
Goal Orientation
Introversion and Extroversion
Organizational Uses
Competency: Managing Teams—Teams at Hewlett-Packard

The Person and the Situation

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR
Components of Attitudes
Links to Behavior

WORK ATTITUDES
Job Satisfaction
Competency: Managing Communication—The Container Store
Organizational Commitment
Competency: Managing Self—Diane Hook at Merck-Medco

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND ETHICAL BEHAVIOR
Types of Management Ethics
Establishing Ethical Attitudes

CHAPTER SUMMARY
Key Terms and Concepts
Discussion Questions

DEVELOPING COMPETENCIES
Competency: Managing Self—Assessing the Big Five
Competency: Managing Self—Emotional IQ
Larry Ellison, founder and CEO of the software company Oracle Computer, has seen his company’s stock price nosedive by 53 percent recently. Oracle has just turned in its worst quarterly results in 10 years. Addressing stockholders in Oracle’s auditorium in Redwood Shores, California, he delivered a 30-minute, profanity-riddled speech in which he attacked his partners, his competitors, the government, and almost everyone in the room. He attacked IBM’s new Unix-based DB2 as a real piece of crap that only Canadian programmers know how to operate, and he reamed Microsoft for breaking the law and designing a “stupid-ass” architecture for its SQL Server database. Although many in the audience applauded, to achieve Ellison’s vision of shoving aside Microsoft as the biggest software company, Oracle must succeed where it has repeatedly failed: in applications software.

For the first time in more than 10 years, Ellison is running Oracle without much input from others. He is famous for firing people because he doesn’t like them. He lost Oracle’s President Raymond Lane and senior executive Gary Bloom recently and refuses to name successors. “It’s a dumb idea,” he says.

Ellison’s outlandish behavior doesn’t foster a lot of loyalty. In fact, many of Silicon Valley’s new CEOs started their career at Oracle and were fired by Ellison. People stay at Oracle because they are paid well and fear recrimination. According to Thomas Siebel, founder of Siebel Systems, “Larry is a control freak. He has a knack for taking the best and the brightest—and then he tries to destroy them.” Ellison’s defectors often end up competing against him, and he likes the challenge. “Larry Ellison is a silver-backed gorilla alpha male,” says his friend and former Oracle employee, David Roux. “He will respond to a direct challenge, but only to a direct challenge.” Ellison likes to compete, rather than collaborate. Oracle is a bully and is proud of it says another competitor. He has always rewarded ruthless behavior. For example, he gave sales bonuses in gold coins when Oracle drove Ingres, Sybase, and others out of business. “When you alienate everybody, you become someone no one wants to play with.” Ellison’s favorite quote is from a Zen proverb: “Your garden is never complete until there is nothing left to take out of it.” To his competitors, this sends a cryptic message: Ellison will not be satisfied until there is no more business to take away from his competitors.

Ellison might be a nightmare to work for, but his methods have created unimaginable wealth for the company’s shareholders, managers, and employees. Since its initial public offering (IPO) in early 1986, Oracle’s share price has risen by more than 1,000 percent. Oracle began with a staff of 3; today, it has more than 40,000 employees throughout the world.
As the Preview Case indicates, people react to how they are treated by others. You might ask yourself whether you would be willing to work for Ellison. Depending on your personality, preferences, and goals, you might answer either yes or no. As an employee and future manager, you must recognize and appreciate individual differences in order to understand and respond appropriately to the behavior of people in organizations.

In Part I of this book we cover individual processes in organizations. We focus first on the individual to help you develop an understanding of organizational behavior. The term individual differences refers to the fact that people vary in many ways. In this chapter, we discuss individual differences in personality and attitudes. We begin by addressing the concept of personality. Later in the chapter, we explore the role of attitudes in organizational behavior.

PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS

Behavior always involves a complex interaction of the person and the situation. Events in the surrounding environment (including the presence and behavior of others) strongly influence the way people behave at any particular time; yet people always bring something of themselves to the situation. This “something,” which represents the unique qualities of the individual, is personality. No single definition of personality is accepted universally. However, one key idea is that personality represents personal characteristics that lead to consistent patterns of behavior. People quite naturally seek to understand these behavioral patterns in interactions with others. Personality represents the overall profile or combination of stable characteristics that capture the unique nature of a person. Therefore personality combines a set of physical and mental characteristics that reflect how a person looks, thinks, acts, and feels. This definition contains two important ideas.

First, theories of personality often describe what people have in common and what sets them apart. To understand the personality of an individual, then, is to understand both what that individual has in common with others and what makes that particular individual unique. Thus each employee in an organization is unique and may or may not act differently in a similar situation. This uniqueness makes managing and working with people extremely challenging.

Second, our definition refers to personality as being “stable” and having “continuity in time.” Most people intuitively recognize this stability. If your entire personality could change suddenly and dramatically, your family and friends would confront a stranger. Although significant changes normally don’t occur suddenly, an individual’s personality may change over time. Personality development occurs to a certain extent throughout life, but the greatest changes occur in early childhood.

How is an individual’s personality determined? Is personality inherited or genetically determined, or is it formed after years of experience? There are no simple answers because too many variables contribute to the development of each individual’s personality. As Figure 2.1 shows, two primary sources shape personality differences: heredity and environment. An examination of these sources helps explain why individuals are different.

HEREDITY

Deeply ingrained in many people’s notions of personality is a belief in its genetic basis. Expressions such as “She is just like her father” or “He gets those irritating qualities from your side of the family, dear” reflect such beliefs. Some people believe that personality is inherited; others believe that a person’s experiences determine personality. Our thinking is balanced—both heredity (genes) and environment (experiences) are important, although some personality characteristics may be influenced
more by one factor than the other. Some personality traits seem to have a strong genetic component, whereas other traits seem to be largely learned (based on experiences).4

Some people argue that heredity sets limits on the range of development of characteristics and that within this range environmental forces determine personality characteristics. However, recent research on the personalities of twins who have been raised apart indicates that genetic determinants may play a larger role than many experts had believed. Some studies of twins suggest that as much as 50 to 55 percent of personality traits may be inherited. Further, inherited personality traits seem to explain about 50 percent of the variance in occupational choice. In other words, you probably inherited some traits that will influence your career choices.

ENVIRONMENT

Many people believe that the environment plays a large role in shaping personality; in fact, the environment plays a more important role than do inherited characteristics. Aspects of the environment that influence personality formation include culture, family, group membership, and life experiences.

Culture. The term culture refers to the distinctive ways that people in different societies organize and live their lives. Anthropologists have clearly demonstrated the important role that culture plays in personality development.5 Individuals born into a particular society are exposed to family and societal values and to norms of acceptable behavior—the culture of that society. Culture also defines how various roles in that society are to be performed. For example, U.S. culture generally rewards people for being independent and competitive, whereas Japanese culture generally rewards individuals for being cooperative and group-oriented.

Culture helps determine broad patterns of behavioral similarity among people, but differences in behavior—which at times can be extreme—usually exist among individuals within a society. Most societies aren’t homogeneous (although some are more homogeneous than others). For example, the work ethic (hard work is valued; an unwillingness to work is sinful) usually is associated with Western cultures. But this
value doesn’t influence everyone within Western cultures to the same degree. Thus, although culture has an impact on the development of employees’ personalities, not all individuals respond to cultural influences equally. Indeed, one of the most serious errors that managers can make is to assume that their subordinates are just like themselves in terms of societal values, personality, or any other individual characteristic.

**Family.** The primary vehicle for socializing an individual into a particular culture is the person’s immediate family. Both parents and siblings play important roles in the personality development of most individuals. Members of an extended family—grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins—also can influence personality formation. In particular, parents (or a single parent) influence their children’s development in three important ways:

- Through their own behaviors, they present situations that bring out certain behaviors in children.
- They serve as role models with which children often strongly identify.
- They selectively reward and punish certain behaviors.6

The family’s situation also is an important source of personality differences. Situational influences include the family’s size, socioeconomic level, race, religion, and geographic location; birth order within the family; parents’ educational level; and so on. For example, a person raised in a poor family simply has different experiences and opportunities than does a person raised in a wealthy family. Being an only child is different in some important respects from being raised with several brothers and sisters.

**Group Membership.** The first group to which most individuals belong is the family. People also participate in various groups during their lives, beginning with their childhood playmates and continuing through teenaged schoolmates, sports teams, and social groups to adult work and social groups. The numerous roles and experiences that people have as members of groups represent another important source of personality differences. Although playmates and school groups early in life may have the strongest influences on personality formation, social and group experiences in later life continue to influence and shape personality. Understanding someone’s personality requires understanding the groups to which that person belongs or has belonged in the past.

**Life Experiences.** Each person’s life also is unique in terms of specific events and experiences, which can serve as important determinants of personality. For example, the development of self-esteem (a personality dimension that we discuss shortly) depends on a series of experiences that include the opportunity to achieve goals and meet expectations, evidence of the ability to influence others, and a clear sense of being valued by others. Thus a complex series of events and interactions with other people helps shape the adult’s level of self-esteem. For example, employees at Oracle have noticed a remarkable change in their company as a result of Ellison’s leadership.

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**Learning Objective:**

2. Identify some personality traits that affect behavior.

**PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOR**

The vast number and variety of specific personality traits or dimensions are bewildering. The term *personality trait* typically refers to the basic components of personality. Researchers of personality have identified literally *thousands* of traits over the years. Trait names simply represent the terms that people use to describe each other. However, a list containing hundreds or thousands of terms isn’t very useful either in understanding the structure of personality in a scientific sense or in describing individual differences in a practical sense. To be useful, these terms need to be organized into a small set of concepts or descriptions. Recent research has done just that, identifying several general factors that can be used to describe a personality.
The “**Big Five**” personality factors, as they often are referred to, describe the individual’s adjustment, sociability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectual openness. As shown in Figure 2.2, each factor includes a potentially large number and range of specific traits. That is, each factor is both a collection of related traits and a continuum.

The main reason that we are interested in individual personality in the study of organizational behavior is the linkage between personality and behavior. Researchers have investigated extensively the relationships between the Big Five personality factors and job performance. Their findings indicate that employees who are responsible, dependable, persistent, and achievement-oriented perform better than those who lack these traits (the extremes of the conscientiousness continuum in Figure 2.2). An individual with a personality at one extreme of the agreeableness factor continuum might be described as warm and considerate. But with a personality at this factor’s other

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**Figure 2.2**  
The “Big Five” Personality Factors

- **Adjustment**
  - Stable, confident, effective vs. Nervous, self-doubting, moody

- **Sociability**
  - Gregarious, energetic, self-dramatizing vs. Shy, unassertive, withdrawn

- **Conscientiousness**
  - Planful, neat, dependable vs. Impulsive, careless, irresponsible

- **Agreeableness**
  - Warm, tactful, considerate vs. Independent, cold, rude

- **Intellectual Openness**
  - Imaginative, curious, original vs. Dull, unimaginative, literal-minded

extreme, the person would be considered cold or rude. The first Developing Competencies section at the end of this chapter contains a questionnaire that you can use to assess yourself in terms of these five personality factors. We invite you to complete it now to help you better understand your own personality.

Although each personality factor represents a collection of related traits, the link between personality and specific behaviors often is most clear when we focus on a single trait rather than all five factors at once. Here we examine several specific personality traits that are particularly important for understanding aspects of organizational behavior. Then, throughout the book, we explain additional personality traits as they relate to topics under discussion—for example, in relation to perception (Chapter 3), work stress (Chapter 7), political behavior (Chapter 9), and leadership (Chapter 11).

As we weave an understanding of personality and other individual differences into our exploration of a variety of topics in organizational behavior, we hope that you come to understand the crucial role that personality plays in explaining behavior. People clearly pay a great deal of attention to attributes of the personalities of the coworkers with whom they interact. The following Managing Across Cultures Competency feature shows how Peter Jones, a vice president of Computex, was faced with serious problems created by one of his managers who apparently had a less than pleasing personality.

**SELF-ESTEEM**

Self-esteem results from an individual’s continuing self-evaluation. In other words, people develop, hold, and sometimes modify opinions of their own behaviors, abilities, appearance, and worth. These general assessments reflect responses to people and situations, successes and failures, and the opinions of others. Such evaluations are sufficiently accurate and stable to be widely regarded as a basic personality trait or dimension. In terms of the Big Five personality factors, self-esteem most likely would be part of the adjustment factor (see Figure 2.2).

Self-esteem affects behavior in organizations and other social settings in several important ways. It is related to initial vocational choice. For example, individuals with high self-esteem take risks in job selection, are attracted to high-status occupations (e.g., medicine or law), and are more likely to choose unconventional or nontraditional jobs (e.g., forest ranger or jet pilot) than are individuals with low self-esteem. A study of college students looking for jobs reported that those with high self-esteem (1) received more favorable evaluations from recruiters, (2) were more satisfied with

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**COMPETENCY: MANAGING ACROSS CULTURES**

**COMPUTEX CORPORATION**

Peter Jones, vice president—Europe, for Computex Corporation, opened a letter at his San Francisco office early one morning. He was dismayed at the letter’s contents (some portions of which have been edited out).

Dear Mr. Jones:

The writers of this letter represent the sales force from Computex Sweden with the exception of our sales manager. We have decided to bring to your attention a
rather serious matter, which if left unresolved, will result in resignations from the majority of us in the near future. We don’t want to be in this situation, and we recognize that we are going outside of the chain-of-command with this letter, but we are approaching you in an attempt to save our sales team for the benefit of Computex Corporation and ourselves.

We consider ourselves to be an experienced, professional, and competent group of people. We have always been proud to work for Computex. We are well known in many areas of business in Sweden—many of our customers are friends and they view us as representatives of Computex. It is our feeling that the business will be significantly harmed if most of us were to leave. We provide this background because none of us have ever personally met you.

Our problems seem, to us, fairly straightforward. They arise solely as the result of the personality, character traits, and behavior of our general manager, Mr. Miller. He loses his temper almost daily, and most of these outbursts are an overreaction to small things. His mood and opinions seem to change almost on an hourly basis. He treats us with disrespect, and seldom delivers on his promises to “value our opinions” and “involve us more deeply in the business.” Most of the fine slogans that he states publicly in meetings and individual discussions have proven to be only words. Interpersonal relationships between Mr. Miller and us have deteriorated to the point where most of us spend as little time as possible in the office. None of us have ever before experienced working with an individual who has such a mercurial personality and treats the people around him in such a fashion.

If this sales team was not composed of mature individuals who continue to be interested in working for Computex, most of us would have left by now. As it is, so far only one salesperson has left the company because of Mr. Miller. However, we are not willing to put up with this situation indefinitely. As we stated earlier, unless some positive changes are made, most of us will soon be working for your competitors.

It is not our objective to cost Mr. Miller his job. We recognize that he has done some good things in terms of generating new business. He presents himself well to the outside world. The problem, rather, is internal to our office and our day-to-day working relationships with him, which have become intolerable. If he could control his mood, treat us with more respect, and deliver on his promises, we think the office could succeed under his leadership.

We are fully aware of the seriousness of contacting you in this way. However, we believe that one person is ruining the entire organization and immediate action is required. Because the problem is so personal, we don’t see how it can be resolved without some sort of action from you.

We are hoping for a positive solution.

Signed: “Nine of your sales representatives in Sweden”

Jones sighed heavily as he finished reading the letter. He was unsure whether this was strictly a “personality” conflict or a “cross-cultural” problem. He didn’t particularly like Miller personally and thought that he had a rather abrasive personality, but nothing like this had ever happened in his previous assignments, one of which had been international. He began to wish that he hadn’t sent Miller to Sweden in the first place. I wish I’d sent Gonzalez or Taylor, he thought to himself. “What do I do now?” he wondered. Jones knew that this problem would be a real test of his management skills.9
the job search, (3) received more job offers, and (4) were more likely to accept jobs before graduation than were students with low self-esteem.

Self-esteem is also related to numerous behaviors. Employees with low self-esteem are more easily influenced by the opinions of other workers than are employees with high self-esteem. Employees with low self-esteem set lower goals for themselves than do employees with high self-esteem. Furthermore, employees with high self-esteem place more value on actually attaining those goals than do employees with low self-esteem. Employees with low self-esteem are more susceptible than employees with high self-esteem to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions, and the like. In a general sense, self-esteem is positively related to achievement and a willingness to expend effort to accomplish tasks. Clearly, self-esteem is an important individual difference in terms of work behavior.10

**Locus of Control**

Locus of control refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events affecting them. On the one hand, individuals who have a high internal locus of control (internals) believe that their own behavior and actions primarily, but not necessarily totally, determine many of the events in their lives. On the other hand, individuals who have a high external locus of control (externals) believe that chance, fate, or other people primarily determine what happens to them. Locus of control typically is considered to be a part of the conscientiousness factor (see Figure 2.2). What is your locus of control? Table 2.1 contains a measure that you can use to assess your own locus of control beliefs.

Many differences between internals and externals are significant in explaining aspects of behavior in organizations and other social settings.11 Internals control their own behavior better, are more active politically and socially, and seek information about their situations more actively than do externals. Compared to externals, internals are more likely to try to influence or persuade others and are less likely to be influenced by others. Internals often are more achievement-oriented than are externals. Compared to internals, externals appear to prefer a more structured, directive style of supervision. As we pointed out in Chapter 1, the ability to manage effectively in the global environment is an important competency. Managers with a high internal locus of control often adjust more readily to international assignments than do managers with a high external locus of control. The letter from the Swedish sales force of Computex Corporation may reflect an internal locus of control orientation and an effort, by attempting to influence Peter Jones, to gain greater control over the events in their working lives.

Again, we are particularly interested in the relationship between these personality dimensions and specific behaviors. Figure 2.3 (page 46) shows some of the important relationships between locus of control and job performance.

**Goal Orientation**

Another individual difference of importance for behavior in work settings is goal orientation.12 Specifically, two orientations are considered important in terms of understanding an individual’s performance. A person with a learning goal orientation develops by continually acquiring new competencies and mastering new situations. A person with a performance goal orientation demonstrates and validates competencies by seeking favorable judgments from others (e.g., a manager) and avoiding negative judgments. Table 2.2 (page 47) contains a questionnaire that you can use to assess your own learning and performance goal orientations with regard to your academic studies.
The implications of these goal orientations at work are dramatic. A performance goal orientation can lead to a “helpless” response pattern in behavior. Employees with a strong performance goal orientation may avoid challenges at work and perform poorly when they encounter obstacles that are difficult to overcome. When faced with failure, such individuals are likely to become unhappy and dissatisfied and seek to withdraw from the situations in which they find themselves. By contrast, individuals with a strong learning goal orientation are more likely to exhibit “mastery-oriented” responses to work challenges. Employees with a strong learning goal orientation strive to overcome failure and setbacks by increasing their efforts and seeking new solutions to a problem. They treat failure as a form of useful feedback, typically maintain their composure when challenged, and sustain or increase performance even when they face obstacles that are difficult to overcome. A strong learning goal orientation may be summed up by the slogan often placed by coaches on the walls of locker rooms: When the going gets tough, the tough get going.

A study of salespeople employed by a medical supplies distributor investigated the relationship between goal orientation and job performance. As expected, superior sales performance was associated with a learning goal orientation. The consultants concluded that salespeople who simply “wanted to look good” (a performance goal orientation) would not succeed in their jobs. These salespeople needed to have the

Table 2.1

A Locus of Control Measure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When I get what I want it’s usually because I worked hard for it.</td>
<td>1 = strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When I make plans I am almost certain to make them work.</td>
<td>2 = disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I prefer games involving some luck over games requiring pure skill.</td>
<td>3 = slightly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it.</td>
<td>4 = neither disagree nor agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I usually don’t set goals, because I have a hard time following through on them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Competition discourages excellence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Often people get ahead just by being lucky.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. On any sort of exam or competition I like to know how well I do relative to everyone else.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. It’s pointless to keep working on something that’s too difficult for me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To determine your score, reverse the values you selected for questions 3, 6, 7, 8, and 10 (1 = 7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 6 = 2, 7 = 1). For example, if you strongly disagreed with the statement in question 3, you would have given it a value of “1.” Change this value to a “7.” Reverse the scores in a similar manner for questions 6, 7, 8, and 10. Now add the 10 point values together.

Your score: ______

A study of college students found a mean of 51.8 for men and 52.2 for women using this questionnaire. The higher your score, the higher your internal locus of control. Low scores are associated with external locus of control.

desire to develop the skills needed for success (a learning goal orientation). One of the consultants’ recommendations to the organization was to seek evidence of a learning goal orientation when selecting new employees for its sales force.

INTROVERSION AND EXTROVERSION

In everyday usage, the words introvert and extrovert describe a person’s congeniality. Introversion is a tendency to be directed inward and have a greater affinity for abstract ideas and sensitivity to personal feelings. Introverts are quiet, introspective, and emotionally unexpressive. Extroversion is an orientation toward other people, events, and objects. Extroverts are sociable, lively, impulsive, and emotionally expressive. Gordon Ellison at Oracle is an extrovert. Introversion and extroversion are part of the collection of traits that comprise the sociability factor (see Figure 2.2). Many experts consider introversion and extroversion to be a personality dimension with a relatively high genetically determined component.

Although some people exhibit the extremes of introversion and extroversion, most are only moderately introverted or extroverted, or are even relatively balanced between the extremes. Introverts and extroverts appear in all educational, gender, and occupational groups. As might be expected, extroverts are well represented in managerial occupations because the manager’s role often involves working with others and influencing them to attain organizational goals. Some people suggest that some extroversion may be essential to managerial success. However, either extreme extrover-
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External introversion or extreme introversion can interfere with an individual’s effectiveness in an organization.14

One of the most striking implications of the introversion–extroversion personality dimension involves task performance under different working conditions. The evidence suggests that introverts perform better alone and in a quiet environment, whereas extroverts perform better in an environment with greater sensory stimulation, such as a noisy office with many people and a high level of activity.

**ORGANIZATIONAL USES**

It should be evident by now that the personality dimensions have important implications for understanding behavior. However, managers or groups should not try to change or otherwise directly control employee personality because being able to do so is generally impossible. Even if such control were possible, it would be highly unethical. Rather, the challenge for managers and employees is to understand the crucial role played by personality in explaining some aspects of human behavior in the workplace. Knowledge of important individual differences provides managers, employees, and students of organizational behavior with valuable insights and a framework that they can use to diagnose events and situations. The following

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Table 2.2

| Instructions: People have different ideas about the purpose of college. Read each statement below and select an answer from the following scale that reflects how much you agree or disagree with the statement. |
|---|---|
| 1 = Strongly agree | 5 = Sort of disagree |
| 2 = Agree | 6 = Disagree |
| 3 = Sort of agree | 7 = Strongly disagree |

**Academic Goal Orientation**

| 1. I prefer challenging and difficult classes so that I’ll learn a great deal. |
| 2. I truly enjoy learning for the sake of learning. |
| 3. I like classes that really force me to think hard. |
| 4. I’m willing to enroll in a difficult course if I can learn a lot from taking it. |

**Total score for learning goal orientation (sum the response to questions 1–4).**

**Performance Goal Orientation Scale**

| 5. I think that it’s important to get good grades to show how intelligent you are. |
| 6. I would rather drop a difficult class than earn a low grade. |
| 7. To be honest, I really like to prove my ability to others. |
| 8. I prefer to avoid situations in classes where I could risk performing poorly. |

**Total score for performance goal orientation (sum the responses to questions 5–8).**

The scales measure your learning and performance goal orientations in an academic setting. Comparing your scores on the two scales may indicate your tendency toward either a learning or a performance goal orientation.

MANAGING TEAMS

TEAMS AT HEWLETT-PACKARD

Reed Breland became a team facilitator at Hewlett-Packard’s 180-person financial services center in Colorado Springs 2 years ago. After several months in his new position, Breland noticed that members of one of his teams were having a difficult time working together. “It was a classic case of personality conflict,” he says. “They just didn’t like each other. But when two people on an eight-person team don’t get along, believe me, it’s disruptive.”

Breland gave the team time to try to work things out. “Of course, I spoke to them about the problems, but I was mainly interested in making sure they understood that the work had to get done, regardless of how they got along,” he says. However, after 9 months team members still weren’t working well together. Productivity was inadequate and morale was poor. “I knew I had to do something then, because it had affected their work,” explains Breland. He then simply dissolved the team and placed its members in other jobs rather than trying to determine who was right and wrong. Breland says that the team members are doing fine in their other assignments. He compares their team dynamics with those of a sports team: “If the chemistry isn’t right, it doesn’t matter how good or bad the players are. It’s not going to work. As a team leader you have to know when it’s reached that point. It’s more of an art than a science, but that’s what makes the job so interesting.”

Managing Teams Competency feature above describes such a situation—an attempt at Hewlett-Packard to create effective work teams.

THE PERSON AND THE SITUATION

Although understanding differences in personality is important, behavior always involves an interaction of the person and the situation. Sometimes the demands of the situation may be so overwhelming that individual differences are relatively unimportant. For example, if an office building is burning, everyone in it will try to flee. However, the fact that all employees behaved the same way says nothing about the personalities of those individuals. In other situations, individual differences may explain more about behavior.

The relative importance of situational versus personal determinants of behavior continues to be debated, but considerable evidence exists for roles by both. We believe that considering both determinants will help you to understand behavior in organizations. For that reason, our perspective is consistently used throughout this book. You will discover that many of the topics covered, such as leadership, political behavior, power differences, stress, and resistance to change, examine both personal and situational causes for the organizational behavior discussed. Both interact to determine behavior.

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

Attitudes are another type of individual difference that affects behavior. Attitudes are relatively lasting feelings, beliefs, and behavioral tendencies aimed at specific people, groups, ideas, issues, or objects. Attitudes reflect an individual’s background and experiences. As with personality development, significant people in a person’s life—
parents, friends, and members of social and work groups—strongly influence attitude formation. Also, some evidence points to genetic influences on the attitudes that people develop.

**COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES**

People often think of attitudes as a simple concept, but in reality attitudes and their effects on behavior can be extremely complex. An attitude consists of

- an affective component—the feelings, sentiments, moods, and emotions about some person, idea, event, or object;
- a cognitive component—the thoughts, opinions, knowledge, or information held by the individual; and
- a behavioral component—the predisposition to act on a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of something.17

These components don’t exist or function separately. An attitude represents the interplay of a person’s affective, cognitive, and behavioral tendencies with regard to something—another person or group, an event, or an issue. For example, suppose that a college student holds a negative attitude about the use of tobacco. During a job interview with the representative of Skippy Peanut Butter, she discovers that Skippy is owned by Kraft Foods, which is a major division of Phillip Morris, a major supplier of cigarettes. She might feel a sudden intense dislike for the company’s interviewer (the affective component). She might form a negative opinion of the interviewer based on beliefs and opinions about the type of person who would work for such a company (the cognitive component). She might even be tempted to make an unkind remark to the interviewer or suddenly terminate the interview (the behavioral component). However, the person’s actual behavior may or may not be easy to predict and will depend on several factors that we discuss shortly.

**LINKS TO BEHAVIOR**

To what extent do attitudes predict or cause behavior? A simple, direct link between attitudes and behavior usually doesn’t exist. In the preceding interview example, the college student might have a negative attitude but choose not to behave negatively toward the interviewer. She might not act on her attitude because (1) she needs a job, (2) the norms of courteous behavior outweigh her desire to express her negative attitude, (3) she decides that the interviewer is an inappropriate target for negative behavior, and/or (4) she acknowledges the possibility of having incomplete information.

Pollsters and others often measure attitudes and attempt to predict subsequent behavior. Often, doing so is difficult; however, observing three principles can improve the accuracy of predicting behavior from attitudes.

- General attitudes best predict general behaviors.
- Specific attitudes best predict specific behaviors.
- The less time that elapses between attitude measurement and behavior, the more consistent will be the relationship between attitude and behavior.

For example, attitudes toward women in management in general aren’t as good a predictor of whether someone will work well for a female manager as are specific attitudes toward a particular manager. General attitudes toward religion aren’t good predictors of specific behavior, such as giving to a certain church-related charity or observing a specific religious holiday. However, these general attitudes may accurately predict general religious behavior, such as the overall level of involvement in church activities. Moreover, attitudes may change over time. Generally, the longer the elapsed time between the measurement of an attitude and a behavior, the less likely it is that the relationship between them will be strong. This third principle is
well known to political pollsters (after some earlier embarrassments), and they typically are careful not to predict voting behavior too far ahead of an actual election. (Or they may be careful to add certain qualifiers to published polls, such as: If the election were held today. . . .)

You should recognize that the link between attitudes and actual behaviors is tentative. Attitudes result in intended behaviors; this intention may or may not be carried out in a particular situation. It is not uncommon to hear people say, “He has a bad attitude.” One of the things that has been found to affect the link between an attitude and behavior is hope.

Hope. Hope involves a person’s mental willpower (determination) and waypower (road map) to achieve goals.18 Simply wishing for something isn’t enough; a person must have the means to make it happen. However, all the knowledge and skills needed to solve a problem won’t help if the person doesn’t have the willpower to do so. Therefore a simple definition of hope is

Hope = mental willpower + waypower to achieve goals.

Answering the questions in Table 2.3 will help you understand this definition of hope. The value of this concept is that it applies to a variety of work-related attitudes. For example, optimism, internal locus of control, and achievement motivation are closely and strongly related. Managers who are hopeful spend more time with employees, establish open lines of communication with employees and others, and help employees set difficult, but achievable, goals. High-hope individuals tend to be more certain of their goals, value progress toward achieving those goals, enjoy interacting with people, readily adapt to new relationships, and are less anxious in stressful situations than are low-hope individuals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hope Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read each item carefully. For each item, what number best describes you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = definitely false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 = mostly false</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I energetically pursue my work (academic) goals.
2. I can think of many ways to get out of a jam.
3. My past experiences have prepared me well for my future.
4. There are lots of ways around any problem.
5. I’ve been pretty successful in life.
6. I can think of many ways to get things in life that are most important to me.
7. I meet the goals (work/academic) that I set for myself.
8. Even when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve the problem.

Scoring

Total the eight numbers. If you score higher than 24, you are a hopeful person. If you score less than 24, you probably aren’t hopeful. Items 1, 3, 5, and 7 relate to willpower, and items 2, 4, 6, and 8 relate to waypower.

Managers can help employees increase their level of hope in at least three ways. First, they can help employees set clear goals that have benchmarks so that the employees can track their progress toward the goal; vague goals may actually lessen hope because the result sought is unclear and tracking progress therefore is difficult, if not impossible. Employees who set goals that are slightly higher than previous levels of performance learn to expand their range of hope. They also learn a great deal about which goals are best for them. Second, managers can help employees break overall, long-term goals into small subgoals or steps. Remember how you learned to ride a bike? Through many falls and wobbles, you learned that each consecutive subgoal (moving the pedals, balancing, going a block without falling) is a stretch. These small steps provided you with positive mental maps about how to reach your goal—riding a bike. Third, managers can help employees figure out how to motivate themselves to reach their goals. At Don Herring dealership, the largest Mitsubishi dealership in the United States, the names of all salespersons are posted on a chart in the break room. The typical new-car salesperson sells 8 to 10 cars a month. At Herring, a salesperson sells 20 to 25 a month. How has Herring achieved such results? When a salesperson sells a car, a gold star is placed beside that person’s name. The purpose of the chart and gold star is to illustrate positive movement toward achieving a realistic sales goal. The perception of positive movement is crucial for hope.

WORK ATTITUDES

The importance of attitude–behavior relationships can best be demonstrated by examining two key work attitudes—job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Of interest also are the complex relationships between job satisfaction and job performance.

JOB SATISFACTION

Perhaps the attitude of greatest interest to managers and team leaders is job satisfaction. Do people generally like their jobs? Despite what you may hear in the news about dissatisfied workers going on strike or even acting violently toward their coworkers and/or manager, people are generally quite satisfied with their jobs. These feelings, reflecting attitudes toward a job, are known as job satisfaction. Low job satisfaction can result in costly turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and even poor mental health. Because job satisfaction is important to organizations, we need to look at the factors that contribute to it.

Sources of Job Satisfaction. A popular measure of job satisfaction is shown in Table 2.4. Take a minute and complete it. Obviously, you may be satisfied with some aspects of your job (e.g., job security) and, at the same time, be dissatisfied with others (e.g., pay).

The sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction vary from person to person. Sources important for many employees include the challenge of the job, interest that the work holds for the employee, physical activity required, working conditions, rewards available from the organization, nature of coworkers, and the like. Table 2.5 lists work factors that often are related to levels of employee job satisfaction. An important implication suggested is that job satisfaction be considered an outcome of an individual’s work experience. Thus high levels of dissatisfaction should indicate to managers that problems exist, say, with working conditions, the reward system, or the employee’s role in the organization.

Relation to Job Behavior. Of special interest to managers and employees are the possible relationships between job satisfaction and various job behaviors and other outcomes in the workplace. A common sense notion is that job satisfaction leads
### Table 2.4

**Measure of Job Satisfaction**

Please indicate the extent of your satisfaction on the scale to each of the following statements.

- **A = Very dissatisfied**
- **B = Dissatisfied**
- **C = Can’t decide whether satisfied or not**
- **D = Satisfied**
- **E = Very satisfied**

On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.
2. The chance to be somebody in this organization.
3. The way my job provides for steady employment.
4. My pay and the amount of work I do.
5. The freedom to use my own judgment about how to work.
6. The chance to work by myself.
7. The chance to develop close friendships with others.
8. The way I get full credit for the work I do.
9. The chance to help others.
10. My job security.


### Table 2.5

**Effects of Various Work Factors on Job Satisfaction**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORK FACTORS</th>
<th>EFFECTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work itself</td>
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<tr>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical demands</td>
<td>Tiring work is dissatisfying.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal interest</td>
<td>Personally interesting work is satisfying.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reward structure</td>
<td>Rewards that are equitable and that provide accurate feedback for performance are satisfying.</td>
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<td>Working conditions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Satisfaction depends on the match between working conditions and physical needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Goal attainment</td>
<td>Working conditions that promote goal attainment are satisfying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self</td>
<td>High self-esteem is conducive to job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others in the organization</td>
<td>Individuals will be satisfied with supervisors, coworkers, or subordinates who help them attain rewards. Also, individuals will be more satisfied with colleagues who see things the same way they do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization and management</td>
<td>Individuals will be satisfied with organizations that have policies and procedures designed to help them attain rewards. Individuals will be dissatisfied with conflicting roles and/or ambiguous roles imposed by the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fringe benefits</td>
<td>Benefits do not have a strong influence on job satisfaction for most workers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

directly to effective performance. (A happy worker is a good worker.) Yet, numerous studies have shown that a simple, direct linkage between job satisfaction and job performance often doesn’t exist.21 The difficulty of relating attitudes to behavior is pertinent here. Earlier, we noted that general attitudes best predict general behaviors and that specific attitudes are related most strongly to specific behaviors. These principles explain, at least in part, why the expected relationships often don’t exist. As indicated previously, job satisfaction is a collection of numerous attitudes toward various aspects of the job and represents a general attitude. Performance of a specific task, such as preparing a particular monthly report, can’t necessarily be predicted on the basis of a general attitude. However, studies have shown that the level of overall workforce job satisfaction and organizational performance are linked. That is, organizations with satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with unsatisfied employees. Further, management in many organizations recognize the important linkage between customer satisfaction and the satisfaction of employees who interact with their customers. Examples of this linkage are apparent in the following Managing Communication Competency feature.

COMPETENCY: MANAGING COMMUNICATION

THE CONTAINER STORE

With employee turnover greater than 100 percent in most retail stores but only at 15 to 25 percent at the Container Store, how do its managers attract new employees and retain employees?

The Container Store recently was named by Fortune magazine as America’s best place to work for a second year in a row. In 2001, sales exceeded $273 million for its 22 stores. How did it get this ranking? First, it practices what it preaches. Every first-year full-time employee gets about 235 hours of training. It is provided both formally and informally by ongoing communication with managers, who not only ask what their people need to do their jobs well, but also regularly assess how to provide necessary assistance. Each store has a back room where new products are housed prior to display. Employees receive formal training on how to display these new products and how to communicate their benefits. According to Garrett Boone and Kip Tindell, the Container Store’s CEOs, “Nothing goes out on the sales floor until our people are ready for it.” This program is coupled with extensive training programs designed to meet individual skills and job functions and team-based incentive programs. Moreover, a “super sales trainer” serves each store. These trainers are top sales performers who know how to sell the hard stuff and who have an aptitude for leadership and strong communication and presentation skills. These people give on-the-spot help to employees who ask, but employees are encouraged to take responsibility for their own development.

The Container Store pays above-industry salaries to employees. Part-time employees earn between $9 to $10 per hour and full-time employees average $15 to $17 per hour, as well as benefits. Employees do not sell on a commission basis. The company is attractive to employees because it offers flexible shifts, allowing college students to earn some cash between classes and mothers to work while their kids are in school (9 A.M. to 2 P.M.).

Guided by what Boone and Tindell call a “do unto others,” philosophy, the Container Store’s more than 2,000 employees, of which 27 percent are minority and 60 percent are women, work in an environment that ensures open communication throughout the company, including regular discussions of store sales, company goals, and expansion plans. Another guiding principle is to offer the best selection, the
Job satisfaction is important for many reasons. Because satisfaction represents an outcome of the work experience, high levels of dissatisfaction help to identify organizational problems that need attention. In addition, job dissatisfaction is strongly linked to absenteeism, turnover, and physical and mental health problems. High levels of absenteeism and turnover are costly for organizations. According to John Seman, an executive at TNS Partners, Inc., it typically costs firms about 20 percent of a person’s salary to recruit a replacement. Thus, when Deloitte & Touche, one of the Big Five accounting firms, loses a $50,000 per year staff accountant, it may have to spend $10,000 to hire a comparable employee. Many management experts suggest that the strong relationship between dissatisfaction and absenteeism and turnover is a compelling reason for paying careful attention to employee job satisfaction.

**Organizational Commitment**

Another important work attitude that has a bearing on organizational behavior is commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment refers to the strength of an employee’s involvement in the organization and identification with it. Strong organizational commitment is characterized by

- a support of and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values;
- a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and
- a desire to remain with the organization.

Organizational commitment goes beyond loyalty to include an active contribution to accomplishing organizational goals. Organizational commitment represents a broader work attitude than job satisfaction because it applies to the entire organization rather than just to the job. Further, commitment typically is more stable than satisfaction because day-to-day events are less likely to change it.

**Sources of Commitment.** As with job satisfaction, the sources of organizational commitment may vary from person to person. Employees’ initial commitment to an organization is determined largely by their individual characteristics (e.g., personality and attitudes) and how well their early job experiences match their expectations. Later, organizational commitment continues to be influenced by job experiences, with many of the same factors that lead to job satisfaction also contributing to organizational commitment or lack of commitment: pay, relationships with supervisors and coworkers, working conditions, opportunities for advancement, and so on. Over time, organizational commitment tends to become stronger because (1) individuals develop deeper ties to the organization and their coworkers as they spend more time with them; (2) seniority often brings advantages that tend to develop more positive work attitudes; and (3) opportunities in the job market may decrease with age, causing workers to become more strongly attached to their current job.

**Relation to Job Behavior.** Managers are interested in the relationships between organizational commitment and job behavior because the lack of commitment often leads to turnover. The stronger an employee’s commitment is to the organization, the less likely the person is to quit. Strong commitment also is often correlated with low absenteeism and relatively high productivity. Attendance at work (being on time and taking little time off) is usually higher for employees with strong organizational commitment. Moreover, committed individuals tend to be more goal directed and waste
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less time while at work, which has a positive impact on productivity. Effective management can foster increased commitment and loyalty to the organization as the above Managing Self Competency feature indicates.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

Ethical behavior in organizations has received great attention lately. The tire separation problem that has plagued both Ford and Firestone, smokers' lawsuits against tobacco manufacturers, and Enron's implosion (including Arthur Andersen's involvement) are recent examples. In each case, media attention has focused on the
ethical behavior of top management. Although assigning blame to specific executives may or may not be appropriate in any particular case, consideration of their cognitive moral development may help explain whether managers in these and other organizations behaved ethically or unethically.\textsuperscript{26} Cognitive moral development refers to an individual’s level of moral judgment. People seem to pass through stages of moral reasoning and judgment as they mature. Judgment with regard to right and wrong becomes less dependent on outside influences (e.g., parents) and less self-centered (It’s right because it’s right for me.). At higher levels of cognitive moral development, individuals develop a deeper understanding of the principles of justice, ethical behavior, and balancing individual and social rights.

Research has demonstrated that individuals with high internal locus of control exhibit more ethical behavior when making organizational decisions than do individuals with high external locus of control. Moreover, individuals with higher levels of cognitive moral development are more likely to behave ethically than are others.

**Types of Management Ethics**

The terms immoral, amoral, and moral management identify important ethical differences among managers.\textsuperscript{27}

**Immoral Management.** Managerial behaviors devoid of any ethical principles represent immoral management. Those practicing immoral management believe in the maximum exploitation of opportunities for corporate or personal gain to the exclusion of other considerations. Corners will be cut if doing so appears useful. Legal standards are viewed as barriers to be overcome rather than guidelines for appropriate behavior.

The Frigitemp Corporation provides an example of immoral management at the highest levels of the firm. According to testimony provided during federal investigations and criminal trials, corporate officials (including the chairman of the board of directors and the president) admitted making illegal payoffs of millions of dollars. In addition, corporate officers embezzled funds, exaggerated earnings in reports to shareholders, took kickbacks from suppliers, and even provided prostitutes for customers. Frigitemp eventually went bankrupt because of the misconduct of some of its top-level managers.

**Moral Management.** The opposite extreme from immoral management is moral management. Managerial and employee behaviors focus on and follow ethical norms, professional standards of conduct, and compliance with applicable regulations and laws. Moral management doesn’t mean lack of interest in profits. But moral managers will not pursue profits outside the boundaries of the law and sound ethical principles.

McCulloch Corporation, a manufacturer of chain saws, provides a good example of moral management. Chain saws can be dangerous to use, and studies have consistently shown large numbers of injuries from saws not equipped with chain brakes and other safety features. The Chain Saw Manufacturers Association fought hard against mandatory federal safety standards, preferring to rely on voluntary standards even in the face of evidence that voluntary standards were neither high enough nor working. However, McCulloch consistently supported and practiced higher safety standards; in fact, chain brakes have been standard on McCulloch saws since 1975. McCulloch made numerous attempts to persuade the Chain Saw Manufacturers Association to adopt higher standards when research results indicated that they could greatly reduce injuries. When McCulloch failed to persuade the association to support these higher standards, it withdrew from the association.

**Amoral Management.** Managerial behaviors that are indifferent to ethical considerations—as though different standards of conduct apply to business than to other
aspects of life—characterize amoral management. Amoral managers and employees seem to lack awareness of ethical or moral issues and act with no thought for the impact that their actions might have on others.

An example of amoral management was Nestlé’s decision to market infant formula in Third World countries. Nestlé received massive amounts of negative publicity for this marketing strategy, and governments in several countries launched investigations. These investigations indicated that the company apparently gave no thought to the possible disastrous health consequences of selling the formula to illiterate and impoverished people in areas where it would likely be mixed with impure, disease-ridden water.28

ESTABLISHING ETHICAL ATTITUDES

An organization cannot directly manage personality dimensions (e.g., locus of control) or cognitive individual differences (e.g., cognitive moral development). Still, top executives and managers at all levels can take steps such as the following to instill moral management by fostering ethical attitudes in the workforce.

• Identify ethical attitudes crucial for the organization’s operations. For example, a security firm might stress honesty, whereas a drug manufacturer may identify responsibility as most important to ensure product quality. After executives have identified desired ethical attitudes, training programs can focus on developing such attitudes among employees.

• Select employees with desired attitudes. At Southwest Airlines, interviewers use standard interview questions that assess an applicant’s attitudes toward work, employees, and customers—and their ethical values.

• Incorporate ethics in the performance evaluation process. Criteria used to evaluate individuals influence work-related attitudes that managers and employees develop. Executives and managers at all levels should be sure that ethical concerns are part of job descriptions and evaluations.

• Establish a work culture that reinforces ethical attitudes. Executives and managers at all levels can take many actions to influence organizational culture. This culture, in turn, greatly influences ethical behavior throughout an organization.

Citicorp, the huge multinational financial services organization, stresses development of ethical attitudes and behaviors among its employees. Its concerns about ethical behavior resulted in the development and use of an ethics game, or exercise, entitled “The Work Ethic—An Exercise in Integrity.”29 The game can be played by individuals in a small group or by large groups divided into several teams. Individuals or teams are presented with ethical dilemmas based on the company’s actual experiences. Employees can compare their proposed solutions to what Citicorp management considers to be the correct, ethical course of action. Managers use the game in training programs, staff meetings, and departmental retreats and to orient new employees. The goals of the game are to help employees recognize ethical dilemmas in decision making, to teach employees how Citicorp responds to misconduct, and to increase understanding of its rules and policies regarding ethical behavior. The ethics game isn’t the only ethics training that Citicorp uses, but it is an excellent example of how an organization can foster ethical attitudes and behaviors among managers and employees.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

1. Explain the basic sources of personality determinants.

Personality is a person’s set of relatively stable characteristics and traits that account for consistent patterns of behavior in various situations. Each individual in some ways is like other people and in some ways is unique. An individual’s personality
is determined by inherited traits, or tendencies, and life experiences. Experiences occur within the framework of the individual's biological, physical, and social environment—all of which are modified by the culture, family, and other groups to which the person belongs.

An individual's personality may be described by a set of factors known as the Big Five. Specifically, these personality factors describe an individual's degree of adjustment, sociability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectual openness. Remember that, if you didn't do so earlier, you can assess your own profile in terms of the Big Five by using this questionnaire at the end of this chapter. Many specific personality dimensions, including self-esteem, locus of control, goal orientation, and introversion/extroversion have important relationships to work behavior and outcomes. In addition, an understanding of interactions between the person and the situation is important for comprehending organizational behavior.

Attitudes are patterns of feelings, beliefs, and behavioral tendencies directed toward specific people, groups, ideas, issues, or objects. Attitudes have affective (feelings, emotions), cognitive (beliefs, knowledge), and behavioral (a predisposition to act in a particular way) components. The relationship between attitudes and behavior isn't always clear, although important relationships exist. The prediction of behavior from attitudes can be improved by remembering that general attitudes best predict general behaviors and that specific attitudes most accurately predict specific behaviors.

Job satisfaction—the general collection of attitudes that an employee holds toward the job—is of great interest to managers. The simple notion that job satisfaction directly causes an individual to perform all tasks well all the time doesn't stand up to careful scrutiny. Nevertheless, the overall level of satisfaction among employees does have an important relationship to the effectiveness of the organization. Among other things, dissatisfied employees are more likely to be absent, more likely to quit, more likely to treat customers poorly, and so on, than are satisfied employees.

Another work attitude of interest is commitment to the organization. As an attitude, organizational commitment represents the strength of an employee's involvement in an organization and identification with it. As does job satisfaction, commitment has a strong relationship to turnover. High levels of organizational commitment among a workforce are associated with many positive outcomes, including strong loyalty, high productivity, and low absenteeism.

Individual differences such as locus of control and cognitive moral development are related to ethical behavior. The terms immoral management, moral management, and amoral management capture further, important ethical differences among managers. Top-level executives and managers at all levels can and should constructively foster ethical attitudes and moral management among their managers and employees.

**KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS**

Amoral management  External locus of control
Attitudes  Extroversion
“Big Five” personality factors  Hope
Cognitive moral development  Immoral management
Culture  Individual differences
Emotional intelligence  Internal locus of control
DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How would you describe Larry Ellison’s personality? What effect did his personality have on decision making at Oracle?

2. Describe the basic sources of personality differences between yourself and a person you know well.

3. What influences on personality development seem most important to you. Why?

4. Using the Big Five personality factors, describe the personality of (a) a close family member and (b) a person for whom you have worked. How did these factors affect your behavior toward them?

5. Identify a specific personality factor that seems particularly interesting to you. Provide an example from your own work or other experience of an instance when this factor seemed strongly related to behavior.

6. Select a strong attitude that you hold and describe it in terms of the three components of an attitude.

7. Describe the levels of (a) job satisfaction and (b) organizational commitment that seemed to exist in some organization with which you have first-hand experience.

8. From the popular business press (e.g., Wall Street Journal, Fortune, Forbes, or Business Week) or similar publications identify and describe instances of immoral management, moral management, and amoral management in the Enron controversy.

9. Describe an incident in which a coworker or your manager demonstrated moral, immoral, or amoral behavior with a customer.

DEVELOPING COMPETENCIES

Competency: Managing Self

Assessing the Big Five

The Big Five Locator Questionnaire

Instructions: On each numerical scale that follows, indicate which point is generally more descriptive of you. If the two terms are equally descriptive, mark the midpoint.

1. Eager 5 4 3 2 1 Calm
2. Prefer Being with Other People 5 4 3 2 1 Prefer Being Alone
3. A Dreamer 5 4 3 2 1 No-Nonsense
4. Courteous 5 4 3 2 1 Abrupt
5. Neat 5 4 3 2 1 Messy
6. Cautious 5 4 3 2 1 Confident
7. Optimistic 5 4 3 2 1 Pessimistic
8. Theoretical 5 4 3 2 1 Practical
9. Generous 5 4 3 2 1 Selfish
10. Decisive 5 4 3 2 1 Open-Ended
11. Discouraged 5 4 3 2 1 Upbeat
12. Exhibitionist 5 4 3 2 1 Private

13. Follow Imagination 5 4 3 2 1 Follow Authority
14. Warm 5 4 3 2 1 Cold
15. Stay Focused 5 4 3 2 1 Easily Distracted
16. Easily Embarrassed 5 4 3 2 1 Don’t Give a Darn
17. Outgoing 5 4 3 2 1 Cool
18. Seek Novelty 5 4 3 2 1 Seek Routine
19. Team Player 5 4 3 2 1 Independent
20. A Preference for Order 5 4 3 2 1 Comfortable with Chaos
21. Distractible 5 4 3 2 1 Unflappable
22. Conversational 5 4 3 2 1 Thoughtful
23. Comfortable with Ambiguity 5 4 3 2 1 Prefer Things Clear-Cut
24. Trusting 5 4 3 2 1 Skeptical
25. On Time 5 4 3 2 1 Procrastinate
### Big Five Locator Score Conversion Sheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Norm Score</th>
<th>Adjustment</th>
<th>Sociability</th>
<th>Openness</th>
<th>Agreeableness</th>
<th>Conscientiousness</th>
<th>Norm Score</th>
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4. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the fourth row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 4 + Row 9 + Row 14 + Row 19 + Row 24 = ____). This is your raw score for “agreeableness.” Circle the number in the AGREEABLENESS column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

5. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the fifth row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 5 + Row 10 + Row 15 + Row 20 + Row 25 = ____). This is your raw score for “conscientiousness.” Circle the number in the CONSCIENTIOUSNESS column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

6. Find the number in the far right or far left column that is parallel to your circled raw score. Enter this norm score in the box at the bottom of the appropriate column.

7. Transfer your norm score to the appropriate scale on the Big Five Locator Interpretation Sheet.

Instructions:
1. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the first row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 1 + Row 6 + Row 11 + Row 16 + Row 21 = ____). This is your raw score for “adjustment.” Circle the number in the ADJUSTMENT column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

2. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the second row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 2 + Row 7 + Row 12 + Row 17 + Row 22 = ____). This is your raw score for “sociability.” Circle the number in the SOCIABILITY column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

3. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the third row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 3 + Row 8 + Row 13 + Row 18 + Row 23 = ____). This is your raw score for “openness.” Circle the number in the OPENNESS column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

4. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the fourth row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 4 + Row 9 + Row 14 + Row 19 + Row 24 = ____). This is your raw score for “agreeableness.” Circle the number in the AGREEABLENESS column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

5. Find the sum of the circled numbers on the fifth row of each of the five-line groupings (Row 5 + Row 10 + Row 15 + Row 20 + Row 25 = ____). This is your raw score for “conscientiousness.” Circle the number in the CONSCIENTIOUSNESS column of the Score Conversion Sheet that corresponds to this raw score.

6. Find the number in the far right or far left column that is parallel to your circled raw score. Enter this norm score in the box at the bottom of the appropriate column.

Big Five Locator Interpretation Sheet

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<th>Norm Score</th>
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Note: The Big Five Locator is intended for use only as a quick assessment for teaching purposes.30
Competency: Managing Self

Emotional IQ

An individual difference that has recently received a great deal of interest is emotional intelligence. You can assess your EQ by using the following scale.

Instructions: Using a scale of 1 through 4, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = somewhat agree, and 4 = strongly agree, respond to the 32 statements.

____ 1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.
____ 2. When I'm faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.
____ 3. I expect that I will do well on most things.
____ 4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.
____ 5. I find it easy to understand the nonverbal messages of other people.
____ 6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to reevaluate what is important and not important.
____ 7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.
____ 8. Emotions are one of the things that make life worth living.
____ 9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.
____ 10. I expect good things to happen.
____ 11. I like to share my emotions with other people.
____ 12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.
____ 13. I arrange events others enjoy.
____ 14. I seek out activities that make me happy.
____ 15. I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others.
____ 16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.
____ 17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.
____ 18. By looking at facial expressions, I can recognize the emotions that others are feeling.
____ 19. I know why my emotions change.
____ 20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.
____ 21. I have control over my emotions.
____ 22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.
____ 23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to the tasks I do.
____ 24. I compliment others when they have done something well.
____ 25. I am aware of the nonverbal message other people send.
____ 26. When another person tells me about an important event in their life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.
____ 27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.
____ 28. When I am faced with a challenge, I usually rise to the occasion.
____ 29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.
____ 30. I help other people feel better when they are down.
____ 31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.
____ 32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voices.

Scoring:

Add your responses to questions 1, 6, 7, 8, 12, 14, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, and 27. Put this total here_____. This is your self-awareness score.

Add your responses to questions 4, 15, 18, 25, 29, and 32. Put this total here_____. This is your social awareness score.

Add your responses to questions 2, 3, 9, 10, 16, 21, 28, and 31. Put this total here_____. This is your self-management score.

Add your responses to questions 5, 11, 13, 24, 26, and 30. Put this total here_____. This is your social skills score.

Discussion and Interpretation:

Psychologist Daniel Goleman states that emotional intelligence (EQ) is actually more crucial than general intelligence (IQ) in terms of career success. Emotional intelligence refers to how well an individual handles herself and others rather than how smart she is or how capable she is in terms of technical skills. Emotional intelligence includes the attributes of self-awareness, impulse control, persistence, confidence, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness. Think of EQ as being the social equivalent of IQ. In organizations undergoing rapid change, emotional intelligence may determine who gets promoted and who gets passed over or who gets laid off and who stays, according to Goleman. Studies have consistently shown, for example, that the competencies associated with emotional intelligence (e.g., the ability to persuade others, the ability to understand others, and so on) are twice as important for career success as intelligence (IQ) or technical competencies.

According to Goleman, the higher your score is in each of these four areas, the more emotionally intelligent you are. People who score high (greater than 36) in self-awareness recognize their emotions and their effects on others, accurately assess their strengths and limitations, and have a strong sense of their self-worth and capabilities. People who score high (greater than 18) in social awareness are good at understanding others, taking an active interest in their concerns, and empathizing with them, and recognize the needs others have at work. People who score high (greater than 24) in self-management can keep their disruptive emotions and impulses under control, maintain standards of integrity and honesty, are conscientious, adapt their behaviors to changing situations, and have internal standards of excellence that guide their behaviors. People who have high (greater than 18) social
skills sense others’ developmental needs, inspire and lead groups, send clear and convincing messages, build effective interpersonal relationships, and work well with others to achieve shared goals.32

Questions
1. Do you find EQ a useful personality characteristic? Is it genetic or shaped by experience?
2. What’s Gordon Ellison’s emotional intelligence?