

3. Individual Difference

Understanding Key Concept

- Aptitude represents a person's capability of learning something.
- Ability reflects a person's existing capacity to perform the various tasks needed for a given job.
- Values can be defined as broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes.
- Sources and types of values Parents, friends, teachers, and external reference groups can all influence individual values.
- Terminal values reflect a person's preferences concerning the "ends" to be achieved.
- Instrumental values reflect a person's beliefs about the means for achieving desired ends.
- Value congruence occurs when individuals express positive feelings upon encountering others who exhibit values similar to their own.
- Attitude is a predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one's environment.
- The cognitive component of an attitude reflects the beliefs, opinions, knowledge, or information a person possesses.
- 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.
- Cognitive dissonance describes a state of inconsistency between an individual's attitude and behavior.
- Personality represents the overall profile or combination of characteristics that capture the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others.
- Social traits are surface level traits that reflect the way a person appears to others when interacting in various social settings.
- 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.
- Self-monitoring reflects a person's ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational (environmental) factors.

Aptitude and Ability

Demographic characteristics are sometimes used erroneously as stereotypes in place of assessing a person's true aptitude or ability. Aptitude represents a person's capability of learning something, whereas ability reflects 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 concept on managing human resources.

Values and Attitude

Joining demographic and personality characteristics as important individual difference characteristics are values and attitudes.

VALUES

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.⁸⁴ "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 equalitarian policy, your attitude and behaviors would have been more positive.

Sources and Types of Values Parents, friends, teachers, and external reference groups can all influence individual values. Indeed, peoples' values develop as a product of the learning and experience they encounter 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.

The noted psychologist Milton Rokeach has developed a well-known set of values classified into two broad categories. 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 1.9. Instrumental values reflect 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 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. The Maglino et al. 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 on values trends over time. Daniel Yankelovich, for example, is known for his informative public opinion polls. Among North American workers, Yankelovich notes a movement away from valuing economic incentives, organizational loyalty, and work-related identity and 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 1.10 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. Beliefs represent ideas about someone or something and the conclusions people draw about them; they convey a sense of “what is” to an individual. “My job lacks responsibility” is a belief shown in the figure. Note that the beliefs may or may not be accurate. “Responsibility is important” is a corresponding aspect of the cognitive component, which reflects an underlying value.

The affective component of an attitude is a specific feeling regarding the personal impact of the antecedents. This is the actual attitude itself, such as “I don’t like my job.” The behavioral component is an intention to behave in a certain way based on your specific feelings or attitudes. This intended behavior is a result of an attitude and is a predisposition to act in a specific way, such as “I’m going to quit my job.”

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.

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. 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.

Managing Diversity and Individual Differences

Dealing with diversity and individual differences has to be included among the most important

issues challenging all managers in the quest for high performance and organizational competitiveness. This is true not only in the United States but also in Canada, European Union countries, and several countries in Asia. Only the details differ. 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.⁹⁸ 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 increase 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.

Personality

In addition to demographics and aptitude and ability, a third important individual attribute is personality. The term personality represents the overall profile or 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.

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 implied 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 DETERMINANTS 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 1.5 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 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 work groups. 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 1.6. He believes that many organizations treat mature adults as if they were still immature and 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. The implications are that personalities develop over time and require different managerial responses. Thus, needs and other personality aspects of people initially entering an organization change sharply as they move through different stages or toward increased maturity.

Personality Traits and Classifications

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. First, recent research has examined people using extensive lists of personality dimensions and distilled them into the “Big Five:”

- 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, sales, 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.

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. 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 1.7.

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 analytic 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.

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.

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 extroverted 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 1.8 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/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. Superiors who possess these latter traits tend to be rigid and closed. At the same time, dogmatic subordinates tend to want certainty imposed upon them.

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. 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 Niccolò 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. 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—someone 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. 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.

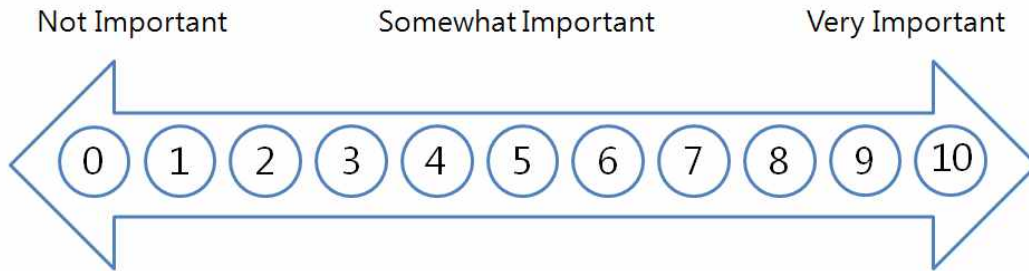
Self-Monitoring A final personal conceptions trait of special importance to managers is self-monitoring. Self-monitoring reflects a person's ability to adjust his or her behavior to external, situational (environmental) factors. High self-monitoring individuals are sensitive to external cues and tend 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. 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.

Self Assessment on 'Personal Values'

Instructions

Below are 16 items. Rate how important each one is to you on a scale of 0 (not important) to 100 (very important). Write the numbers 0-100 on the line to the left of each item.

Use eleven scales below.



- ___ 1. An enjoyable, satisfying job.
- ___ 2. A high-paying job.
- ___ 3. A good marriage.
- ___ 4. Meeting new people; social events.
- ___ 5. Involvement in community activities.
- ___ 6. My religion.
- ___ 7. Exercising, playing sports.
- ___ 8. Intellectual development.
- ___ 9. A career with challenging opportunities.
- ___ 10. Nice cars, clothes, home, etc.
- ___ 11. Spending time with family.
- ___ 12. Having several close friends.
- ___ 13. Volunteer work for not-for-profit organizations, such as the cancer society.
- ___ 14. Meditation, quiet time to think, pray, etc.
- ___ 15. A healthy, balanced diet.
- ___ 16. Educational reading, TV, self-improvement programs, etc.

Scoring

Transfer the numbers for each of the 16 items to the appropriate column below, then add the two numbers in each column.

Interpretation

The higher the total in any area, the higher the value you place on that particular area. The closer the numbers are in all eight areas, the more well-rounded you are. Think about the time and effort you put forth in your top three values. Is it sufficient to allow you to achieve the

Section	Professional	Financial	Family	Social	Community	Spiritual	Physical	Intellectual
Question	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
No.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
Total								

level of success you want in each area? If not, what can you do to change? Is there any area in which you feel you should have a higher value total? If yes, which, and what can you do to change?

Self Assessment on 'Emotional Adjustment Traits'¹⁾

Instructions

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.

Scoring

FINAL POINTS A/B ORIENTATION

Below 90	B
90-99	B+
100-105	A-
106-119	A
120 or more	A+

Interpretation

Individuals with a Type A orientation are characterized by impatience, desire for achievement, and perfectionism. In contrast, those with Type B orientations are characterized as more

1) John R. Schermerhorn, Jr., James G. Hunt, and Richard N. Osborn, *Organizational Behavior* 7th ed., (Wiley, 2002) pp. 25-26.

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.