2 Knowing and Managing Yourself

To do . . . things well, you'll need to cultivate a deep understanding of yourself—not only what your strengths and weaknesses are but also how you learn, how you work with others, what your values are, and where you can make the greatest contribution.

—Peter Drucker, management theorist

Every human has four endowments—self awareness, conscience, independent will and creative imagination. These give us the ultimate human freedom. The power to choose, to respond, to change.

—Stephen Covey, author

For more than 2,000 years, knowledge of the self has been considered to be at the very core of human behavior. We are all familiar with the ancient Greek admonition to "know thyself." But this time-honored advice still has a great deal of currency. Knowing yourself and being reflective about your own behavior is essential to realizing your potential and having positive relationships with others. Erich Fromm (1939) was one of the first behavioral scientists to comment on the close connection between an individual's self-concept and his or her views of others. Fromm believed, for example, that hatred against oneself is inseparable from hatred against others. Indeed, Carl Rogers (1961) argued that the most basic human need is for self-acceptance, which he found in his clinical cases to be more important than physiological needs. According to Rogers, self-acceptance is necessary for psychological health, personal growth, and the ability to know and accept others. Peter Drucker wrote before his death in 2005 that the need to manage oneself was creating a revolution in human affairs. He assessed that with the increase in longevity and decline in job security, "individuals have to think hard about where their strengths lie, what they can contribute, and how they can improve their own performance" (as cited in Pink, 2009, p. 210).

Knowledge of ourselves not only is valuable from a personal standpoint but also is critical to success and satisfaction in our work lives. Many contemporary public and nonprofit organizations are experimenting with new approaches to organizing and managing—approaches that take them far beyond the top-down, rule-bound hierarchies of the past. These changes are not easy for organizations or for the individuals who work in them. Adopting new ways of operating often requires significant changes in our basic thinking about work and our psychological response to it.

AN EXAMPLE ON CHANGES IN SELF-AWARENESS
THE EVOLUTION OF JEFFREY KATZENBERG

Jeffrey Katzenberg recently extended his contract as CEO of DreamWorks Animation to 2017 with an annual base salary of $2.5 million. Since its foundation in 1994, the studio has produced hits such as the *Shrek* movies, *Puss in Boots*, and *Kung Fu Panda*, with the latter two grossing $1.2 billion globally (Snider, 2012). Katzenberg partnered with Steven Spielberg and David Geffen to start the company after he was unceremoniously fired from Disney in 1994.

His career includes serving as president of Paramount Studios and chairman of the Walt Disney Studios, but despite his amazing talent and continued success, Katzenberg had a reputation for being demanding, sometimes unreasonable, and having very public outbursts of anger, lashing out at colleagues and Hollywood stars. A Disney official describing him said, "He was a screamer, and he was a shredder and a very tough force to be reckoned with" (Borden, 2010, p. 106). Katzenberg was reputed to have greeted an employee at 6:30 in the morning with, "Good afternoon," and he joked about telling people, "If you don't come to work on Saturday, don't bother showing up on Sunday" (ZeitgeistMinds, 2012).

However, over the years, Katzenberg has undergone considerable transformation in his approach to leadership. While his tremendous work ethic remains, his attitude has changed, according to Katzenberg himself, because of his firing in 1994 (McNicholas, 2010):

> Getting fired when you're doing your best work can wake you up pretty well. It's called a swift kick in the butt. But I learned from that experience that change is good. You know the saying, "What doesn't kill you makes you stronger?" Well, I'm an optimist. My attitude is when one door closes, another opens. (para. 4–5)

He has learned to temper his impatience because he understands the effect it has on his employees. According to his 2009 interview with Adam Bryant of *The New York Times*, to moderate his extreme drive and impatience, Katzenberg uses what he calls a "five second tape delay" to "self-edit" (para. 26) before he expresses his opinion. He has also become more aware that others may not want to work at the same pace he does:

> Something that I was kind of oblivious to for a long period of time is that I ended up setting a pace for everyone else, and they assumed if the boss is working 24/7, then we all must work 24/7. That's not such a good thing because not everyone loves it as much as I do, and it's not actually how you get the best out of people. (para. 28)

In the Bryant interview (2009), Katzenberg intimated that his biggest leadership lesson has been to cultivate his followers and avoid micromanaging:

> I started to realize that if I wanted to stay surrounded by great people, I had to get out of their way and create the room and make sure they started to get the recognition and the credit and everything that goes with it. Honestly, it allowed me to stay around longer. (para. 24)

According to Amid Amidi (2012), Katzenberg has the following business strategy for leaders in the workplace:

> The thing that I have learned, and I only wish that I knew it twenty-five or thirty years ago, which is to honor and celebrate, recognize and reward your employees and their work—is a fantastic business strategy. If they love their work, they love coming to work, they will strive to do great work and you'll succeed. (para. 2)

For example, most upper-level public and nonprofit sector managers came of age professionally during an era in which success was defined as attaining a position of power and then using that position to direct public and nonprofit programs. Management had a distinctive top-down character; managers presumably were in a position to know what was best for their organizations and to control the behavior of the staff so as to achieve the organization's goals. Success for these managers was defined in terms of bigger budgets and increased personnel. Today, public and nonprofit leadership requires a far different mind-set for these managers in which measures of success are much more ambiguous. Leaders are moving away from the top-down management approach and are finding ways of doing more with less. It is a new ballgame.

Similarly, middle managers are facing changes as they are being given more responsibility to take on assignments that previously were left to upper management. They also are finding new ways of relating to others both within and outside of their organizations. Meanwhile, lower level personnel are being asked to be more productive, to serve their "customers" better, and (in some cases) to become "empowered." Regardless of level, the changes sweeping public and nonprofit organizations today have created considerable ambiguity, confusion, and stress. More than ever, there is the need for ethical competence, which includes moral reasoning, values management, and prudent decision-making (Bowman, West, Berman, & Van Wart, 2004). "Without ethical competence, public [and nonprofit] managers do not use their political, professional, or task competence in right ways" (Virtanen, 2000, p. 336). Our understanding of ourselves will greatly enhance our ability to deal with these difficult times, and the organization also will gain from our self-knowledge.

According to David Sluss and Blake Ashforth (2007), a major breakthrough in research on identity occurred with Marilynn Brewer and Wendi Gardner's 1996 "contrast of the three levels of self." The *individual level* focuses on oneself as a unique being, and self-esteem derives from interpersonal comparisons of traits, abilities, goals, performance, and vision. The individual is essentially independent and autonomous, and its basic motivation is self-interest. The *interpersonal level* focuses on role relationships, such as supervisor–subordinate and colleague–colleague. At this level, the individuals are interdependent, and a premium is placed on the nature of the interaction, the potential for personal connection, and intimacy. The basic motivation at this level is that welfare and self-esteem derive from fulfilling one's role–relationship obligations. Finally, the *collective level* focuses on oneself as a prototypical member of a group, such as the organization, or of a social category, such as gender. Self-esteem derives from intergroup comparison, and the basic motivation is the welfare of the group (p. 9).

We maintain a sense of self from all three levels, and cognitive shifts between the levels are generated by situational cues, such as names, rewards, and uniforms. However, "changes in levels of self-categorization reflect not only differences in views of the self but also different worldviews," including goals, values, and norms (Brewer & Gardner, 1996, p. 91). Let's also keep in mind that self-awareness is a lifelong journey whereby one strives to become more self-aware with each milestone. The focus of this chapter is on the individual level of self, or what we refer to as the *intrapersonal*.

WHERE DO WE BEGIN?

Life Experiences

Whereas attaining self-knowledge is an ongoing, lifelong process, the following are some exercises designed to help you reflect on the experiences, values, and perspectives that shape who you are. Obviously, our personal culture, our life experiences, and our interactions with others affect our self-concepts and our views of the world. What events and relationships have influenced you? Make some notes in response to the following questions:

- What world or national events have taken place during your lifetime?

- Which of these influenced your life most dramatically?

- How was your life influenced by those events?

  (Examples might include 9/11 and Hurricane Maria. More positive influences might have come from an admired leader or public figure.)

- Are there local events that have been particularly influential in your life?

- Were there cultural opportunities or political events in your hometown that were particularly influential?

  (Examples might include activities in a local theater, library, sports team, nonprofit agency, or government.)

- What were your most important educational experiences?

- Which personal relationships influenced you the most?

- What roles have these individuals played in your life?

  (Examples might include relationships with grandparents, parents, teachers, siblings, spouses, or children.)

FIGURE 2.1   **Lifeline of Experiences and Relationships**

	Birth	Childhood	Adolescence	Young Adult	Now
5					
4					
3					
2					
1					
0					
−1					
−2					
−3					
−4					
−5					

Your Lifeline

On the chart in Figure 2.1, plot the major events and relationships of your life and then draw your lifeline. On the horizontal axis, fill in the years beginning with your birth and ending with the current year. On the vertical axis, use a 5-point scale with 0 as the midpoint (5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0, −1, −2, −3, −4, −5) to represent the level of significance of each event or relationship and whether it had a positive or negative impact. This timeline should represent people and events that have had an impact in formulating your values, your style, and your orientation to life. This information might help you later in answering questions regarding your motivation for change and capacity for decision-making.

Knowing Yourself Exercise

Let's practice reflection:

1. Write down two or three of your greatest strengths.

2. Write two or three of your greatest weaknesses.

3. Share these with someone that is close to you and ask how close your reflections are to their perception of you.

4. Revisit this exercise after you have completed the "Increasing Self-Knowledge" exercise at the end of the chapter. Did your initial reflections change?

Ways of Thinking

A summary of organizational and psychological literature by Leanna Holmer (1994) suggests that the extent to which we actually practice what we preach as good management is, in large measure, a function of the competence with which we respond to emotional challenges. The term *emotional challenge* refers to any real or perceived threat to our security, self-image, or sense of self-worth that stimulates our instinctive self-protective tendencies to either withdraw or become aggressive. Leanna Holmer and Guy Adams (1995) asserted that emotional challenges in organizations usually are interpersonal in nature. Interestingly, in these relationships, we often focus on trying to change or control the behavior of other people. The truth is that we can control only one person in a relationship—ourselves. If we can enhance our understanding of ourselves and how our values influence our behavior, if we can gain insight into how our attitudes and behaviors affect others, and if we can accept that how we view the world is not necessarily how others view the world, then we can build our capacity to handle emotional challenges and to maintain positive and productive relationships.

Even though we recognize that self-awareness and self-understanding strongly relate to our sense of well-being, the health of our interpersonal relationships, and our general success in life, sometimes we still avoid learning about ourselves. Abraham Maslow (1962) noted the following:

> We tend to be afraid of any knowledge that would cause us to despise ourselves or to make us feel inferior, weak, worthless, evil, [or] shameful. We protect ourselves and our ideal image of ourselves by repression and similar defenses, which are essentially techniques by which we avoid becoming conscious of unpleasantness or dangerous truths. (p. 57)

The opposite also is true; we fear our highest potentials or abilities—what Maslow (1962) termed our personal "struggles against our own greatness" (p. 57). Nonetheless, being honest with ourselves despite these fears is the first step in becoming who we want to be.

Understanding ourselves might be particularly important in public and non-profit organizations. Michael Diamond (1993), Jerry Harvey (1988), Peter Senge (1990/2006), and others have explored the organizational consequences of failures to develop emotional and interpersonal capacities in leaders, work groups, management teams, and organizations. For example, Robert Denhardt and Janet Denhardt (1999) found that city managers known for their ability to manage change place a premium on knowing themselves and their values. Conversely, managers who lack the maturity and self-confidence to act independently are likely to be ineffective in managing others and in serving the public. Moreover, they might suffer personal psychological damage, especially as they are subjected to the stress and complexity that are almost unavoidable in contemporary public organizations.

The type of knowledge that helps us to cope productively with these challenges operates at multiple levels, involving both cognition and behavior. Robert Denhardt and Maria Aristigueta (2015) suggested that focusing on skill development is a useful way of thinking about these multiple aspects of self-awareness and knowledge. Think about the way in which people learn any skill-based discipline, whether it be sports, art, music, or management. The first level of skill development in any discipline involves *cognitive knowledge* or an intellectual understanding of the basic technical skills that the discipline requires, such as a correct bat swing, a proper brush stroke, a perfect vibrato, or a proper approach to organizational change. But cognitive understanding alone is not enough. People also must develop the *behavioral skills* needed to accomplish these technical moves on every occasion. They not only must know how to swing the bat or mix colors or relax their throat muscles but also be able to do so time after time. For the athlete or artist, this requires extensive practice or rehearsal. The same is true of managers, although in their case the most important skills are not swinging a bat or mixing colors but, rather, becoming effective in terms of interpersonal skills. For managers, these skills are developed through watching and modeling others—through workshops, simulations, case studies, and (most important) experience.

But even those who fully understand their discipline and have acquired the necessary behavioral and technical skills through practice and experience might not always follow the correct course of action. The baseball player might strike out, or the musician might suffer from stage fright. Of course, public and non-profit managers face similar challenges. For example, any modern manager knows the importance of involving employees in organizational change. But even managers who have done so effectively in the past might—under conditions of complexity, uncertainty, and stress—fail to consult and involve others. Something beyond cognitive knowledge and behavioral practice is needed. Like athletes and artists, public and nonprofit managers need not only cognitive knowledge and behavioral skills but also a certain moral and psychological grounding to enable them to act with consistency and integrity. Their actions must be based on a strong sense of self and the capacity to learn from experience and self-reflection. In our view, a strong sense of self provides the core from which we can cultivate a personal vision, be more creative, and deal with ambiguity and change. To become more effective managers, we must engage in learning about ourselves and in gaining greater maturity and self-confidence based on self-reflection and personal learning. It is clear, then, that *people who seek to manage others must first learn to manage*

themselves. Indeed, those who master "self-leadership practices are far more likely to be successful in gaining higher leadership positions and in being considered more effective in those positions" (Van Wart, 2005, p. 364).

Technical ability and intelligence are not enough for success; *emotional intelligence*—a term coined by Daniel Goleman in 1995—is also required. Examine the situation of someone with technical and professional expertise being promoted to a managerial job but failing. The failure may be attributed to management tasks such as planning, organizing, and controlling the use of resources. But it is more likely that it is due to a failure to manage personal relationships as a leader. This is often attributable to a lack of understanding of the individual's own emotions and an inability to appreciate the emotions of the people with whom he or she works (Armstrong, 2004). Emotional intelligence is the key to understanding others' perspectives and needs, resolving conflicts, and wielding influence (Lubit, 2006). According to Andrew Armstrong, Roslyn Galligan, and Christine Critchley (2011), "Emotional intelligence is the antecedent to resilience" (p. 331). Moreover, Jennifer George (2000) tells us that emotional intelligence also affects our ability to make decisions and "enables leaders to both effectively use emotions in decision making and manage emotions which interfere with effective decision making" (p. 1043).

The subject of emotions in organizational behavior research has expanded in the last 15 years. Neal Ashkanasy and Ronald Humphrey (2011) have reviewed this body of research according to emotions "within person, between persons, dyadic interactions, leadership and teams, and organization-wide" (p. 214). The origin of studying emotions in organizational behavior is credited to Howard Weiss and Russell Cropanzano's affective events theory (AET), which "postulated that employees respond to discrete and 'affective events' in the work environment that results in affective responses (or feelings) that in turn lead to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes" (as cited in Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011, p. 214).

Improving Your Sense of Self

But how can you learn more about yourself and improve your sense of self? Let's begin by examining the four components of emotional intelligence identified by Goleman (1995; adapted from Armstrong, 2004, pp. 75–76).

1. *Self-management:* the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods and regulate your own behavior, coupled with a propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. The seven competencies associated with this component are (1) self-control, (2) trustworthiness, (3) integrity, (4) initiative, (5) adaptability and comfort with ambiguity, (6) openness to change, and (7) a strong desire to achieve.

2. *Self-awareness:* the ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives as well as their effect on others. Self-awareness competencies are composed of three elements: (1) emotional awareness, (2) accurate self-assessment, and (3) self-confidence. Individuals with a high degree of self-awareness understand which emotions they are feeling and why, realize the links between their feelings and what they think and say, recognize how their feelings affect their performance, and have a guiding awareness of values and goals (Goleman, 1995). In other words, self-awareness is the ability to understand what one is feeling and how to direct those feelings (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

3. *Social awareness:* the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and skills in treating people according to their emotional reaction. This is linked to six competencies: (1) empathy, (2) expertise in building and retaining talent, (3) organizational awareness, (4) cross-cultural sensitivity, (5) valuing diversity, and (6) service to stakeholders.

4. *Social skills:* proficiency in managing relationships and building networks to get the desired result from others, reach personal goals, build rapport, and find common ground. The five competencies associated with this component are (1) leadership, (2) effectiveness in leading change, (3) conflict management, (4) influence/communication, and (5) expertise in building and leading teams. All of these competencies are discussed in this book.

To better understand Goleman's components of emotional intelligence and how they relate to your own identity, please refer to Appendix 2.E and complete the exercise to evaluate your personal emotional intelligence.

To gain control of our career, we need to know ourselves, excel at critical tasks, and demonstrate emotional intelligence, character, and leadership (Kaplan, 2008), but sadly, because of our own emotionally unintelligent behavior, we may be less likable and even sabotage our rise to leadership positions in organizations. Fortunately, Travis Bradberry (2015), an emotional intelligence theorist, has identified 13 key behaviors that make people more appealing:

- They ask questions as a way of demonstrating their interest.

- They put away cell phones.

- They are genuine.

- They withhold judgment.

- They are not attention seekers.

- They are consistent.

- They use positive body language.

- They leave strong first impressions.

- They call people by name.

- They smile.

- They know when to open up.

- They touch others appropriately during conversations.

- They know how to balance passion and fun.

Which of these behaviors are you likely to engage in? Or are you putting up barriers to success? Anne Morriss, Robin Ely, and Frances Frei (2011) have identified five self-imposed barriers to leadership positions in their work with hundreds of leaders in more than 50 countries; we have added one more. Let's examine these barriers:

Barrier 1. Barrier 1 occurs when we overemphasize personal goals as opposed to what is best for the organization. According to Morriss et al. (2011),

"True leadership is about making *other* people better as a result of your presence—and making sure your impact endures in your absence" (p. 160). Narrow pursuit of self leads to self-protection and self-promotion. Making other people a priority is "perhaps most challenging for emerging leaders—especially women and minorities," who may have good reasons for self-protection (p. 161). Although Morris and her colleagues do not underestimate this pressure of built-in societal attitudes, they recommend that the first step is to get over yourself by making a commitment to make another person or team better.

Barrier 2. Barrier 2 results from being overly distracted by our own self-image. Our crafted image may actually affect our effectiveness in the organization. For example, in an attempt to be viewed as intelligent, we may avoid asking the important questions necessary to make the decision. The need to be liked by our peers may keep us from challenging existing norms. The need to be viewed as tough, decisive, and analytical may stop us from displaying compassion, understanding, or empathy or other necessary characteristics of leadership and management.

Barrier 3. Barrier 3 involves turning our competitors or those we don't get along with into enemies. As a supervisor in local government used to say to her employees, "You don't know who you will be working for in the future." The very individuals we perceive as enemies may actually be great allies, expanding our way of thinking about an issue or subject.

Barrier 4. Barrier 4 occurs when we believe we must lead alone. On the contrary, we need allies that can help us handle both our overconfidence and our insecurities. In almost every situation, there are capable colleagues in the organization willing to help and provide input; let this core group assist in making important decisions.

Barrier 5. Barrier 5 is that the same patience that is necessary in some circumstances may actually stand in the way of our promotion or progress. For example, you know that your organization may benefit from implementation of a strategic plan, and you have ideas on how to engage others in the exercise. Taking the initiative is viewed as the manager's responsibility, and you are simply an analyst—but implementing this project as an analyst may actually help your career. Morriss et al. (2011) found that healthy organizations reward people who decide on their own to lead and "more often than not, influence leads to power, not the other way around" (p. 163).

Barrier 6. Barrier 6 (our addition) involves having to overcome self-doubt. We are often our harshest critic, and it may be challenging to vanquish a need for perfection. The *impostor phenomenon* was coined by Pauline Clance and Suzanne Imes (1978), who studied 150 successful women and found that many of them considered themselves to be impostors. These so-called "impostors" think that they have fooled those around them and may be found out as a fraud. Sheryl Sandberg (2013), a successful author and the chief operating officer at Facebook, shares her own feelings about this:

> Despite being high achievers, even experts in their fields, women can't seem to shake the sense that it is only a matter of time until they are found out for who they really are—impostors with limited skills or abilities. (p. 28)

Women also shortchange their abilities, believing they must have all of the necessary experience before they apply for their next position (Eckel & Grossman, 2008). Men, however, feel no such restraints and will start thinking about their next promotion shortly after they start a new job. Some of these self-doubts are well founded in women and people of color who may have experienced explicit or, more commonly, implicit bias.

Excelling at critical tasks will become even more likely once you know your career anchors and can choose a career that you truly enjoy doing. To assess a potential career, you need to know what will drive success in the position, and then ask yourself whether you will enjoy these key tasks. Character and leadership often make the difference between good performance and great performance. Good leaders are willing to put the interest of the organization ahead of their own and trust that they will be rewarded. Finally, consider what barriers you may be imposing on your career.

The following subsections offer some guidance on gaining self-awareness, first by noting the importance of having a clear vision and then by moving to more specific methods and techniques to assist with your self-discovery.

The Power of Vision

There are several dimensions of self-awareness. The first is vision. Whereas we all have an implicit vision about the direction of our lives, many psychologists and experts in management stress the importance of consciously creating a personal vision. Just as an organization might create a statement of vision or values, we can do the same thing for ourselves. Creating a vision for ourselves provides us with a sense of direction and helps us to clarify our values.

One way of facilitating that process is to think in terms of images. Try the following experiment. Stop reading for a moment, and think about the city of Paris. What immediately comes to mind? Most people will think of the Eiffel Tower, the Arc de Triomphe, the Seine, Notre Dame, good food, wine, romance—all images of real places and real sensations. People do not mention the square kilometers, population, or gross domestic product of France. Human memory stores images and senses, not numbers. What implications does this have for our personal vision? It means that to envision the future, "we must draw upon that very natural mental process of creating images" (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 102).

Developing a vision also can help in clarifying our core values, the "deep-seated, pervasive standards that influence every aspect of our lives: our moral judgments, our responses to others, our commitments to personal and organizational goals" (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 212). People who are unsure of their values tend to drift when they are confused about how to behave. Values help us to determine what to do and what not to do when we are unsure or conflicted about a situation. When we have a clear sense of our values, it becomes easier to make decisions about our lives and to become aware of circumstances in which our behavior is inconsistent with our values. Clarifying our values also serves as the first step in recognizing that many of the ideas we hold dear are values rather than facts. Value clarification, in turn, opens the door to the acceptance of the views and values of others.

We also might ask what our personal vision says about the importance of relationships with others. In today's global economy, leaders must be sensitive to a broad range of political, cultural, organizational, and human issues. Adding to complexity is the increasing diversity of our organizations. Cultural misunderstandings are often caused by a lack of awareness of cultural differences as well

as an inability to understand and adapt effectively in cross-cultural management. Christopher Earley and Soon Ang (2003) introduced the concept of cultural intelligence to measure our capacity to understand other cultures. Rosabeth Kanter (1994) emphasized the need to nurture relationships as an essential managerial skill. In her view, public managers are the human connectors in a wired world, and unless they possess relationship-building skills, there is little hope for local, let alone global, alliances.

Where does trust fit into our personal vision? Do we see ourselves and others as trustworthy? Building and maintaining trust is a central issue in human relationships, and in today's public organizations, it is at the heart of efforts to foster collaboration. People who do not trust others often are viewed as untrustworthy themselves. Furthermore, psychologists have found that people who are trusting are more likely to be happy and psychologically well-adjusted than are those who view the world with suspicion and disrespect. Psychologists also have found that individuals who are willing to self-disclose—to share personal information and feelings with others—are viewed as more trustworthy than those who are not willing to share of themselves. This requires that we let others know what we stand for, what we value, what we want, what we hope for, and what we are willing or not willing to do.

Assessing Yourself

Several well-known and thoroughly researched assessment tools are available to the individual interested in self-knowledge. Here we discuss six such inventories that may be helpful on the journey to self-awareness: (1) personal values (to provide personal standards and moral judgment), (2) personality style (to assist in the acquisition and evaluation of others), (3) interpersonal orientation (to measure interpersonal needs), (4) locus of control (to assess attitudes toward control of an individual's own destiny), (5) career orientation (to match the individual with the organization), and (6) self-disclosure (to reveal ourselves to others).

Personal Values. Personal values lie at the core of a person's behavior and play a significant role in unifying one's personality. Values are the foundation upon which attitudes and personal preferences are formed and the basis for crucial decisions, life directions, and personal choices. Building on earlier work suggesting that individuals sometimes lose touch with their values, David Whetten and Kim Cameron (1998) stated that "not being cognizant of one's own value priorities can lead to misdirected decisions and frustration in the long term" (p. 53). We discuss two areas influenced by values in this section: value development as it refers to moral judgment and values as sources for career choice.

The behavior individuals display is believed to be a product of their value maturity (Whetten & Cameron, 1998). *Value maturity* is sometimes referred to as virtues that are believed to be internal but are not innate and have outward consequences. Justin Oakley and Dean Cocking (2001) explain that "virtues are character traits which we need to live humanly flourishing lives" (p. 18). Aristotle's virtue theory prioritized the good over the right, a distinction that remains important today (see Mangini, 2000; Oakley & Cocking, 2001). For example, as a school administrator, you may instruct your kitchen staff to donate leftover lunches to the homeless shelter in your community, although simply throwing away the food may save the staff time and effort. (Using Lawrence Kohlberg's model, which is discussed in the next paragraph, we may say that this virtuous person who made the decision on the personal value of providing for the hungry is operating at the postconventional stage of moral development.)

We differ in our level of value maturity, so different instrumental values—values that prescribe desirable standards of conduct or methods for attaining an end—are held by individuals at different stages of development. Kohlberg's (1971) model of moral development focuses on the kind of reasoning used to reach a decision with value or moral connotations. At the *preconventional* level, moral reasoning and instrumental values are based on personal needs or wants and on the consequences of these acts. For example, cheating on an exam is considered okay at this stage because it achieves the personal need of passing the exam and does not hurt the person whose paper was copied. At the *conventional* level of moral development, people behave morally by conforming to standards as determined by society, and respect from others is valued. Cheating on an exam is wrong because there are rules against it, and respect for one's ability will be lost from the professor and peers. Denhardt and Denhardt (2005b) explained that this level has two stages: one where we simply meet the expectations of others and a second where we learn the conventional rules and laws of society. Most adults continue to operate at this level of moral development. The third and final stage is the *postconventional* level. In this stage, right and wrong are judged on the basis of the internalized principles of the individual. Thus, cheating on the exam continues to be wrong—not because of rules and regulations or respect but because one has developed this principled judgment. According to Kohlberg, few individuals reach this level of moral maturity. You will have the opportunity to relate the model to a case later in this chapter.

What we value has a direct bearing on the decisions we make, whether we are at work or at home. There are two types of values: instrumental values, which prescribe desirable conduct or methods for attaining an end, and terminal values, which are desired states or end goals. Honesty, kindness, and hard work are examples of instrumental values; happiness, health, and prosperity are terminal values.

The inventory that we will discuss in this section is for determining the individual values as related to career choice. For example, a person who is financially oriented might be better suited for a sales position than for a position as a caseworker in a social service agency. The opposite would be true for a person with a human orientation, who likely would find the caseworker's assignment to be highly motivating and would not like the sales position. William Reddin's (1978) Personal Values Inventory describes six different value orientations:

1. *Theoretical*. The person is interested in ordering and systematizing knowledge, likes to reason and think, and is rational and analytical.

2. *Power oriented*. The person is interested in the use, implications, and manifestations of power.

3. *Achievement oriented*. The person is practical, efficient, and concerned with obtaining results.

4. *Human oriented*. The person views people and relationships in a positive manner, a humanitarian.

5. *Industry oriented*. The person likes to work and sees work as an end in itself.

6. *Financial oriented*. The person is interested in the power of money and in rewards for effort and personal gain.

A copy of Reddin's inventory is provided in Appendix 2.A. Using this inventory to identify our values allows us to make career decisions that might be more in line with our personal preferences. The inventory contains instructions for answering the statements. (Remember that there are no right or wrong values here.) Once you have completed the statements, score your answers using the form at the end of the survey. Be sure to add your subtotals to compute your total factor score. When you add up all of your factors, your score should equal 84. The highest scored factor is your preference. For example, if Factor F is your highest total factor score, then you are interested in the power of money and in reward for effort and personal gain. On the other hand, if Factor D is your highest factor score, then you place a higher value on people and relationships. Consider your scores and, if possible, discuss them with someone else.

Personality Style. Personality style refers to the manner in which individuals gather and process information. Swiss psychologist Carl Jung (1971) described several aspects of the human psyche based on the way in which we take in and process information. For example, information may be acquired through our senses or through our intuition. Information then is processed through rational processes or through feelings. Jung's framework also includes our orientation to the external world (extroverts) and those oriented toward the internal world (introverts) as well as two modes of decision-making, one relying on perception and the other relying on judgment. Over time, individuals become more dependent on one way of collecting and processing information than on other ways. They also come to depend on one orientation to the external world and on one decision-making style. That is not to say that one way is better than another way, and indeed, we all possess all of these capacities to some degree. But over time, we become more comfortable with one approach and come to rely on that approach. Our preferences are then reflected in our personalities.

Our personality types, then, affect the way in which we see the world and, consequently, the way we act. (We typically do not change these preferences unless we make a concerted effort to do so.) For example, those who rely on "sensing" are likely to focus on specific data and what is immediately present; those who rely on "intuition" are more likely to focus on the future, to see the potential in a situation, and to be highly creative. Imagine two people looking in the window of a house they are thinking about buying. One (the sensing type) might see all the flaws—torn carpets, peeling paint, and so on. The other (the intuitive type) might think in terms of possibilities (e.g., "We could do great things with this house"). Two people can look at the same situation and see it in completely different ways.

The different types reinforce and need one another. For example, Susan Cain (2012), who wrote the book *Quiet: The Power of Introverts in a World That Can't Stop Talking*, argues that a dominant extrovert culture in organizations forces individuals into collaboration and can possibly stand in the way of innovation. Misinterpretations can also occur, as the introvert may be mistaken for shy. Knowing your preferences and those of others in your organization can be very helpful.

The Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI) is a widely used, self-administered inventory to assess an individual's Jungian personality types. David Keirsey has a similar instrument available online through his webpage (www.keirsey.com). After the inventory is scored, information is included on the meaning of the preferences identified. After taking the inventory, you will be able to read about your

FIGURE 2.2	Personality Types

Artisans (SP)	Guardians (SJ)
Tend to be	Tend to be
• Playful	• Responsible
• Optimistic	• Helpful
• Sensual	• Hardworking
• Unconventional	• Sociable
• Daring	• Loyal
• Impulsive	• Stable
• Excitable	• Traditional
• Adaptable	• Law-abiding
Rationals (NT)	Idealists (NF)
Tend to be	Tend to be
• Pragmatic	• Enthusiastic
• Skeptical	• Romantic
• Analytical	• Intuitive
• Independent	• Kindhearted
• Strong willed	• Intense
• Logical	• Authentic
• Even tempered	• Symbolic
• Curious	• Inspiring

Source: From *Please Understand Me II*, by D. W. Keirsey, 1998, Del Mar, CA: Prometheus Nemesis Books. Used with permission.

personality profile online. The Keirsey inventory first identifies you as one of four basic temperaments: (1) artisan, (2) guardian, (3) rational, or (4) idealistic. Figure 2.2 includes some typical characteristics for the types.

Again, there are no right or wrong answers in this inventory; it is simply intended to give us insights about our perspectives and preferences. Understand that we all possess all of the orientations that Jung described: extroversion and introversion, intuition and sensing, thinking and feeling, and perception and judgment. Some people prefer one style, whereas others prefer other styles. But all of the types are necessary for success in organizations. Henry Tosi, Neil Mero, and John Rizzo (2000) provided us with examples of how the different types reinforce each other:

The sensing type needs an intuitive to generate possibilities, to supply ingenuity, to deal with complexity, and to furnish new ideas. Intuitives add a long-range perspective and spark things that seem impossible.

The intuitive needs a sensing type to bring facts to inspect, to attend to detail, to inject patience, and to notice what needs attention.

The thinker needs a feeling type to persuade and conciliate feelings, to arouse enthusiasm, to sell or advertise, and to teach and forecast.

The feeling type needs a thinker to analyze and organize, to predict flaws in advance, to introduce fact and logic, to hold to a policy, and to stand firm against opposition. (p. 50)

Psychologists and human resource management researchers have condensed countless personality traits into a list of five major personality dimensions known as the Big Five. While these dimensions are not as widely used as the MBTI, they are supported by several decades of research (see Barrick & Mount, 1991). Figure 2.3 summarizes the five dimensions.

Among the dimensions, conscientiousness has the strongest correlation with job performance. Individuals who are dependable, organized, and hardworking tend to be considered better employees. Extraversion also has some impact on job performance, especially for jobs that require social interaction, such as the public relations person in a local police department. However, extraversion is not a requirement of leadership or success.

Other dimensions of the Big Five, such as openness to experience, can also be helpful in some aspects of work. Public leaders who are open to new experiences may be more motivated to learn and explore new ideas and will be more successful in an unfamiliar cultural environment. Employees with emotional stability tend to be more positive, have higher job satisfaction, and show lower stress. Finally, agreeableness is desirable for interpersonal relationships. Online, go to http://personality-testing.info/tests/BIG5.php for a free version of the Big-Five

FIGURE 2.3	The Big Five Dimensions

Personality Dimensions	Description
Conscientiousness	Degree to which a person is dependable, responsible, organized, and forward looking (plans ahead)
Extraversion/introversion	Degree to which a person is sociable, talkative, assertive, active, and ambitious
Openness to experience	Degree to which a person is imaginative, broad-minded, curious, and seeks new experiences
Emotional stability	Degree to which a person is anxious, depressed, angry, and insecure
Agreeableness	Degree to which a person is courteous, likable, good-natured, and flexible

Sources: Based on descriptions provided by "Toward an Adequate Taxonomy of Personality Attributes: Replicated and Factor Structure in Peer Nomination Personality Ratings," by W. T. Norman, 1963, *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66*, pp. 547–583; "Personality Structure: Emergence of the Five-Factored Model," by J. M. Digman, 1990, *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*, pp. 417–440; and "The Five Big Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis," by M. R. Barrick and M. Mount, 1991, *Personnel Psychology, 44*(1), pp. 1–76.

Factor Markers from the International Personality Item Pool developed by Lewis Goldberg (1992).

Interpersonal Orientation. Interpersonal orientation refers to behavior and interpersonal relationships in addition to personal and psychological inclinations regarding others. Moreover, it identifies the underlying tendency that the individual has to behave in certain ways regardless of circumstances or presence of others. Will Schutz's (1958) classic theory of interpersonal orientation states that three interpersonal needs must be satisfied if the individual is to function effectively and avoid unsatisfactory relationships: (1) the need for inclusion, (2) the need for control, and (3) the need for affection. These needs have two aspects: a desire to express the behavior through the individual's own actions and a desire to receive the behavior from others. It is healthy to have consistency in what we desire in terms of expressed and received behavior. For example, if we value working alone and would prefer not to be included, then we might find ourselves highly frustrated in an environment that promotes and requires inclusion. These preferences and tendencies may be assessed through Schutz's Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation–Behavior (FIRO–B) inventory, which is included as Appendix 2.B. Again, there are no right or wrong answers, but if you can become more aware of your preferences and the way in which your behavior exhibits your preferences, then you will be more likely to understand the way in which others respond to you.

Locus of Control. Locus of control refers to our attitudes toward the extent to which we have control of our own destiny. An internal locus of control reflects the belief that what happens in our lives is the result of our own actions (e.g., "I am personally responsible for the grade that I receive in this class"). An external locus of control reflects the belief that what happens is the product of outside forces (e.g., "The poor grade on the exam was the result of the teacher not explaining the material"). Locus of control studies indicate that those with internal locus of control are more likely to (a) be attentive to aspects of their environment that provide useful information for the future, (b) engage in actions to improve their environment, (c) place greater emphasis on striving for achievement, (d) be more inclined to develop their own skills, (e) ask more questions, and (f) remember more information (Rotter, 1966; Seeman, 1962). In North American culture, people who interpret information about change as if they are in control of it and who perceive themselves to be in charge of their own performances and outcomes are more likely to be successful managers (Hendricks, 1985; Spector, 1982). In the workplace, internal locus of control correlates with better adjustment to work in terms of satisfaction, coping with stress, job involvement, and promotability (Anderson, 1977). Employees with internal locus of control also have less absenteeism and are more involved at work (Blau, 1987). The locus of control inventory is included as Appendix 2.C.

Career Orientation. Career orientation is a self-perceived talent, motive, or value that serves to guide, stabilize, and integrate a person's career (Schein, 1978). In any organization, we are likely to find very different types of people with varying goals, lifestyles, talents, and values, and Edgar Schein (1978) offered the following observation:

> Sometimes these differences are masked by titles or by stereotypes of what kind of person we expect to see in any given kind of job. Yet if the organization and societal policies are to be realistic in terms of human needs, greater attention must be paid to the real differences that arise as we enter our careers. (p. 165)

Schein (1978) described eight typical "career anchors" or different orientations to those things that a person desires from his or her career. These career anchors reflect the underlying needs, values, talents, and motives that the person brings into adulthood, but they develop largely through the work experience. According to Schein, major life and occupational choices that you make through adulthood are determined by the integration of several characteristics—what you feel competent at, what you want out of life, what your value system is, and what kind of person you are—into a total self-concept (p. 171).

The eight anchors are as follows:

1. *Technical/functional competence*. The person is driven by the opportunity to apply skills and continues to develop those skills to an ever-higher level.

2. *General manager competence*. The person desires to climb to a leadership level in an organization so as to enable integration and coordination of the efforts of others.

3. *Autonomy/independence*. The person needs to be able to define his or her own work and needs to do it in his or her own way. Flexibility is the key.

4. *Security or stability*. The person needs security or tenure in a job or an organization.

5. *Entrepreneurial creativity*. The person desires the opportunity to create an organization or enterprise of his or her own—built on the person's abilities—and is willing to take the necessary risks and obstacles.

6. *Service/dedication to a cause*. The person is driven by a desire to pursue work that achieves something of value, such as helping others.

7. *Pure challenge*. The person needs work that requires the opportunity to solve seemingly unsolvable problems.

8. *Lifestyle*. The person requires the opportunity to balance and integrate his or her personal and family needs as well as the requirements of the career.

Understanding our own career anchors and identifying them early in our job experience will help us to make good decisions as we move through our careers. It also can be useful for managers to become aware of their subordinates' career anchors so that the appropriate career moves can be fostered by the organization. Schein (1978) designed a career orientation inventory that assesses the career anchor of the individual. This inventory is included as Appendix 2.D.

Self-disclosure. Self-disclosure requires that we reveal ourselves to others through verbal or nonverbal means. We disclose our beliefs, values, and desires not only through conversation but also through artifacts and nonverbal communication. For example, the pictures that we have in our offices speak of our families, preferred landscapes, places we have traveled, and so on. We become human by sharing our interests and desires with others. Self-disclosure also affects the way in which others see us; studies have shown that people are more likely to trust leaders who are self-disclosing (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

To practice self-disclosure, spend an evening with a relative or close friend discussing the results of your personal assessment instruments and their implications. Your relative or friend might want to complete the instruments in this chapter as

well. Use questions such as the following in your discussion: Who am I? What are my values? What are my strengths? What are my weaknesses? What will be necessary for me to be happy in a career or in my personal life? What changes do I need to make in my life? What legacy do I want to leave?

In addition to employing instruments such as those included in this chapter, we can enhance our self-awareness by being attentive to feedback that we receive from others either informally through personal conversations or formally through performance evaluations. The information gained through these interactions can provide us with knowledge about how we are perceived by others and, therefore, offer opportunities for improvement. For example, we might find that others perceive us as concentrating so strongly on the details that we lose sight of the overall mission with which we have been charged. Or our lack of participation in the organization's activities might be viewed as a lack of interest in others. We might not always like the information that we learn through feedback and self-discovery, but that information can be quite valuable. The key is to use the newly acquired information to enhance our personal growth and competence.

Whatever its source, self-knowledge is essential to your productive personal and interpersonal functioning, especially understanding and empathizing with others. Based on your experiences, feedback from others, information from the inventories, and your personal vision, are there skills and competencies that you would like to enhance? Did you gain knowledge that you will draw on in making important career decisions? What changes in your life do you want to make as a result of your increased knowledge?

Ethical Concerns

Rae Andre (2011) raises ethical concerns for measurement of personality preferences for employment. First, "prediction engenders control" (p. 368). We must be careful in using these assessments for employment or promotion purposes. Although in many jurisdictions companies that use personality assessments must demonstrate that they are related to employment behaviors of interest, sometimes the collection of personality data is simply unnecessary and may be considered an invasion of privacy. An additional ethical concern is that in using information from personality profiles, managers might deliberately create homogeneous organizations. Moreover, to the extent that personality is related to such demographic variables as age, gender, and race, the social diversity of the organization is also at risk.

Biases

Implicit bias (or unconscious bias) is defined as a prejudice or judgment in favor of or against a thing, individual, or group as compared with another in a way that is typically considered unfair. Conversely, explicit bias requires that a person be aware of his or her evaluation of a group, believe that evaluation to be correct in some manner, and have the time and motivation to act on it in the current situation (Blair & Banaji, 1996). Congruent with everyday experience, research suggests that explicit bias toward ethnic/racial groups has declined significantly over the past 50 years and is now considered unacceptable in general society (Bobo, 2001). In contrast, implicit bias appears to be common and persistent (Nosek, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2006).

Unconscious bias occurs automatically as the brain makes quick judgments based on past experiences, stereotypes, and personal background (Cialdini, 2009; Kahneman, 2011). In contrast, deliberate prejudice is defined as conscious bias

(or explicit bias). In both cases, certain people benefit and other people are penalized. Although we all have biases, unconscious bias is often exhibited toward minority groups based on factors such as class, gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, disabilities, and other diverse traits.

In training for faculty hires, the University of Delaware's Advance Institute uses research findings to illustrate gender bias using the following examples from the literature: Psychology professors prefer 2:1 to hire "Brian over Karen" even when the application packages are identical (Steinpries, Anders, & Ritzke, 1999). "Blind" auditions increased the percentage (25% to 46%) of women winning orchestral jobs and increased the probability that women would advance out of preliminary rounds (Goldin & Rouse, 2000). Double-blind review of journal articles yields 7.9% increase in proportion of papers with a female first author (Budden et al., 2008).

Disparities in health care are of great concern, and much attention has focused on the potential for implicit (unconscious) bias to play a role in this problem. A 2013 study confirmed previous findings of implicit bias against African Americans with a sample of more experienced providers working in three different health care settings. New to the findings, the study revealed "substantial implicit bias against Latinos" (Blair et al., 2013, p. 95). Approximately two thirds of the providers in this sample demonstrated implicit bias against Latinos, even as they explicitly reported egalitarian attitudes toward the group. Neither implicit nor explicit bias against African Americans or Latinos were related to the providers' age, gender, medical specialty, or years practicing medicine (Blair et al., 2013).

In 2006, the National Institutes of Health ranked health disparities third among its top five priorities (Institute of Medicine, 2006). As part of this effort, health care professionals were encouraged to consider how biases (i.e., stereotypes, prejudice, or discrimination) may contribute to health disparities and to realize that such effects may often be unintentional and not obvious from standard assessments.

Blair, Steiner, and Havranek (2011, p. 76) offer six suggestions to policymakers to help combat implicit bias:

1. Affirm equity of care and diversity as a core organizational and institutional value.

2. Consider ways to improve detection of disparities and reconsider policies that may unintentionally worsen disparities.

3. Support research that seeks to better understand bias and develop interventions to improve communication and lessen disparities.

4. Support clinicians' [teachers and anyone who may have contact with public] efforts to implement change to address disparities directly.

5. Invite dialogue with community leaders to better identify services in need of improvement and recognize biases in the system and workforce.

6. Support efforts to increase workforce diversity, especially in leadership positions.

You may also want to start by taking the Implicit Association Tests (IATs) to measure your own biases. Information on how to access is found at the end of Thinking in Action in this Chapter.

Ways of Acting

Although strategies for learning about yourself and enhancing self-knowledge remain somewhat less fully developed than strategies for building cognitive knowledge and behavioral skills, there are several suggestions that you might consider.

1. *Focus on learning from your administrative experience*. To learn from your experience, you must engage in self-reflection and self-critique. Your past experiences must be translated into an action agenda for personal development. Annual evaluations at work may be a good place to begin the journey, but other means also are available. These include asking or surveying others about your work performance as well as the attitudes and values you express. Donald Schön's (1983) classic term *reflective practitioner* nicely sums up what your aspirations should be as you learn about yourself from your administrative experience.

2. *Keep a journal*. A journal allows you the opportunity to engage in self-reflection and self-critique over a sustained period of time. Writing in a journal also gives structure to your examination of events. See Robert Denhardt (2000) for a suggested format for the administrative journal.

3. *Talk regularly with people you trust*. In addition to self-reflection and self-critique, the insights and support of trusted friends can be a great boost to developing your confidence and self-esteem.

4. *Watch and read how others handle change*. Learning from the experiences of respected managers and leaders also is helpful. In the rapidly changing world in which we live, it is important to be able to handle change. Others who have been successful before us provide valuable lessons toward this end.

5. *Strive for balance and insight*. As we will see in Chapter 4, although the pressure to perform might seem overwhelming, effective performance can be undermined by excessive "Type A" behavior. It also can be harmful to your health. Take time to relax and to participate in activities that are not work related. Relaxation will provide for renewed energy with which to improve productivity and creativity.

6. *Set an example*. As a manager, you should not just be concerned with developing your own maturity and self-confidence; you should also encourage and energize others to develop theirs. Such an understanding of yourself not only helps you as an employee but also can help the organization.

7. *Carefully examine the explanations that you give*. You might refuse an assignment by saying, "I am too busy to take on this assignment," when, in fact, the assignment simply might not be of interest to you and/or you possess personal biases that may keep you from wanting to take on the assignment. Recall Reddin's (1978) personal values inventory and Schein's (1978) career anchors. Although we all have aspects of our jobs that are less enjoyable, knowing our values and preferences can help us to make prudent job choices.

8. *Look for several causes*. When attempting to interpret behavior, look for various causes that might have triggered the behavior. For example, if someone takes too long to complete an assignment, do not be too quick to determine that the person was uninterested in completing the assignment in a timely manner. Perhaps the delay was due to faulty equipment, pressures from peers to complete other assignments, or other external forces.

9. *Account for individual differences.* Try to account for individual differences, and do not overgeneralize or project your own preferences onto others. For example, you might like to be publicly recognized for your achievements, but a highly introverted employee might be quite embarrassed by such public recognition.

10. *Use past behavior as an indicator—but not necessarily a predictor—of future behavior.* How someone behaved in the past might indicate how he or she will behave in the future, but you should not ignore the possibility of change. For example, if someone has not been timely in producing necessary work, then you might assume that he or she will continue to delay the process. But the person might decide that it is in the best interest of everyone concerned to turn in the next assignment on time.

11. *Recognize personality differences.* Consider personality differences when selecting assignments. For example, recall the locus of control inventory. There are some people who will be much more internally motivated than others. If you are one of these individuals, then you might prefer to work in autonomous situations. On the other hand, if you are an externally motivated individual, then you might function best in team assignments.

12. *Celebrate diversity and what contributions diversity brings to the organization.* We are working in an environment with increasing differences in age, race, gender, nationality, political views, and religion. Rather than fearing or judging differences, evaluate how those differences may add to the organization.

THINKING IN ACTION

In this section, we make use of what we have learned through exercises and case studies.

Increasing Self-Knowledge

This is an exercise that may be used as a class assignment or project paper. The focus of the exercise is to increase self-knowledge using self-reported instruments and feedback from others. Students will increase their self-knowledge by answering the following questions with the support of methods and instruments in this chapter.

- Where have I been? The timeline described earlier in the chapter will help in answering this question. Develop a 5- to 10-page autobiographical sketch that will assist you in improving your sense of self by reflecting on the past and how it will influence the future.

- Where am I going? Develop interview guides and interview several individuals in positions to which you might aspire. Following are some examples of questions to include:

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- o How would you describe your typical day at work?
- o What are the most critical skills you draw on during a typical workday?
- o What qualities do you see as necessary for your line of work?
- o If you had to find someone to replace you, on what key abilities would you focus?

- Do I have what it takes in terms of ability, motivation, and personal traits to get there? This question may be answered through inventories or evaluations or through questioning others who are familiar with your abilities.

Do not be afraid to engage in self-disclosure. "Several studies have shown that low self-disclosers are less healthy and more self-alienated than high self-disclosers. College students give the highest ratings for interpersonal competence to high self-disclosers" (Whetten & Cameron, 1998, p. 51).

A Vision Statement

Write out an action plan for implementation to help you accomplish your vision. Work with close friends and colleagues to determine what your personal lifetime vision might look like. Try to focus on what you believe an ideal future would look like, or consider looking back on your life and career at an advanced age. What are the things that you would like to have done? Write your vision statement and include the following information:

- Write down a set of values that are important to you. Ask family members and friends to encourage you to live according to your values.

- Describe key areas of your life that are important to you, and write down one or two goals in each major area.

- Select one or two goals and imagine the goal(s) being achieved to your full satisfaction. How does this goal, or how do these goals, relate to your vision? Experience the achievement of your vision in every way possible.

- Develop a detailed action plan to achieve this vision, and make commitments for particular actions necessary to bring your vision to fruition.

Valuing Diversity

In managing a diverse workforce, it is important that we understand our own feelings and the messages that we convey about our value of diversity. Reflect on how you and the organization that you work for react in terms of accepting differences and otherness as you answer the following questions (adapted from Deep & Sussman, 2000):

1. Do others see you acting comfortable around colleagues with nontraditional demographics (i.e., age, education, ethnicity, gender, race, sexual orientation)?

2. Do colleagues of nontraditional demographics provide evidence

that they feel comfortable around you?

3. Do these same employees report that their differences are respected?

4. Do you actively solicit the opinions, feelings, and suggestions of all colleagues, regardless of demographics?

5. Do you receive an equal number of opinions, feelings, and suggestions from all employees?

6. Does the organization that you work for hire and promote in such a way that employee diversity reflects the diversity of society?

7. Do the organization's social activities reflect diversity?

8. Do the organization's fringe benefits reflect diversity?

9. Are there consequences for colleagues who engage in demeaning or prejudicial behavior toward others?

10. Does your organization maintain a committee charged with improving the working climate for all employees?

Managing the BP Disaster: A Case Study

On April 20, 2010, the Deepwater Horizon oil rig exploded in the Gulf of Mexico and killed 11 workers on board the oil rig (Webley, 2010). The rig sank into the ocean after burning for several days. Because the underwater well was more than 5,000 feet below the ocean's surface, the well could not be easily capped, and eventually more

than 184 million gallons of oil leaked into the Gulf (Webley, 2010). In addition to the human loss of life, the region's fishing and tourism industry was devastated as a result of the explosion and subsequent spill.

Days after the Deepwater Horizon spill, British Petroleum's CEO Tony Hayward toured the impacted region that was ravaged environmentally and economically from the oil spilling into the Gulf of Mexico. According to a *Time* magazine report, "Hayward told reporters, 'I would like my life back,' referring to the way the spill had taken over his time" (Walsh, 2010). Several weeks after that comment, Hayward entered his yacht in the JP Morgan Asset Management Round the Island Race, which some felt was being insensitive to those suffering from the explosion and its effects. "Charlie Kronick of Greenpeace said Hayward was 'rubbing salt into the wounds' of Gulf residents whose livelihoods have been wrecked by the disaster" (Sherwell, 2010).

Hayward has a PhD in geology and specialized in oil exploration and production before assuming his position as CEO. However, his actions following the spill exemplify the importance of possessing emotional intelligence; unfortunately, he lacked the understanding to navigate the sensitivity of the situation.

Eventually, Tony Hayward was replaced at BP by American Robert Dudley, who grew up in Mississippi. According to a *New York Times* article, Dudley spent his summers fishing and swimming in the Mississippi Gulf (Mouawad & Krauss, 2010). Dudley has an appreciation of the region that Hayward did not, which may have contributed to his public insensitivity. Dudley's appointment as CEO of BP marks the first foreigner as head of the organization. Rice University's Amy Myers Jaffee considered Dudley's appointment

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"historic" and added that "it sends a message that merit and competency mean more than nationality" (as quoted in Mouawad & Krauss, 2010).

1. If you were in Hayward's position, how would you have handled the aftermath of the oil spill?

2. Think about the balance that is required between technical skill and emotional intelligence; what do you think is more important for a leader?

3. It appears by the appointment of Dudley that culture has a bearing on sensitivity. What do you think?

4. Does cultural aptitude impact one's emotional intelligence?

5. What advice might Hayward take from Drucker (cited toward the beginning of this chapter) to improve his success in the future?

Privatizing the Cafeteria: A Case Study

Ramon Smith is city manager of a midsize town in Louisiana. The city that he is managing has run its own cafeteria for many years. The staff have been with the city for 20 to 30 years and are in their 40s and 50s. The city's evaluation unit, at Ramon's request, has conducted a study showing that great savings would be available to the city by privatizing the cafeteria services. Ramon knows the staff well, and their level of skill would make it very difficult for them to attain jobs in the same industry comparable with the pay and benefits they currently receive from the city.

Employing Kohlberg's model of moral development, answer the following questions:

1. What decisions would a city manager at the preconventional level be expected to make?

2. What reaction would you expect of employees at the preconventional level?

3. What decisions would a city manager at the conventional level be expected to make?

4. What reaction would you expect of employees at the conventional level?

5. What decisions would a city manager at the postconventional level be expected to make?

6. What reaction would you expect of employees at the postconventional level?

7. What decisions would you make as the city manager?

8. How would you explain your decisions to the city council?

Laura's Employment Dilemma: A Case Study

Laura Gomez just completed her master's of public administration (MPA) program at the University of Southern California. She entered the program as a midcareer student after spending 12 years as a state employee in Sacramento. During those 12 years, she worked in a budget office, where she found the work to be tedious and routine. She wanted a change and thought that the best way of entering the job market was to have an MPA in hand. During her academic program, she concentrated on nonprofit and volunteer management. At home, she is a single parent of two children, 8 and 10 years of age. She feels a great deal of responsibility for her

children and wants to be available to participate in their lives on a daily basis.

Laura has been interviewing for positions, and with her experience and education, she has had several job offers:

The first came from a management consulting firm in the Midwest interested in doing more public sector work; Laura's experience in a state budget office was viewed as highly valuable. The salary is higher than she had been expecting to receive as an entry-level MPA graduate. She would be expected to travel the Midwest region approximately 80% of the time.

The second job offer came from a nonprofit organization in Los Angeles. This nonprofit has been in existence for about five years and is now in the position of hiring someone to handle all aspects of its finances, including fundraising. Laura does not have experience in fundraising, though she specialized in nonprofits and has been recommended to the organization as a quick learner. The salary is lower than what she was making before she returned to school 2 years prior. There are expectations that with successful fundraising her salary would increase. The office location is 3 miles from her current residence, and the job would require very little traveling.

The third job offer came from the federal government in Washington, DC. In this position, Laura would be fully trained to work in evaluation for the Department of Health and Human Services. This is not an area in which she has worked before, but she is known to pay a great deal of attention to detail, to have good interpersonal skills, and to be a fast learner. The salary is higher than what she was making prior to entering the MPA program but not as high as that offered by the consulting firm in the Midwest.

You are Laura Gomez. Given what you know about yourself from information in this chapter, respond to the following questions:

1. Which position would you take?

2. Why?

3. How does this fit with your preferences, career anchors, and values?

4. Is your choice different from that which you would recommend to Laura?

5. If yes, then why?

6. How would you design your ideal position?

Some Career Advice: A Case Study

Samuel Jones is a bright, charismatic, African American male whose career goal is to become a nonprofit manager in a large, urban area. While attending the MPA program at the University of Delaware, he interned in a nonprofit in the college town of Newark, Deleware. He enjoyed the experience, and upon graduating, he sought a similar job in a large, urban area, specifically Baltimore and Philadelphia. The jobs in these urban areas in nonprofits are much more specialized, and to have the level of responsibility he had in the small town, he would need many years of experience. There are positions available in several nonprofits in both of these cities. He accepts a position as a financial officer in Baltimore upon your recommendation.

1. What do you know about Samuel's career anchors that would make this a good choice for him?

2. What potential barriers would you encourage Samuel to avoid?

(Continued)

(Continued)

Measuring Implicit Bias

"Implicit Association Tests" (IATs) can tap those hidden, or automatic, stereotypes and prejudices that circumvent conscious control. Project Implicit—a collaborative research effort between researchers at Harvard University, the University of Virginia, and University of Washington—provides the opportunity for us to take such assessments.

The IAT procedure may be useful beyond the research purposes for which it was originally developed. It is a tool that can jump-start our thinking about hidden biases. Please access the IATs through this link: https://implicit.harvard .edu/implicit/takeatest.html (downloaded on 4/30/18)

Take the IAT and answer these questions:

1. Where do these biases come from?

2. How do they influence my actions?

3. What changes should I be making?

STUDENT STUDY SITE

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Appendix 2.A

Reddin's Personal Values Inventory

Instructions for Answering

Read the first set of three statements (A, B, C) and decide to what extent you agree with each. Assign exactly three points among the three statements. The more points you give a statement, the more you agree with it.

EXAMPLE 1: Suppose that you agree with Statement A but not at all with any of the others; then, you would distribute your points in this way:

STATEMENT A

STATEMENT B

STATEMENT C

A3	B0	C0			

EXAMPLE 2: Suppose that in another group of statements, you agree somewhat with Statement B, disagree with Statement C, and do not totally disagree with Statement A; then, you would distribute the three points this way:

STATEMENT A

STATEMENT B

STATEMENT C

A1	B2	C0			

Survey

1. A. Examples and events of history press down on the mind the weight of truth.
    B. As wealth is power, so all power will draw wealth to itself.
    C. Success is always achievement.

A	B	C			

2. A. By what means can the man please who has no power to confer benefits?
    B. A manager's only job is to be effective.
    C. What will money not do?

	A	B			C

3. A. The worst of faces is still human.
   B. Never put off to tomorrow what you can do today.
   C. Money answers all things.

			A	B	C

4. A. Everything includes itself in power.
   B. Life teaches us to be less severe with ourselves and others.
   C. It is pretty to see what money will do.

	A		B		C

5. A. Truth is always strange—stranger than fiction.
   B. It is not enough to do good; one must do it well.
   C. Work keeps at bay three great evils: boredom, vice, and need.

A		B		C	

6. A. The smallest atom of truth represents some man's bitter toil and agony.
   B. We never do anything well till we cease to think about the manner of doing it.
   C. All work is noble; work alone is noble.

A		B		C	

7. A. The father aims at power, the son at independence.
   B. The only way to have a friend is to be one.
   C. Money is indeed the most important thing in the world.

	A		B		C

8. A. All truths begin as blasphemies.
   B. The ornament of a house is the friend who frequents it.
   C. There are few sorrows in which good income is of no avail.

A			B		C

9. A. Disinterested intellectual curiosity is the lifeblood of real civilization.
   B. Labor conquers everything.
   C. Money is like a sixth sense—and you cannot make use of the other five without it.

A				B	C

10. A. God gives to some men despotic power over other men.
     B. He who attempts to do all will waste his life doing little.
     C. Instead of loving your enemies, treat your friends a little better.

	A	B	C		

11. A. A man of words and not of deeds is like a garden full of weeds.
     B. Man's happiness is to do a man's true work.
     C. If you mean to profit, you are wise.

		A		B	C

12. A. The only means of strengthening one's intellect is to make up one's mind about nothing.
     B. To know the pains of power, we must go to those who have it.
     C. If you have one true friend, you have more than your share.

A	B		C		

13. A. The prize of the general is not a bigger tent but command.
     B. The reasonable man adapts himself to the world; the unreasonable man tries to adapt the world to himself.
     C. No man is born into the world whose work is not born with him.

	A	B		C	

14. A. The highest intellects, like the tops of mountains, are the first to catch and reflect the dawn.
     B. A man should keep his friendship in constant repair.
     C. Work brings its own relief; he who is most idle has most of the grief.

A			B	C	

15. A. Man is a social animal.
     B. Actions speak louder than words.
     C. Wherever I found a living creature, there I found the will to power.

		A	B	C	

16. A. There are many wonderful things in nature, but the most wonderful of all is man.
     B. The shortest answer is doing.
     C. Irrationally held truths may be more harmful than reasoned errors.

		A	B		C

17. A. Every man's work is always a portrait of himself.
    B. To know the pleasure of power, we must go to those who are seeking it.
    C. To think is to live.

	A			B	C

18. A. Go to your work and be strong.
    B. The great end in life is not knowledge but action.
    C. Guns will make us powerful; butter will only make us fat.

	A		B	C	

19. A. The mind of a man is cheered and refreshed by profiting in small things.
    B. All work is as seed sown; it grows and spreads, and it sows itself anew.
    C. Life is not long, and too much of it must not pass in idle deliberation over how it shall be spent.

A	B		C		

20. A. There is no substitute for hard work.
    B. The highest duty is to respect authority.
    C. Knowledge is capable of being its own end.

A	B		C		

21. A. Ill blows the wind that profits nobody.
    B. Genius is 1 percent inspiration and 99 percent perspiration.
    C. Logical consequences are the scarecrows of fools and the beacons of wise men.

A	B				C

22. A. Time is money.
    B. The true science and study of mankind is man.
    C. Bustle is not industry.

A		B	C		

23. A. In all labor, there is profit.
    B. Human existence always is irrational and often painful, but in the last analysis it remains interesting.

    C. He who has the longest sword is the leader.

A		B		C	

24. A. Money speaks in a language that all nations understand.
    B. To cultivate kindness is a valuable part of life.
    C. A good catchword can obscure analysis for 50 years.

A		B			C

25. A. They say that knowledge is power, but they meant money.
    B. Every man is the architect of his own fortune.
    C. Make a model before building.

A			B		C

26. A. It is a bad bargain where nobody gains.
    B. In the country of the blind, the one-eyed man is king.
    C. It requires a very unusual mind to undertake the analysis of the obvious.

A				B	C

27. A. What we have to learn to do, we learn by doing.
    B. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
    C. Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well.

	A	B	C		

28. A. Doubt can be ended by work alone.
    B. To err is human; to forgive is divine.
    C. Power is a grand objective.

	A	B		C	

Values Inventory: Scoring

A_1 = 1A   + 5A   + 6A

  = ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = A_1

B_1 = 1B   + 2A   + 4A   + 7A

  = ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = B_1

C_1 = 1C   + 2B   + 5B   + 6B

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = C_1

D_1 = 3A   + 4B   + 7B

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = D_1

E_1 = 3B   + 5C   + 6C

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = E_1

F_1 = 2C   + 3C   + 4C   + 7C

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = F_1

A_2 = 24C   + 25C   + 26C

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = A_2

B_2 = 23C   + 26B   + 28C

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = B_2

C_2 = 22C   + 25B   + 27C

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = C_2

D_2 = 22B   + 23B   + 24B   + 27B   + 28B

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = D_2

E_2 = 27A   + 28A

= ___   + ___   = ___ = E_2

F_2 = 22A   + 23A   + 24A   + 25A   + 26A

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = F_2

A_3 = 8A   + 9A   + 12A   + 14A

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = A_3

B_3 = 10A   + 12B   + 13A

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = B_3

C_3 = 10B   + 11A   + 13B

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = C_3

D_3 = 8B   + 10C   + 12C   + 14B

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = D_3

E_3 = 9B   + 11B   + 13C   + 14C

= ___   + ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = E_3

F_3 = 8C   + 9C   + 11C

= ___   + ___   + ___   = ___ = F_3

A_4 = 16C + 17C + 20C + 21C

= ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ = A_4

B_4 = 15C + 17B + 18C 20B

= ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ = B_4

C_4 = 15B + 16B + 18B 19C

= ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ = C_4

D_4 = 15A + 16A

= ___ + ___ = ___ = D_4

E_4 = 17A + 18A + 19B + 20A + 21B

= ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ + ___ = ___ = E_4

F_4 = 19A + 21A

= ___ + ___ = ___ = F_4

Note: The scoring sheet was developed by Donald Coons.

What Do the Answers Mean?

Add up your subtotals for all of the factors, and your score should equal 84. The highest single factor is your preferred value:

Factor A   *Theoretical:* Interested in ordering and systematizing knowledge, likes to reason and think, and is rational and analytical

Factor B   *Power oriented:* Interested in the use, implications, and manifestations of power

Factor C   *Achievement oriented:* Practical, efficient, and concerned with obtaining results

Factor D   *Human oriented:* Views people and relationships in a positive manner; a humanitarian

Factor E   *Industry oriented:* Likes to work and sees work as an end in itself

Factor F   *Financial oriented:* Interested in the power of money and in rewards for effort and personal gain

Source: From *Values Inventory*, by W. J. Reddin, 1978, La Jolla, CA: Learning Resources.

Appendix 2.B

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations
Orientation—Behavior (FIRO)

Instructions. For each statement below, decide which of the following answers best applies to you. Place the number of the answer to the left of the statement. When you have finished, turn to the scoring key.

Rating Scale

1—Usually   4—Occasionally

2—Often   5—Rarely

3—Sometimes   6—Never

1. _____ I try to be with people.

2. _____ I let other people decide what to do.

3. _____ I join social groups.

4. _____ I try to have close relationships with people.

5. _____ I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity.

6. _____ I let other people strongly influence my actions.

7. _____ I try to be included in informal social activities.

8. _____ I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

9. _____ I try to include other people in my plans.

10. _____ I let other people control my actions.

11. _____ I try to have people around me.

12. _____ I try to get close and personal with people.

13. _____ When people are doing things together, I tend to join them.

14. _____ I am easily led by people.

15. _____ I try to avoid being alone.

16. _____ I try to participate in group activities.

Instructions. For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

Rating Scale

1—Most people	4—A few people
2—Many people	5—One or two people
3—Some people	6—Nobody

17. ____ I try to be friendly to people.

18. ____ I let other people decide what to do.

19. ____ My personal relations with people are cool and distant.

20. ____ I let other people take charge of things.

21. ____ I try to have close relationships with people.

22. ____ I let other people strongly influence my actions.

23. ____ I try to get close and personal with people.

24. ____ I let other people control my actions.

25. ____ I act cool and distant with people.

26. ____ I am easily led by people.

27. ____ I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

28. ____ I like people to invite me to things.

29. ____ I like people to act close and personal with me.

30. ____ I try to strongly influence other people's actions.

31. ____ I like people who invite me to join in their activities.

32. ____ I like people to act close toward me.

33. ____ I try to take charge of things when I am with people.

34. ____ I like people to include me in their activities.

35. ____ I like people to act cool and distant toward me.

36. ____ I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.

37. ____ I like people to ask me to participate in their decisions.

38. ____ I like people to act friendly toward me.

39. ____ I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.

40. ____ I like people to act distant toward me.

Instructions. For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

Rating Scale

1—Usually	4—Occasionally
2—Often	5—Rarely
3—Sometimes	6—Never

41. ___ I try to be the dominant person when I am with people.
42. ___ I like people to invite me to things.
43. ___ I like people to act close toward me.
44. ___ I try to have other people do things I want done.
45. ___ I like people to invite me to join their activities.
46. ___ I like people to act cool and distant toward me.
47. ___ I try to strongly influence other people's actions.
48. ___ I like people to include me in their activities.
49. ___ I like people to act close and personal with me.
50. ___ I try to take charge of things when I am with people.
51. ___ I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.
52. ___ I like people to act distant toward me.
53. ___ I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.
54. ___ I take charge of things when I am with people.

Scoring Key

To derive your interpersonal orientation scores, refer to the following table. Note that there are six major columns, each with separate columns for items and keys. Each column refers to an interpersonal need. Items in the column refer to question numbers on the questionnaire; keys refer to answers on each of those items. If you answered an item using any of the alternatives in the corresponding key column, circle the item number on this sheet.

Expressed Inclusion		Wanted Inclusion	
Item	**Key**	**Item**	**Key**
1	1-2-3	28	1-2
3	1-2-3-4	31	1-2
5	1-2-3-4	34	1-2
7	1-2-3	37	1
9	1-2	39	1
11	1-2	42	1-2
13	1-2	45	1-2
15	1	48	1-2
16	1	51	1-2

Expressed Control	
Item	**Key**
30	1-2-3
33	1-2-3
36	1-2
41	1-2-3-4
44	1-2-3
47	1-2-3
50	1-2
53	1-2
54	1-2

Wanted Control	
Item	**Key**
2	1-2-3-4
6	1-2-3-4
10	1-2-3
14	1-2-3
18	1-2-3
20	1-2-3
22	1-2-3-4
24	1–2-3
26	1-2-3

Expressed Affection	
Item	**Key**
4	1-2
8	1-2
12	1
17	1-2
19	4-5-6
21	1-2
23	1-2
25	4-5-6
27	1-2

Wanted Affection	
Item	**Key**
29	1-2
32	1-2
35	5-6
38	1-2
40	5-6
43	1
46	5-6
49	1-2
52	5-6

Table for Summary Scores

When you have checked all of the items for a single column, count up the number of circled items and place that number in the corresponding box in the chart. These numbers will give you your strength of interpersonal need in each of the six areas. The highest possible score is 9; the lowest possible score is 0. Refer to the explanations in the chapter to interpret your scores and for some comparison data.

	Inclusion	**Control**	**Affection**
Expressed			
Wanted			

Interpreting Results

Schutz's (1958) classic theory of interpersonal orientation states that three interpersonal needs exist that must be satisfied if the individual is to function effectively and avoid unsatisfactory relationships: the need for inclusion, the need for control, and the need for affection. Each of these needs has two aspects: the desire to express the behavior and the desire to receive the behavior from others. It is healthy to have consistency in what we desire in terms of expressed and received behavior. The closer the scores in each of the need areas, the greater the consistency. If you add up all of the scores, then you will come up with your social interaction index representing your interpersonal need level. The highest possible score is 54; the higher the score, the greater the need for interaction. The opposite also is true; the lower the score, the lesser the need for interaction. Interpersonal compatibility is determined by comparing your score with the scores of others.

Source: Schutz, W. C. (1958). *FIRO: A Three-Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior* (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Appendix 2.C

Career Orientation Inventory

The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate your thoughts about your own areas of competence, your motives, and your values. This questionnaire alone will not reveal your career anchor because it is too easy to bias your answers. However, it will activate your thinking and prepare you for the discussion with your partner.

Try to answer the questions as honestly as you can and to work quickly. Avoid extreme ratings except in situations where you clearly have strong feelings in one direction or the other.

How to Rate the Items

For each of the next 40 items, rate how true that item is for you in general by assigning a number from 1 to 6. The higher the number, the more that item is true for you. For example, if the item says "I dream of being the president of a company," then you would rate that as follows:

1	if the statement is never true for you
2 or 3	if the statement is occasionally true for you
4 or 5	if the statement is often true for you
6	if the statement is always true for you

Please begin your self-report by writing the appropriate rating in the blank to the left of each item.

____ 1. I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually.

____ 2. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others.

____ 3. I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule.

____ 4. Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy.

____ 5. I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise.

____ 6. I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society.

____ 7. I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging.

____ 8. I would rather leave my organization than to be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns.

___ 9. I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence.

___ 10. I dream of being in charge of a complex organization and making decisions that affect many people.

___ 11. I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures.

___ 12. I would rather leave my organization altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardize my security in that organization.

___ 13. Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organization.

___ 14. I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others.

___ 15. I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges.

___ 16. I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal family and work needs.

___ 17. Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager.

___ 18. I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organization.

___ 19. I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom.

___ 20. I seek jobs in organizations that will give me a sense of security and stability.

___ 21. I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts.

___ 22. Using my skills to make the world a better place to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.

___ 23. I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds.

___ 24. I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family, and career requirements.

___ 25. I would rather leave my organization than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise.

___ 26. Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise.

___ 27. The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security.

___ 28. I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security.

___ 29. I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea.

___ 30. I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society.

___ 31. I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills.

___ 32. Balancing the demands of personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.

___ 33. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents.

___ 34. I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial track.

___ 35. I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom.

___ 36. I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability.

___ 37. I dream of starting up and building my own business.

___ 38. I would rather leave my organization than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others.

___ 39. Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.

___ 40. I have always sought out work opportunities that would minimize interference with personal or family concerns.

At this point, look over your answers and locate all of the items that you rated highest. Pick out the *three* items that seem most true for you and give each of those items an additional *four* points. You now can score your questionnaire, but the scales will not have a real meaning for you until you have read the text in the next sections.

Scoring Instructions

In the next section, you will find blank spaces for all 40 items, arranged in order so that you can easily transfer the numbers from your rating sheets onto the scoring sheet. After you have transferred all of the numbers, add up the columns and divide by five (the number of items) to get your average score for each of the eight career anchor dimensions. Do not forget to add the extra four points for each of your three key items before you total and average your scores.

Scoring Sheet

The following blanks represent the items you have just rated. Transfer your previous answers to these blanks. Do not forget to add the four points for the three items that were most true for you. Total the numbers in each column and then divide that total by five (the number of items in the column). The resulting average is your self-assessment of how true the items in that scale are for you.

TF	GM	AU	SE	EC	SV	CH	LS
1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___
9___	10___	11___	12___	13___	14___	15___	16___
17___	18___	19___	20___	21___	22___	23___	24___
25___	26___	27___	28___	29___	30___	31___	32___
33___	34___	35___	36___	37___	38___	39___	40___

	TF	GM	AU	SE	EC	SV	CH	LS
Total: (divide by 5)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
Average:	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

Source: From *Career Anchors*, *3rd ed.*, by E. H. Schein, 2006, San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer/Wiley. This material is reproduced with permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Appendix 2.D

Emotional Intelligence

Instructions

Ask yourself how often you respond in a healthy way when severely disappointed, verbally attacked, or treated unfairly by analyzing these attitudes and behaviors:

1. When I am upset, I respond rationally so that I can remain analytical and solve the problem or otherwise make the best of the situation.

2. I reject the harm that can result from reacting emotionally when I am upset and getting angry or feeling battered.

3. When verbally attacked, I allow for the likelihood that the attackers might never have learned how to respond when their needs aren't met.

4. When verbally attacked, I allow for the probability that the attack is prompted by pain or fear.

5. When verbally attacked, I keep my role as a manager separate from my identity as a person.

6. I resist the temptation to feel entitled to better treatment and to lose emotional control.

7. I understand that victims of my outbursts will remember my accusatory statements and name-calling long after I have calmed down.

8. I accept that others cannot make me angry without my full cooperation. In other words, I control my anger.

9. When I get angry, I talk about my feelings to calm myself down rather than focus on what the other person did.

Interpreting Results

The first two behaviors lay a firm foundation for emotional intelligence. Behaviors 3–5 are proven strategies for staying in control when under attack. Regardless of the root of your anger, deal with it as suggested in 6–9.

These prescriptions will take practice, and it will help to have a positive role model share how they deal with these difficult situations.

Source: Adapted from *Act on It! Solving 101 of the Toughest Management Challenges* (p. 33), by S. Deep and L. Sussman, 2000, Cambridge, MA: Perseus Publishing. Reprinted with permission.