Diversity and Individual Differences

Chapter At A Glance

Chapter 4 introduces the importance of personality, values, and attitudes, along with individual differences and further treatment of diversity in the study of today’s increasingly diverse work settings. As you read chapter 4, keep in mind these study questions.

WHAT IS PERSONALITY?

- What Is Personality?
  - Personality and Development
    - Personality and the Self-Concept

HOW DO PERSONALITIES DIFFER?

- Big Five Personality Traits
- Social Traits
- Personal Conception Traits
- Emotional Adjustment Traits

WHAT ARE VALUE AND ATTITUDE DIFFERENCES AMONG INDIVIDUALS, AND WHY ARE THEY IMPORTANT?

- Values
- Attitudes

WHAT ARE INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, AND HOW ARE THEY RELATED TO WORKFORCE DIVERSITY?

- Equal Employment Opportunities
- Demography and Individual Differences
  - Aptitude and Ability
  - Managing Diversity and Individual Differences

REVIEW IN END-OF-CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE
More than 39 million Hispanics are changing the face of banking—especially for mega Bank of America (nearly $50 billion in revenues in a recent year). Maria Hijar personifies one such change. She came to America 10 years ago from a tiny bean-growing village in Mexico with a promise to send money back to her mother and nine siblings. A major problem was that she had a one-hour metro ride from the houses she cleaned to a cut-rate money changing and transmittal shop in central Los Angeles. Then she stood in line another hour and paid up to $35 for each remittance. Similarly, in Mexico, her sister would take a three-hour bus ride to collect funds at a bank, then spend three hours traveling back.

However, recently things changed. Maria came upon Bank of America’s SafeSend. Now all Maria has to do is grab the phone and punch buttons to transfer money from her checking to her SafeSend account. From there, Bank of America zips the money to a special ATM account for Maria in Mexico. Her sister travels only 15 minutes to the nearest ATM and withdraws the funds in pesos using her SafeSend card. “This changed my life,” says Maria. She is now thinking about getting a Bank of America credit card. In this she epitomizes the new face of banking, and Bank of America is right in the middle of it. The bank dominates the Sunbelt states and is gearing up to grab some 80 percent of its future banking growth through aggressively servicing the fast-growing Hispanic market. A key part of its plan for doing this is to target its own customers, many of whom are Hispanics, who currently use SafeSend. “Hispanics are considered incredibly loyal to brands and to people,” says Eusebio Rivera, Bank of America’s Chief of Hispanic Initiatives.1

What we have described is becoming more and more characteristic of our rapidly changing economy—diversity at both the employee and customer levels. With diversity come differences, and with differences come a mix of potential opportunities and problems. Along with diversity and other individual differences come personality, values, and attitudes—all together comprising the bedrock of OB concepts examined in this chapter.

**Personality**

As the chapter opening suggests, a key individual attribute in the workforce is personality.

**What is Personality?**

The term *personality* encompasses the overall combination of characteristics that capture the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others. As an example, think of a person who was the billionaire founder of...
a fast-growing, high-tech computer company by the time he was 30; who in his senior year in high school had turned selling newspapers into enough of a business to buy a BMW; who told his management team that his daughter’s first words were “Daddy—kill-IBM, Gateway, Compaq”; who learned from production mistakes and brought in senior managers to help his firm; and who is so private he seldom talks about himself. In other words, think of Michael Dell, the founder of Dell Computer, and his personality.2

Personality combines a set of physical and mental characteristics that reflect how a person looks, thinks, acts, and feels. Sometimes attempts are made to measure personality with questionnaires or special tests. Frequently, personality can be inferred from behavior alone, such as by the actions of Michael Dell. Either way, personality is an important individual characteristic for managers to understand. An understanding of personality contributes to an understanding of organizational behavior in that we expect a predictable interplay between an individual’s personality and his or her tendency to behave in certain ways.

**Personality and Development**

Just what determines personality? Is personality inherited or genetically determined, or is it formed by experience? You may have heard someone say something like, “She acts like her mother.” Similarly, someone may argue that “Bobby is the way he is because of the way he was raised.” These two arguments illustrate the nature/nurture controversy: Is personality determined by heredity—that is, by genetic endowment—or by one’s environment? As Figure 4.1 shows, these two forces actually operate in combination. Heredity consists of those factors that are determined at conception, including physical characteristics, gender, and personality factors. Environment consists of cultural, social, and situational factors.

The impact of heredity on personality continues to be the source of considerable debate. Perhaps the most general conclusion we can draw is that heredity sets the limits on just how much personality characteristics can be developed; environment determines development within these limits. For instance, a person could be born with a tendency toward authoritarianism, and that tendency could be reinforced in an authoritarian work environment. These limits appear to vary

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**Figure 4.1** Heredity and environmental linkage with personality.
from one characteristic to the next, and across all characteristics there is about a 50–50 heredity–environment split. As we show throughout this book, cultural values and norms play a substantial role in the development of an individual’s personality and behaviors. Contrast the individualism of U.S. culture with the collectivism of Mexican culture, for example. Social factors reflect such things as family life, religion, and the many kinds of formal and informal groups in which people participate throughout their lives—friendship groups, athletic groups, as well as formal workgroups. Finally, the demands of differing situational factors emphasize or constrain different aspects of an individual’s personality. For example, in class you are likely to rein in your high spirits and other related behaviors encouraged by your personality. However, at a sporting event, you may be jumping up, cheering, and loudly criticizing the referees.

The developmental approaches of Chris Argyris, Daniel Levinson, and Gail Sheehy systematically examine the ways personality develops across time. Argyris notes that people develop along a continuum of dimensions from immaturity to maturity, as shown in Figure 4.2. He believes that many organizations treat mature adults as if they were still immature and that this creates many problems in terms of bringing out the best in employees. Levinson and Sheehy maintain that an individual’s personality unfolds in a series of stages across time. Sheehy’s model, for example, talks about three stages—ages 18–30, 30–45, and 45–85+. Each of these has a crucial impact on the worker’s employment and career, as we show in Chapter 7. The implications are that personalities develop over time and require different managerial responses. Thus, the needs and other personality aspects of people initially entering an organization change sharply as they move through different stages or toward increased maturity.

Personality and the Self-Concept
Collectively, the ways in which an individual integrates and organizes the previously mentioned personality aspects and the traits they contain are referred to as personality dynamics. It is this category that makes personality more than just the sum of the separate traits. A key personality dynamic in your study of OB is the self-concept.
We can describe the **self-concept** as the view individuals have of themselves as physical, social, and spiritual or moral beings. It is a way of recognizing oneself as a distinct human being. A person’s self-concept is greatly influenced by his or her culture. For example, Americans tend to disclose much more about themselves than do the English; that is, an American’s self-concept is more assertive and talkative.

Two related—and crucial—aspects of the self-concept are self-esteem and self-efficacy. **Self-esteem** is a belief about one’s own worth based on an overall self-evaluation. People high in self-esteem see themselves as capable, worthwhile, and acceptable and tend to have few doubts about themselves. The opposite is true of a person low in self-esteem. Some OB research suggests that whereas high self-esteem generally can boost performance and human resource maintenance, when under pressure, people with high self-esteem may become boastful and act egotistically. They may also be overconfident at times and fail to obtain important information.

**ETHICS AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY**

**NICKLAUS AND THE FIRST TEE**

Jack Nicklaus’s father introduced him to golf and, within the game’s context, Jack learned respect, integrity, and sportsmanship lessons. Jack, often acknowledged as the greatest player in history, wanted to teach these same lessons to current youths. Thus, he eagerly embraced The First Tee, a World Golf Foundation initiative that gives America’s youth a chance to develop life-enhancing values through golf and character education. He passes on what he learned from his father.

The immediate goal is to introduce half a million kids to golf by December 2005. Nicklaus speaks throughout the country to promote the $50 million effort. He also raises money for Mended Hearts, a cardiovascular patient support group.

**Question:** How would you relate Nicklaus’s behavior and values to your estimate of his self-concept?

**Self-efficacy,** sometimes called the “effectance motive,” is a more specific version of self-esteem it is an individual’s belief about the likelihood of successfully completing a specific task. You could be high in self-esteem yet have a feeling of low self-efficacy about performing a certain task, such as public speaking.

**How Personalities Differ**

**Big Five Personality Traits**

Numerous lists of personality traits—enduring characteristics describing an individual’s behavior—have been developed, many of which have been used in OB research and can be looked at in different ways. A key starting point is to con-
Consider the personality dimensions that recent research has distilled from extensive lists into what is called the “Big Five”:10

- **Extraversion**—outgoing, sociable, assertive
- **Agreeableness**—good-natured, trusting, cooperative
- **Conscientiousness**—responsible, dependable, persistent
- **Emotional stability**—unworried, secure, relaxed
- **Openness to experience**—imaginative, curious, broad-minded

Standardized personality tests determine how positively or negatively an individual scores on each of these dimensions. For instance, a person scoring high on openness to experience tends to ask lots of questions and to think in new and unusual ways. You can consider a person’s individual personality profile across the five dimensions. In terms of job performance, research has shown that conscientiousness predicts job performance across five occupational groups of professions—engineers, police, managers, salespersons, and skilled and semiskilled employees. Predictability of the other dimensions depends on the occupational group. For instance, not surprisingly, extraversion predicts performance for sales and managerial positions.

A second approach to looking at OB personality traits is to divide them into social traits, personal conception traits, and emotional adjustment traits, and then to consider how those categories come together dynamically.11

### Social Traits

**Social traits** are surface-level traits that reflect the way a person appears to others when interacting in various social settings. Problem-solving style, based on the work of Carl Jung, a noted psychologist, is one measure representing social traits.12 It reflects the way a person goes about gathering and evaluating information in solving problems and making decisions.

*Information gathering* involves getting and organizing data for use. Styles of information gathering vary from sensation to intuitive. *Sensation-type individuals* prefer routine and order and emphasize well-defined details in gathering information; they would rather work with known facts than look for possibilities. By contrast, *intuitive-type individuals* prefer the “big picture.” They like solving new problems, dislike routine, and would rather look for possibilities than work with facts.

The second component of problem solving, *evaluation*, involves making judgments about how to deal with information once it has been collected. Styles of information evaluation vary from an emphasis on feeling to an emphasis on thinking. *Feeling-type individuals* are oriented toward conformity and try to accommodate themselves to other people. They try to avoid problems that may result in disagreements. *Thinking-type individuals* use reason and intellect to deal with problems and downplay emotions.

When these two dimensions (information gathering and evaluation) are combined, four basic problem-solving styles result: sensation–feeling (SF), intuitive–feeling (IF), sensation–thinking (ST), and intuitive–thinking (IT), together with summary descriptions, as shown in Figure 4.3.

Research indicates that there is a fit between the styles of individuals and the kinds of decisions they prefer. For example, STs (sensation–thinkers) prefer analytical strategies—those that emphasize detail and method. IFs (intuitive–feelers)
prefer intuitive strategies—those that emphasize an overall pattern and fit. Not surprisingly, mixed styles (sensation–feelers or intuitive–thinkers) select both analytical and intuitive strategies. Other findings also indicate that thinkers tend to have higher motivation than do feelers and that individuals who emphasize sensations tend to have higher job satisfaction than do intuitives. These and other findings suggest a number of basic differences among different problem-solving styles, emphasizing the importance of fitting such styles with a task’s information processing and evaluation requirements.13

Problem-solving styles are most frequently measured by the (typically 100-item) Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which asks individuals how they usually act or feel in specific situations. Firms such as Apple, AT&T, and Exxon, as well as hospitals, educational institutions, and military organizations, have used the Myers–Briggs for various aspects of management development.14

**Figure 4.3** Four problem-solving style summaries.

prefer intuitive strategies—those that emphasize an overall pattern and fit. Not surprisingly, mixed styles (sensation–feelers or intuitive–thinkers) select both analytical and intuitive strategies. Other findings also indicate that thinkers tend to have higher motivation than do feelers and that individuals who emphasize sensations tend to have higher job satisfaction than do intuitives. These and other findings suggest a number of basic differences among different problem-solving styles, emphasizing the importance of fitting such styles with a task’s information processing and evaluation requirements.13

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**Personal Conception Traits**

The personal conception traits represent the way individuals tend to think about their social and physical setting as well as their major beliefs and personal orientation concerning a range of issues.

**Locus of Control** The extent to which a person feels able to control his or her own life is concerned with a person’s internal–external orientation and is measured
by Rotter’s locus of control instrument. People have personal conceptions about whether events are controlled primarily by themselves, which indicates an internal orientation, or by outside forces, such as their social and physical environment, which indicates an external orientation. Internals, or persons with an internal locus of control, believe that they control their own fate or destiny. In contrast, externals, or persons with an external locus of control, believe that much of what happens to them is beyond their control and is determined by environmental forces.

In general, externals are more extraverted in their interpersonal relationships and are more oriented toward the world around them. Internals tend to be more introverted and are more oriented toward their own feelings and ideas. Figure 4.4 suggests that internals tend to do better on tasks requiring complex information processing and learning as well as initiative. Many managerial and professional jobs have these kinds of requirements.

Authoritarianism is a tendency to adhere rigidly to conventional values and to obey recognized authority.

Dogmatism leads a person to see the world as a threatening place and regard authority as absolute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information processing</th>
<th>Internals make more attempts to acquire information, are less satisfied with the amount of information they possess, and are better at utilizing information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Internals are generally more satisfied, less alienated, less rootless, and there is a stronger job satisfaction/performance relationship for them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Internals perform better on learning and problem-solving tasks, when performance leads to valued rewards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control, risk, and anxiety</td>
<td>Internals exhibit greater self-control, are more cautious, engage in less risky behavior, and are less anxious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation, expectancies, and results</td>
<td>Internals display greater work motivation, see a stronger relationship between what they do and what happens to them, expect that working hard leads to good performance, feel more control over their time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response to others</td>
<td>Internals are more independent, more reliant on their own judgment, and less susceptible to the influence of others; they are more likely to accept information on its merit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.4 Some ways in which internals differ from externals.

Authoritarianism/Dogmatism Both “authoritarianism” and “dogmatism” deal with the rigidity of a person’s beliefs. A person high in authoritarianism tends to adhere rigidly to conventional values and to obey recognized authority. This person is concerned with toughness and power and opposes the use of subjective feelings. An individual high in dogmatism sees the world as a threatening place. This person regards legitimate authority as absolute and accepts or rejects others according to how much they agree with accepted authority. Supe-
riors who possess these latter traits tend to be rigid and closed. At the same time, dogmatic subordinates tend to want certainty imposed upon them.\textsuperscript{16}

From an ethical standpoint, we can expect highly authoritarian individuals to present a special problem because they are so susceptible to authority that in their eagerness to comply they may behave unethically.\textsuperscript{17} For example, we might speculate that many of the Nazis who were involved in war crimes during World War II were high in authoritarianism or dogmatism; they believed so strongly in authority that they followed their unethical orders without question.

**Machiavellianism** The third personal conceptions dimension is Machiavellianism, which owes its origins to Niccolo Machiavelli. The very name of this sixteenth-century author evokes visions of a master of guile, deceit, and opportunism in interpersonal relations. Machiavelli earned his place in history by writing *The Prince*, a nobleman’s guide to the acquisition and use of power.\textsuperscript{18} The subject of Machiavelli’s book is manipulation as the basic means of gaining and keeping control of others. From its pages emerges the personality profile of a Machiavellian—one who views and manipulates others purely for personal gain.

Psychologists have developed a series of instruments called Mach scales to measure a person’s Machiavellian orientation.\textsuperscript{19} A high-Mach personality is someone who tends to behave in ways consistent with Machiavelli’s basic principles. Such individuals approach situations logically and thoughtfully and are even capable of lying to achieve personal goals. They are rarely swayed by loyalty, friendships, past promises, or the opinions of others, and they are skilled at influencing others.

Research using the Mach scales provides insight into the way high and low Machs may be expected to behave in various situations. A person with a “cool” and “detached” high-Mach personality can be expected to take control and try to exploit loosely structured environmental situations but will perform in a perfunctory, even detached, manner in highly structured situations. Low Machs tend to accept direction imposed by others in loosely structured situations; they work hard to do well in highly structured ones. For example, we might expect that, where the situation permitted, a high Mach would do or say whatever it took to get his or her way. In contrast, a low Mach would tend to be much more strongly guided by ethical considerations and would be less likely to lie or cheat or to get away with lying or cheating.

**Self-Monitoring** A final personal conceptions trait of special importance to managers is self-monitoring. Self-monitoring reflects a person’s ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational (environmental) factors.\textsuperscript{20}

High self-monitoring individuals are sensitive to external cues and tend to behave differently in different situations. Like high Machs, high self-monitors can present a very different appearance from their true self. In contrast, low self-monitors, like their low-Mach counterparts, aren’t able to disguise their behaviors—“what you see is what you get.” There is also evidence that high self-monitors are closely attuned to the behavior of others and conform more readily than do low self-monitors.\textsuperscript{21} Thus, they appear flexible and may be especially good at responding to the kinds of situational contingencies emphasized throughout this book. For example, high self-monitors should be especially good at changing their leadership behavior to fit subordinates with high or low experience, tasks with high or low structure, and so on.
Emotional Adjustment Traits

The emotional adjustment traits measure how much an individual experiences emotional distress or displays unacceptable acts. Often the person’s health is affected. Although numerous such traits are cited in the literature, a frequently encountered one especially important for OB is the Type A/Type B orientation.

Type A and Type B Orientation

To get a feel for this orientation, take the following quiz and then read on. Circle the number that best characterizes you on each of the following pairs of characteristics.

- Casual about appointments
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Never late

- Not competitive
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Very competitive

- Never feel rushed
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Always feel rushed

- Take one thing at a time
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Try to do many things

- Do things slowly
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Do things fast

- Express my feelings
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Hold in my feelings

- Many outside interests
  - 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - 5
  - 6
  - 7
  - 8
  - Few outside interests

Total your points for the seven items in the quiz. Multiply this total by 3 to arrive at a final score. Use this total to locate your Type A/Type B orientation on the following list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Final Points</th>
<th>A/B Orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 90</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90–99</td>
<td>B+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100–105</td>
<td>A–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106–119</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120 or more</td>
<td>A+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Type A orientations are characterized by impatience, desire for achievement, and perfectionism. In contrast, those with a Type B orientation are characterized as more easygoing and less competitive in relation to daily events.

Type A people tend to work fast and to be abrupt, uncomfortable, irritable, and aggressive. Such tendencies indicate “obsessive” behavior, a fairly widespread—but not always helpful—trait among managers. Many managers are hard-driving, detail-oriented people who have high-performance standards and thrive on routine. But when such work obsessions are carried to the extreme, they may lead to greater concerns for details than for results, resistance to change, overzealous control of subordinates, and various kinds of interpersonal difficulties, which may even include threats and physical violence. In contrast, Type B managers tend to be much more laid back and patient in their dealings with co-workers and subordinates.

Values and Attitudes

Joining personality characteristics as important individual difference characteristics are values and attitudes.
Values can be defined as broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes. As such, values reflect a person’s sense of right and wrong or what “ought” to be.24 “Equal rights for all” and “People should be treated with respect and dignity” are representative of values. Values tend to influence attitudes and behavior. For example, if you value equal rights for all and you go to work for an organization that treats its managers much better than it does its workers, you may form the attitude that the company is an unfair place to work; consequently, you may not produce well or may perhaps leave the company. It’s likely that if the company had had a more egalitarian policy, your attitude and behaviors would have been more positive.

Sources and Types of Values Parents, friends, teachers, and external reference groups are all value sources that can all influence individual values. Indeed, peoples’ values develop as a product of the learning and experience they encounter from various sources in the cultural setting in which they live. As learning and experiences differ from one person to another, value differences result. Such differences are likely to be deep seated and difficult (though not impossible) to change; many have their roots in early childhood and the way a person has been raised.25

The noted psychologist Milton Rokeach has developed a well-known set of values classified into two broad categories.26 Terminal values reflect a person’s preferences concerning the “ends” to be achieved; they are the goals individuals would like to achieve during their lifetime. Rokeach divides values into 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values, as summarized in Figure 4.5. Instrumental values reflect a person’s beliefs about the means for achieving desired ends.

Leaders on Leadership

FOCUSING ON VALUES THROUGH PRAGMATIC INQUIRY

F. Byron (Ron) Nabser owns three businesses, all built around his ethical leadership beliefs while fitting both his Chicago area global clients. He had developed an activity called “pragmatic inquiry,” which helps to determine a “belief” or “truth” in terms of the direct behavior that results from embracing that belief or truth. He and what is called the “Globe Group” use this approach for both clients and their own people to ensure that values are used to drive decisions. A major leadership challenge is how to have people live the values in tough times; for example, “Are we doing the right thing as we downsize?” “Is the way we are treating people a sustainable relationship?”

Question: How are ethics and morality played out in leadership such as Nabser’s?
flect the “means” for achieving desired ends. They represent how you might go about achieving your important end states, depending on the relative importance you attached to the instrumental values.

Illustrative research shows, not surprisingly, that both terminal and instrumental values differ by group (for example, executives, activist workers, and union members). These preference differences can encourage conflict or agreement when different groups have to deal with each other.

Another frequently used classification of human values has been developed by psychologist Gordon Allport and his associates. These values fall into six major types:

- **Theoretical**—interest in the discovery of truth through reasoning and systematic thinking
- **Economic**—interest in usefulness and practicality, including the accumulation of wealth
- **Aesthetic**—interest in beauty, form, and artistic harmony
- **Social**—interest in people and love as a human relationship
- **Political**—interest in gaining power and influencing other people
- **Religious**—interest in unity and in understanding the cosmos as a whole

Once again, groups differ in the way they rank order the importance of these values, as shown in the following:

- **Ministers**—religious, social, aesthetic, political, theoretical, economic
- **Purchasing executive**—economic, theoretical, political, religious, aesthetic, social
- **Industrial scientists**—theoretical, political, economic, aesthetic, religious, social
The previous value classifications have had a major impact on the values literature, but they were not specifically designed for people in a work setting. A more recent values schema, developed by Bruce Maglino and associates, is aimed at people in the workplace:

- **Achievement**—getting things done and working hard to accomplish difficult things in life
- **Helping and concern for others**—being concerned with other people and helping others
- **Honesty**—telling the truth and doing what you feel is right
- **Fairness**—being impartial and doing what is fair for all concerned

These four values have been shown to be especially important in the workplace; thus, the framework should be particularly relevant for studying values in OB.

In particular, values can be influential through **value congruence**, which occurs when individuals express positive feelings upon encountering others who exhibit values similar to their own. When values differ, or are incongruent, conflicts over such things as goals and the means to achieve them may result. Maglino and colleagues’ value schema was used to examine value congruence between leaders and followers. The researchers found greater follower satisfaction with the leader when there was such congruence in terms of achievement, helping, honesty, and fairness values.

**Patterns and Trends in Values**  We should also be aware of applied research and insightful analyses of values trends over time. Daniel Yankelovich, for example, is known for his informative public opinion polls among North American workers, and William Fox has prepared a carefully reasoned book analyzing values trends. Both Yankelovich and Fox note movements away from earlier values, with Fox emphasizing a decline in such shared values as duty, honesty, responsibility, and the like, while Yankelovich notes a movement away from valuing economic incentives, organizational loyalty, and work-related identity. The movement is toward valuing meaningful work, pursuit of leisure, and personal identity and self-fulfillment. Yankelovich believes that the modern manager must be able to recognize value differences and trends among people at work. For example, he reports finding higher productivity among younger workers who are employed in jobs that match their values and/or who are supervised by managers who share their values, reinforcing the concept of value congruence.

In a nationwide sample, managers and human resource professionals were asked to identify the work-related values they believed to be most important to individuals in the workforce, both now and in the near future. The nine most popular values named were recognition for competence and accomplishments, respect and dignity, personal choice and freedom, involvement at work, pride in one’s work, lifestyle quality, financial security, self-development, and health and wellness. These values are especially important for managers because they indicate some key concerns of the new workforce. Even though each individual worker places his or her own importance on these values, and even though the United States today has by far the most diverse workforce in its history, this overall characterization is a good place for managers to start when dealing with workers in the new workplace. It is important to note, however, that, although
values are individual preferences, many tend to be shared within cultures and organizations.

**Attitudes**

Attitudes are influenced by values and are acquired from the same sources as values: friends, teachers, parents, and role models. Attitudes focus on specific people or objects, whereas values have a more general focus and are more stable than attitudes. “Employees should be allowed to participate” is a value; your positive or negative feeling about your job because of the participation it allows is an attitude. Formally defined, an **attitude** is a predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one’s environment. For example, when you say that you “like” or “dislike” someone or something, you are expressing an attitude. It’s important to remember that an attitude, like a value, is a hypothetical construct; that is, one never sees, touches, or actually isolates an attitude. Rather, attitudes are **inferred** from the things people say, informally or in formal opinion polls or through their behavior.

Figure 4.6 shows attitudes as accompanied by antecedents and results. The beliefs and values antecedents in the figure form the **cognitive component** of an attitude: the beliefs, opinions, knowledge, or information a person possesses. The **affective component** of an attitude is a specific feeling regarding the personal impact of the antecedents. The **behavioral component** is an intention to behave in a certain way based on your specific feelings or attitudes.

**Beliefs** represent ideas about someone or something and the conclusions people draw about them.

**The affective component** of an attitude is a specific feeling regarding the personal impact of the antecedents.

**The behavioral component** is an intention to behave in a certain way based on your specific feelings or attitudes.

**Attitudes and Behavior** You should recognize that the link between attitudes and behavior is tentative. An attitude results in intended behavior, this intention may or may not be carried out in a given circumstance.
In general, the more specific attitudes and behaviors are, the stronger the relationship. For example, say you are a French-Canadian webmaster and you are asked about your satisfaction with your supervisor’s treatment of French-Canadian webmasters. You also indicate the strength of your intent to look for another webmaster job in a similar kind of organization within the next six months. Here, both the attitude and the behavior are specifically stated (they refer to French-Canadian webmasters, and they identify a given kind of organization over a specific time period). Thus, we would expect to find a relatively strong relationship between these attitudes and how aggressively you actually start looking for another webmaster job.

It is also important that a good deal of freedom be available to carry out the intent. In the example just given, the freedom to follow through would be sharply restricted if the demand for webmasters dropped substantially.

Finally, the attitude and behavior linkage tends to be stronger when the person in question has had experience with the stated attitude. For example, assuming you are a business administration or management major, the relationship between your course attitude and/or your intent to drop the course and your later behavior of actually doing so would probably be stronger in your present OB course than in the first week of your enrollment in an advanced course in nuclear fission.35

Attitudes and the Workplace

Even though attitudes do not always predict behavior, the link between attitudes and potential or intended behavior is important for managers to understand. Think about your work experiences or conversations with other people about their work. It is not uncommon to hear concerns expressed about someone’s “bad attitude.” These concerns typically reflect displeasure with the behavioral consequences with which the poor attitude is associated. Unfavorable attitudes in the form of low job satisfaction can result in costly labor turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and even impaired physical or mental health. One of the manager’s responsibilities, therefore, is to recognize attitudes and to understand both their antecedents and their potential implications.

Attitudes and Cognitive Consistency

Leon Festinger, a noted social psychologist, uses the term cognitive dissonance to describe a state of inconsistency between an individual’s attitudes and his or her behavior.36 Let’s assume that you have the attitude that recycling is good for the economy but you don’t recycle. Festinger predicts that such an inconsistency results in discomfort and a desire to reduce or eliminate it by (1) changing the underlying attitude, (2) changing future behavior, or (3) developing new ways of explaining or rationalizing the inconsistency.

Two factors that influence which of the above choices tend to be made are the degree of control a person thinks he or she has over the situation and the magnitude of the rewards involved. In terms of control, if your boss won’t let you recycle office trash, you would be less likely to change your attitude than if you voluntarily chose not to recycle. You might instead choose the rationalization option. In terms of rewards, if they are high enough, rewards tend to reduce your feeling of inconsistency: if I’m rewarded even though I don’t recycle, the lack of recycling must not be so bad after all.
CULTURES AND THE GLOBAL WORKFORCE

BASEBALL GLOBALIZATION

Welcome to the globalization of baseball. Not long ago, more than 25 percent of big league players came from outside our borders. The Dominican Republic, with players such as Alfonso Soriano, is today the largest contributor. Bruce Markusen, a historian at the National Baseball Hall of Fame, argues that soon we will be seeing players from such countries as Italy and Holland and that every team needs to have a global presence.

Question: How will the global presence affect personality and individual difference variables needed for successful baseball players?

Individually Differences and Diversity

A majority of Fortune 500 companies, including Colgate Palmolive, Corning, and Quaker Oats, are now providing incentives for executives to deal successfully with workforce diversity. Workforce diversity refers to the presence of individual human characteristics that make people different from one another. More specifically, this diversity comprises key demographic differences among members of a given workforce, including gender, race and ethnicity, age, and able-bodiedness. Sometimes they also encompass other factors, such as marital status, parental status, and religion. The challenge is how to manage workforce diversity in a way that both respects the individual’s unique perspectives and contributions and promotes a shared sense of organization vision and identity.

Workforce diversity has increased in both the United States and Canada, as it has in much of the rest of the world. For example, in the United States, between 2000 and 2010, females are expected to increase by 15 percent so that more than 62 percent of the women in the United States are expected to be working in 2010. Also, African-Americans are expected to increase by 26 percent and Hispanics by 43 percent. At the same time, those 40 and older are projected to make up more than one-half of the labor force.

Workforce diversity is differences based on gender, race and ethnicity, age, and able-bodiedness.

Stereotyping occurs when one thinks of an individual as belonging to a group or category (e.g., elderly person) and the characteristics commonly associated with the group or category are assigned to the individual in question.

Demographic characteristics are the background variables (e.g., age, gender) that help shape what a person becomes over time.

Stereotyping occurs when one thinks of an individual as belonging to a group or category (e.g., elderly person) and the characteristics commonly associated with the group or category are assigned to the individual in question. Stereotyping occurs when one thinks of an individual as belonging to a group or category—for instance, elderly person—and the characteristics commonly associated with the group or category are assigned to the individual in question—for instance, older people aren’t creative. Demographic characteristics may serve as the basis of stereotypes that obscure individual differences and prevent people from getting to know others as individuals and accurately assessing their performance potential. If you believe that older people are not creative, for example, you may mistakenly decide not to assign a very inventive 60-year-old person to an important task force.

Discrimination against certain people in the organization is not only a violation of U.S., Canadian, and European Union (EU) laws, but it is also counterpro-
Inductive because it prevents the contributions of people who are discriminated against from being fully utilized. Many firms are increasingly recognizing that a diverse workforce that reflects societal differences helps bring them closer to their customers.

**Equal Employment Opportunity**

Equal employment opportunity involves both workplace nondiscrimination and affirmative action. Employment decisions are nondiscriminatory when there is no intent to exclude or disadvantage legally protected groups. *Affirmative action* is a set of remedial actions designed to compensate for proven discrimination or correct for statistical imbalances in the labor force (e.g., local workers are 90 percent Hispanic, and your organization employs only 10 percent Hispanics).

The most comprehensive statute prohibiting employment discrimination is Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This act prohibits employers from discriminating against any individual with respect to compensation, terms, or conditions of employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Affirmative action plans are required of federal government agencies and federal contractors, as well as organizations found to be in noncompliance with equal employment opportunity provisions. Many organizations also have implemented voluntary affirmative action plans.

Affirmative action is legally driven by federal, state and provincial, and local laws, as well as numerous court cases. It requires written reports containing plans and statistical goals for specific groups of people in terms of such employment practices as hiring, promotions, and layoffs.

**Demography and Individual Differences**

Demographic characteristics are the background characteristics that help shape what a person becomes. Such attributes may be thought of in both current terms—for example, an employee’s current medical status—and historical terms—for instance, where and how long a person has worked at various jobs. Demographic characteristics of special interest from equal employment opportunity and workplace diversity considerations include gender, age, able-bodiedness, and race and ethnicity.

**Gender** The research on working women in general tells us that there are very few differences between men and women that affect job performance (see The Effective Manager 4.1). Thus, men and women show no consistent differences in their problem-solving abilities, analytical skills, competitive drive, motivation, learning ability, or sociability. However, women are reported to be more conforming and to have lower expectations of success than men do. And women’s absenteeism rates tend to be higher than those of men. This latter finding may change, however, as we see men starting to play a more active role in raising children; absenteeism is

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**THE EFFECTIVE MANAGER 4.1**

**Tips in Dealing with Male and Female Managers**

- Do not assume that male and female managers differ in personal qualities.
- Make sure that policies, practices, and programs minimize gender differences in managers’ job experiences.
- Do not assume that management success is more likely for either females or males.
- Recognize that there will be excellent, good, and poor managers within each gender.
- Understand that success requires the best use of human talent, regardless of gender.
also likely to be less frequent as telecommuting, flexible working hours, and the
like become more prevalent.\textsuperscript{44} In respect to pay, women’s earnings have risen
slowly from 59 percent of men’s in 1975 to 76 percent more recently.\textsuperscript{45} Certainly,
this rise is not consistent with the large increase of women in the labor force
since 1970.\textsuperscript{46}

We have summarized a number of individual differences between men and
women in the workplace and generally found few differences. Now, following
recent researchers and recognizing the controversial nature of data, we summa-
rize conclusions about differences between men and women as leaders.\textsuperscript{47} We fo-
cus on three leadership questions: (1) What are differences in men’s and
women’s leadership behaviors? (2) Is there prejudice against female leaders? (3)
What are some leadership prospects for women?

\textbf{Differences in Leader Behaviors} First, women tend to be more democratic and
less autocratic than men, but not by much. Second, women tend to engage in
more transformational behavior and deliver more rewards for good performance
than do men.

\textbf{Prejudice Against Females} Prejudice toward female leaders can come when
conforming to their gender (communal) role would produce a failure to meet re-
quirements of the leader role and conforming to the leader role would produce
a failure to meet requirements of their gender role. The latter can result in lesser
rewards for appropriate leadership behavior than a man would receive.

\textbf{Leadership Prospects} In spite of the prejudice that still exists, the outlook for
women’s leadership participation is promising. More and more women are en-
tering leadership positions in industrialized countries. Also, organizations can
gain from putting women in leadership positions because it enhances the leader-
ship pool.

\textbf{Age} The research findings concerning age are particularly important given the
aging of the workforce. People age 50 and older are expected to increase by
nearly 50 percent between 2000 and 2010.\textsuperscript{48} Older workers are susceptible to be-
ing stereotyped as inflexible and undesirable in other ways. In some cases,
workers as young as age 40 are considered to be “old” and complain that their
experience and skills are no longer valued. Age-discrimination lawsuits are in-
creasingly common in the United States.\textsuperscript{49} Such discrimination also operates in
Britain, where 44 percent of older managers say they have experienced age dis-
crimination.\textsuperscript{50} On the other hand, small businesses in particular tend to value
older workers for their experience, stability, and low turnover. Research is con-
sistent with these preferences and also shows lower avoidable absences among
older workers.\textsuperscript{51} Finally, to the extent that age is linked to experience or job
tenure, there is a positive relationship between seniority and performance. More
experienced workers tend to have low absence rates and relatively low turnover.

\textbf{Able-Bodiedness} Even though recent studies report that disabled workers do
their jobs as well as, or better than, nondisabled workers, nearly three-quarters
of severely disabled persons are reported to be unemployed. Almost 80 percent
of those with disabilities say they want to work.\textsuperscript{52} Once again, the expected
shortage of traditional workers is predicted to lead to a reexamination of hiring
policies. More firms are expected to give serious consideration to hiring disabled workers, particularly given that the cost of accommodating these workers has been shown to be low.53

**PEOPLE AND TECHNOLOGY**

**TECH COMPANIES AND THE BOOMER GENERATION**

To Annemarie Cooke, 50, the world looks somewhat like an impressionist painting. Anything beyond arm's length is almost impossible to make out. Once a newspaper reporter whose vision began to fail some 25 years ago, she now uses software that reads aloud what is on the screen. She is currently an executive at a nonprofit organization for the blind and dyslexic. However, she still has problems with cell phones and their tiny controls, which illustrates that technology companies are just beginning to work hard at making their tech equipment more user-friendly for people with disabilities.

Question: What might be some increasingly user-friendly developments to enhance contributions of older and/or disabled workers?

**Racial and Ethnic Groups** Consistent with some current literature, we use the term “racial and ethnic groups” to reflect the broad spectrum of employees of differing ethnicities or races who make up an ever-increasing portion of the new workforce.54 Of particular significance in the American workplace is diversity reflected in an increasing proportion of African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Hispanic-Americans.55 Projections by the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimate that they will constitute 27 percent of the workforce by 2005. The Hudson Institute extends this projection to 32 percent by 2020.56 The potential for stereotypes and discrimination to adversely affect career opportunities and progress for members of these and other minority groups must be recognized.

Even though employment decisions based on demographic differences are allowable under Title VII if they can be justified as bona fide occupational qualifications reasonable to normal business operations, race cannot be one of these. Case law has shown that these qualifications are always extremely difficult to justify.57 In any event, the job of flight attendant is a case in point. When the airlines failed to show why men could not perform flight attendant duties as well as females, gender restrictions on hiring were lifted.

Before leaving this section on demographic differences, it is important to reiterate the following:

- Demographic variables are important to consider in order to respect and best deal with the needs or concerns of people of different genders, ethnic backgrounds, ages, and so forth.
- However, these differences are too easily linked with stereotypes, which must be avoided.
- Demography is not a good indicator in seeking good individual–job fits. Rather aptitude/ability, personality, and values and attitudes are what count.
Moving beyond demographic differences, let's consider aptitude and ability. **Aptitude** refers to a person's capability of learning something, whereas **ability** refers to a person's existing capacity to perform the various tasks needed for a given job and includes both relevant knowledge and skills. In other words, aptitudes are potential abilities, whereas abilities are the knowledge and skills that an individual currently possesses.

Aptitudes and abilities are important considerations for a manager when initially hiring or selecting candidates for a job. We are all acquainted with various tests used to measure mental aptitudes and abilities. Some of these provide an overall intelligent quotient (IQ) score (e.g., the Stanford-Binet IQ Test). Others provide measures of more specific competencies that are required of people entering various educational programs or career fields. You have probably taken the ACT or SAT college entrance tests. Such tests are designed to facilitate the screening and selection of applicants for educational programs or jobs. In addition to mental aptitudes and abilities, some jobs, such as firefighters and police, require tests for physical abilities. Muscular strength and cardiovascular endurance are two of many physical ability dimensions.

For legal purposes, demonstrated evidence must be presented that those scoring more favorably on the tests will tend to be more successful in their educational program, career field, or job performance than those with lower scores. In other words, there must be a fit between specific aptitudes and abilities and job requirements. If you want to be a surgeon, for instance, and cannot demonstrate good hand–eye coordination, there will not be a good ability–job fit. Such a fit is so important that it is a core an important concept in Chapter 8 on performance management and rewards.

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**Managing Diversity and Individual Differences**

The concept of managing diversity in organizations emphasizes appreciation of differences in creating a setting where everyone feels valued and accepted. This is true not only in the United States but also in Canada, EU countries, and several countries in Asia. Only the details differ. Managing diversity assumes that groups will retain their own characteristics and will shape the firm as well as be shaped by it, creating a common set of values that will strengthen ties with customers, enhance recruitment, and the like. Sometimes diversity management is resisted because of fear of change and discomfort with differences. To deal with this resistance, some countries, such as Canada, have laws designed to encourage the management of diversity at the provincial level through employment equity legislation.

So how do managers deal with all this? To convey the flavor of what some of the more progressive employers have done in managing diversity, let's now consider Boston-based Harvard Pilgrim Health Care (HPHC). Barbara Stern is the Vice President of Diversity. She argues that what has traditionally been a "soft" issue is now becoming a business necessity in terms of better serving customers, understanding markets, and obtaining full benefit from staff talents. Each year, HPHC attempts to in-
crease its diversity in terms of the proportion of women and racial minorities by 0.5 percent, which allows for continuous improvement. Such improvement raised the proportion of minority new hires from 14 to 28 percent over four years, and the total minority employees went from 16 to 21 percent over the same period.

To ensure that diversity was more than just a fad, a corporate diversity council was established. This council set up specific actions to serve as the initial focus of the diversity efforts. The council determined it needed a vice presidential–level person to oversee the effort. The council’s goals were (1) to create accountability for measuring diversity (tie meeting of diversity goals into salaries of the organization’s top 85 managers); (2) to provide a custom-made education program; (3) to develop an explicit code of conduct and communication with a zero-tolerance policy (for example, the code spells out inappropriate behavior, such as racist jokes, and creates appropriate expectations and behavior standards); (4) to commit to creating diverse candidate pools for all managerial hiring and promotion decisions (traditional closed networks that were once used are no longer appropriate); and (5) to use cultural audits, surveys, focus groups, and broad networking groups to assess diversity.

HPHC also includes seven questions in a carefully phrased opinion survey. Questions such as how employees feel they are valued, what they feel their career opportunities are, and how well the organization supports work–life balance are asked. HPHC uses improvements in these areas as partial indicators of successful diversity.

The organization also relies on the Health Triangle—a networking group of more than 200 gay and lesbian employees—and the Disability Council to help the company keep abreast of issues relevant to each group of employees. These groups have also helped to attract additional customers.

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Research Insight

Do Social Skills and General Mental Ability Interact for Job Performance and Salary?

Social skills at work are becoming more widely considered and are recognized as quite different from general mental ability (GMA) in their relationship to job performance and salary, when controlling for personality and demographic characteristics. In a sample of computer programmers, the following linkages were found:

- The relationships between social skills and job performance were stronger among high-GMA programmers.
- The relationships between GMA and job performance were higher among high–social skill employees.
- Increases in social skills (or GMA) for high-GMA (or high–social skill) employees were associated with higher salaries.
- Surprisingly, increases in social skills (or GMA) for low-GMA (or low–social skill) individuals were associated with lower salaries.

Thus, social skills and GMA in most combinations contributed to performance and salary.

Stern argues that simplicity and clarity are keys in diversity communication. She states that one should be able to communicate the information in 10 minutes and make it easy to understand represent the data in a variety of ways report on progress and keep people at all levels informed about the progress. The Effective Manager 4.2 provides an example and illustrates insights suitable for diversity programs in general.

The following factors, encompassing and moving beyond those of HPHC, have been obtained from in-depth interviews and focus groups—they are important in tracking diversity programs: demographics, organizational culture, accountability, productivity, growth and profitability, benchmarking against the “best” programs, and measurement of the program. Additionally, the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) has developed a survey instrument for focusing on a bottom-line analysis of diversity programs.

Some firms, such as Microsoft, have moved far toward measurement and computerization of key diversity measures. Three Microsoft employees, Jonathan Stutz, Randy Massengale, and Andrea Gordon, developed the SMG Index acronym. It provides a separate bottom-line figure, encompassing both Microsoft’s women and minorities; it allows managers to analyze goals and accomplishments for both affirmative action and diversity. The lower the SMG Index (zero is best), the lower the percentage of hires, promotions, and/or retentions needed to correct group disparities. The Index is compared across groups and time.

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**Chapter 4 Study Guide**

**Summary**

**What is personality?**
- Personality captures the overall profile, or combination of characteristics, that represents the unique nature of an individual as that individual interacts with others.
- Personality is determined by both heredity and environment; across all personality characteristics, the mix of heredity and environment is about 50-50.

**How do personalities differ?**
- The Big Five personality traits consist of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience.
- A useful personality framework consists of social traits, personal conception traits, emotional adjustment traits, and personality dynamics, where each category represents one or more personality dimensions.
Personality characteristics are important because of their predictable interplay with an individual’s behavior. Along with demographics and aptitude/ability differences, personality characteristics must be matched to organizations and jobs.

What are value and attitude differences among individuals, and why are they important?
- Values are broad preferences concerning courses of action or outcomes.
- Rokeach divides 18 values into terminal values (preferences concerning ends) and instrumental values (preferences concerning means).
- Allport and his associates identify six value categories, ranging from theoretical to religious.
- Maglino and his associates classify values into achievement, helping and concern for others, honesty, and fairness.
- There have been societal changes in value patterns away from economic and organizational loyalty and toward meaningful work and self-fulfillment.
- Attitudes are a predisposition to respond positively or negatively to someone or something in one’s environment; they are influenced by values but are more specific.
- Individuals desire consistency between their attitudes and their behaviors.
- Values and attitudes are important because they indicate predispositions toward behaviors.
- Along with demographics, aptitude/ability, and personality differences, values and attitudes need to be matched to organizations and jobs.

What are individual differences, and how are they related to workforce diversity?
- Workforce diversity is the mix of gender, race and ethnicity, age, and able-bodiedness in the workforce.
- Workforces in the United States, Canada, and Europe are becoming more diverse, and valuing and managing such diversity is becoming increasingly more important to enhance organizational competitiveness and provide individual development.
- Demographic differences are background characteristics that help shape what a person has become.
- Gender, age, race and ethnicity, and able-bodiedness are particularly important demographic characteristics.
- The use of demographic differences in employment is covered by a series of federal, state/provincial, and local laws outlawing discrimination.
- Demographic differences can be the basis for inappropriate stereotyping that can influence workplace decisions and behaviors.
- Aptitude is a person’s capability of learning something.
- Ability is a person’s existing capacity to perform the various tasks needed for a given job.
- Aptitudes are potential abilities.
- Both mental and physical aptitudes and abilities are used in matching individuals to organizations and jobs.
- Managing diversity and individual differences involves striving for a match among the firm, specific jobs, and the people recruited, hired, and developed, while recognizing an increasingly diverse workforce.
Increasing workforce diversity is provided by equal employment opportunity, through nondiscrimination and affirmative action; ethical considerations; local, national, and global competitive pressures; and a projected change in the nature of the workforce.

Once a match between organizational and job requirements and individual characteristics is obtained, it is necessary to manage the increasing diversity in the workforce.

Firms now use a wide variety of practices in managing workforce diversity; for example, interactive networks, recruitment, education, development, promotion, pay, and assessment.

Key Terms

| Ability (p. 00)               | Demographic characteristics (p. 00) | Self-monitoring (p. 00) |
| Affective component (p. 00)  | Developmental approaches (p. 00)   | Social traits (p. 00)   |
| Aptitude (p. 00)              | Dogmatism (p. 00)                  | Sources and types of values (p. 00) |
| Attitude (p. 00)              | Emotional adjustment traits (p. 00) | Stereotyping (p. 00)   |
| Authoritarianism (p. 00)      | Instrumental values (p. 00)        | Terminal values (p. 00) |
| Behavioral component (p. 00) | Personality (p. 00)                | Type A orientation (p. 00) |
| Beliefs (p. 00)               | Personality dynamics (p. 00)       | Type B orientation (p. 00) |
| Cognitive component (p. 00)   | Self-concept (p. 00)               | Value congruence (p. 00) |
| Cognitive dissonance (p. 00)  |                                   | Values (p. 00)          |

Self-Test 4

**Multiple Choice**

1. In the United States, Canada, the European Union, and much of the rest of the world, the workforce is ___________. (a) becoming more homogeneous (b) more highly motivated than before (c) becoming more diverse (d) less motivated than before

2. Stereotyping occurs when one thinks of an individual ___________. (a) as different from others in a given group (b) as possessing characteristics commonly associated with members of a given group (c) as like some members of a given group but different from others (d) as basically not very competent

3. Managing diversity and affirmative action are ___________. (a) similar terms for the same thing (b) both mandated by law (c) different but complementary (d) becoming less and less important

4. Aptitudes and abilities are divided into ___________. (a) stereotypes (b) physical and mental (c) mental and personality (d) aggressive and passive

5. The Big Five framework consists of ___________. (a) five aptitudes and abilities (b) five demographic characteristics (c) extraversion, agreeableness, strength, emotional stability, and openness to experience (d) extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience

6. Personality dynamics is represented by ___________. (a) self-esteem and self-efficacy (b) Type A/Type B orientation (c) self-monitoring (d) Machiavellianism

7. Values and attitudes are ___________. (a) similar to aptitudes and abilities (b) used interchangeably (c) related to each other (d) similar to demographic characteristics

8. Managing workforce diversity involves ___________. (a) matching organizational and job requirements with increasingly diverse individuals (b) giving preference to tradi-
tional white American males (c) giving preference to nontraditional, nonwhite male workers (d) making sure quotas of workers in various categories are emphasized

9. Social traits are __________. (a) deep seated and difficult to understand (b) surface-level traits that reflect the way a person appears to others when interacting in various social settings (c) the single most important personality dimension (d) strongly endorsed by the U.S. government.

10. Locus of control _________. (a) is another name for authoritarianism/dogmatism (b) is another name for Machiavellianism (c) is similar to Type A/Type B orientation (d) is an important value.

11. Values in the United States __________. (a) are largely unchanged across time (b) have moved away from earlier values (c) are virtually the same as attitudes (d) tend not to be shared within cultures and organizations.

12. A majority of Fortune 500 companies ________. (a) provide incentives for executives to deal successfully with workplace diversity (b) are moving away from workforce diversity (c) emphasize stereotyping (d) are hiring fewer females than before.

13. Attitudes tend to __________. (a) follow values (b) either follow or precede behavior (c) be unrelated to behavior (d) be more general than values.

14. Demographic differences ________. (a) are especially valuable in selecting workers (b) are based on aptitudes and abilities (c) are the background variables that help shape what a person becomes over time (d) are important personality aspects.

15. Personality traits __________. (a) can sometimes be inferred by behavior (b) are unrelated to behavior (c) are mostly determined by environment (d) consist of behaviors, values, and attitudes.

**Short Response**

16. What does managing diversity and individual differences mean in the workplace?

17. Why are diversity and individual differences important in the workplace?

18. In what ways are demographic characteristics important in the workplace?

19. Why are personality characteristics important in the workplace?

**Applications Essay**

20. Your boss is trying to figure out how to get the kinds of people she needs for her organization to do well, while at the same time dealing appropriately with an increasing number of nonwhite female and male workers. She has asked you to respond to this concern. Prepare a short report with specific suggestions for your boss.

These learning activities from the *OB Skills Workbook* are suggested for Chapter 4.

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<th>CASE</th>
<th>EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES</th>
<th>SELF-ASSESSMENT</th>
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Plus—special learning experiences from *The Jossey-Bass Pfeiffer Collection*