

BLACKWELL

ENCYCLOPEDIA DICTIONARY
OF HUMAN
RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

(影印版)

布莱克韦尔

人力资源管理学百科全书

EDITED BY
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STUART A. YOUNGBLOOD

The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Management editors:
Professor Cary L. Cooper and
Professor Chris Argyris

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Business

The Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Human Resource Management

Edited by Lawrence H. Peters, Charles R. Greer and
Stuart A. Youngblood

Texas Christian University

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Lawrence H. Peters, Charles R. Greer & Stuart A. Youngblood 编著

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Foreword

It is a privilege to introduce this book and its contributors to a great new readership – the people of China.

In a transforming economy the challenge is to find new ways of managing and organising that harmonise with national culture. In meeting this challenge the most important tools are ideas and knowledge. This book is a toolbox containing a wealth of powerful and influential ideas. This is knowledge that has been influential in shaping how we think about what goes on in organisations, and which has stood the test of time. You will also find here ideas that are emerging as signposts for the future development of organisations and management. One major barrier to adopting this knowledge has been its restriction to the readers of specialist journals and books. This has led, over the years, to a great proliferation of specialist concepts and terminology – impenetrable jargon to the nonspecialist, making it unnecessarily difficult for lay readers to understand and get full value from the insights of scholars. The present volume solves this problem by providing a systematic inventory of key concepts, with clear explanations of them by a collection of the world's experts.

In a transforming economy like China, it is my hope that a book like this will be immensely valuable to

- a) scholars and students who want a source book for key concepts, references to further reading, and linkages with other topics [cross references are indicated by words in SMALL CAPITALS]
- b) business leaders and professionals who want clear explanations of management and organisational terms, and ideas about how to apply them in business settings
- c) broad-minded and intelligent general readers who want quick digests of the essential academic knowledge on a given topic.

There are many ways of using a book like this. The cross-indexing system allows you to explore at will. If you pick a theme, you can follow a path of interconnected ideas through the main areas of business and management. For readers in China, as a region in the

midst of radical economic and social change, so of these might be as follows:

1. **Management style.** What kinds of leadership seem to work best and why? What are the preconditions for effective authority?

[see, for example, entries on: CEOS; DELEGATION; ENTREPRENEURSHIP; LEADERSHIP, MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR; MANAGEMENT STYLE; POWER; RISK-TAKING; STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT; SUCCESSION PLANNING; SUPERVISION; TEAMBUILDING; TOP MANAGEMENT TEAMS; TURNAROUND MANAGEMENT; WOMAN MANAGERS]

2. **Organisational design.** How do you get the best out of people through how you organise tasks, communication networks and decision-making systems?

[see, for example, entries on: BUREAUCRACY; COMMUNICATION; DECENTRALIZATION; FAMILY FIRMS; INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY; JOB DESIGN; MATRIX ORGANIZATION; MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS; ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT; ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN; ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS; RESTRUCTURING; SOCIOTECHNICAL THEORY; TECHNOLOGY]

3. **Human Resource systems.** What is current accepted wisdom about the effectiveness of key practices and processes? How do you make them work best?

[see, for example, entries on: ASSESSMENT CENTRES; DISABILITY; HOURS OF WORK; HUMAN RESOURCE STRATEGY; JOB ANALYSIS; MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT; NEGOTIATION; PARTICIPATION; PAYMENT SYSTEMS; PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL; PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT; RACE; RECRUITMENT; SAFETY; SELECTION METHODS; TRAINING]

4. **Individual performance and adaptation.** Under conditions of change, which methods work best and how do people's motives translate into productive action?

[see, for example, entries on: ABSENTEEISM; CHANGE METHODS; COMPETENCIES; CREATIVITY; ERRORS; GOAL SETTING; INTERPERSONAL SKILLS; MENTAL HEALTH; MOTIVATION; PERFORMANCE, INDIVIDUAL; PERSONALITY; PRODUCTIVITY; QUALITY CIRCLES; STRESS]

5. **The cultural context for management.** How can we best understand and analyse how values and practices adapt to different national and industrial contexts?

[see, for example, entries on: CRISES; CULTURE; DOWNSIZING; EXPATRIATES; GOVERNMENT AND BUSINESS; INTERNATIONAL MANAGEMENT; MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSI-

TY; ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE; POPULATION ECOLOGY; PRIVATIZATION; TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER]

6. **Strategic decision making.** What are the hazards and opportunities for how business plans are formulated? How can groups and teams be used to best effect? what biases distort judgement?

[see, for example, entries on: BEHAVIORAL DECISION THEORY; CONSULTANCY INTERVENTION METHODS; DECISION MAKING; DIVERSIFICATION; GROUP DECISION MAKING; INNOVATION; MERGERS & ACQUISITIONS; NETWORKING TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT]

7. **Ethics.** What do we know about how principled business can be achieved in demanding market environments? How can employees be encouraged to act as good corporate “citizens” and businesses as socially responsible forces?

[see, for example, entries on: BUSINESS ETHICS; CONFLICT, CORPORATE SOCIAL PERFORMANCE; DISCRIMINATION; JUSTICE; LEARNING ORGANISATION; MORAL DEVELOPMENT; ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP; POLITICS; VALUES]

This list is not exhaustive. There are almost as many ways of using this book as there are entries. For this reason it is my hope and belief that Chinese readers will find their own special interests served by its rich contents.

Nigel Nicholson

London Business School

September 1999

— Preface —

When we first sat down to consider creating and editing *The Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Human Resource Management*, we had to answer the question of whether such a volume would serve a useful purpose for potential users. As we discussed this issue among ourselves, it became clear that many of the persons we interacted with daily regularly asked for basic, definitional information about human resource management topics. We received definitional questions from students and colleagues at our university, and from our contacts in the human resource (HR) professional community as well. We also noted the frequency with which such questions were asked on human resource electronic bulletin boards. It became clear that the HR knowledge base had a large and important audience and that a *dictionary* that contained succinct, professionally appropriate definitions would, indeed, be of great value to many audiences.

Once we decided to move forward on this project, the next question became one of defining the scope of the *Dictionary*, and of identifying those features that would help to insure that it was both relevant and useful. In doing so, we identified the following goals.

- 1 We wanted the *Dictionary* to be *comprehensive*, in several ways. First, we wanted it to be a comprehensive compilation of the important topics and terms in human resource management (HRM). Further, we wanted it to be comprehensive of the field, not only as it is traditionally defined, but as it is emerging. Thus, we wanted to pick up on current trends and hot topics, and to anticipate important changes in organizations as they affect HRM as well. We also wanted to insure that the volume reflected both functional and strategic issues in HR, as well as important foundation work from industrial/organizational psychology and industrial relations. Finally, we wanted the topical coverage to reflect a global perspective. To this end, we have included authors from, and entries that discuss HRM practices in, several major countries and regions from around the world.
- 2 We wanted the contents of the *Dictionary* to be *grounded in basic and applied research* and to reflect sound professional understandings based on that research. To this end, top scholars from around the globe were asked to share their expertise. Take the time to look at the listing of contributors to this volume and you will see the names of some of the best scholars in the area of HRM in the world. We are truly grateful to them for sharing their expertise in this volume.
- 3 We wanted the *Dictionary* to be *credible* to both academic and professional Human Resource audiences. This meant two things to us. First, we needed to include topics that are relevant for both academic and professional HR audiences. As importantly, it meant that we needed to help topic area experts understand that they needed to prepare definitions that not only were professionally appropriate and tied to current research understandings, but that needed to be written so as to make that expertise accessible to practitioners who may be less familiar and less comfortable with academic jargon.
- 4 We wanted the *Dictionary* to be *user-friendly*. To this end, we designed the *Dictionary* to have the following three components. First, key concepts within a definition needed to be cross-referenced to link them to other entries in the *Dictionary* that contain important collateral information. This would allow readers to develop a broad and more complete understanding of

issues related to their interests. Further, we asked authors to provide citations to important articles and books for readers who are interested in learning more about a topic. Finally, since the same HR-related concept and/or practice can go by several different labels and/or acronyms, we wanted to develop an index for this volume that was expansive of the many ways that a user might think to look up a term.

We are pleased to have had the opportunity to edit *The Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Human Resource Management* and to produce this important reference work for the field of human resource management. We were asked to do so under an accelerated, 15-month time frame. As we finished work on this effort and as we looked back at what was accomplished, we were delighted to see the realization of our goals. Completing this volume in 15 months and meeting our own goals in the process could only have happened with the support we received from our contributing authors and from the Blackwell staff. We were truly privileged to work with outstanding content area experts, as well as with the quality support staff at Blackwell Publishers. With their help, we believe that we not only met our goals, but far exceeded them. We want to acknowledge their considerable contributions towards this end.

A project of this scope could not possibly have been completed successfully without the efforts of several key individuals, and we would like to acknowledge them personally. First, we would like to thank Cary Cooper, Co-editor of *The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Management*, for presenting us with this opportunity and with his perseverance in convincing us to take on this task. He was there for us at every step of the project, from Fort Worth, Texas all the way to Manchester, England – by phone, fax and e-mail. We are also extremely grateful to Nigel Nicholson, Editor of *The Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Organizational Behavior*, for lending his considerable editorial expertise and advice to us during the critical beginning stages of this project. The Blackwell staff were a delight to work with. They were fully responsive and very helpful to us all along the way. Our heartfelt thanks go to Tim Goodfellow, Sarah McNamee, and Selina Norman, as well as to the rest of the Blackwell staff who were behind the scenes.

An enormous debt of gratitude is due to Linda Blundell, a very capable, patient and persistent staff assistant, who competently converted our contributors' manuscripts into the Blackwell format and who made sure that the hundreds of details received needed attention. We are also grateful to Jinger Lord, who designed the database program that allowed us to manage the enormous amount of information associated with a project that involved more than 225 contributors writing nearly 600 entries.

Finally, we want to thank our families for putting up with our late hours, long days, and even longer weeks to bring this project together under an accelerated deadline. We were fortunate to have the mutual support of our spouses, Jennifer, Liz, and Anne, respectively, throughout this effort.

Larry Peters
Bob Greer
Stuart Youngblood

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A

360 degree appraisals The central idea of a 360 degree appraisal system is to obtain performance evaluations on individual employees from multiple perspectives or sources. Typically, ratings are gathered from supervisors, peers, and subordinates, or some combination of these sources (e.g. Bracken, 1994). Self-ratings and customer ratings may also be elicited. Other terms used to describe 360 degree appraisals include multi-rater systems, upward feedback, and full-circle feedback.

The purpose of 360 degree appraisals is usually to provide feedback to individuals on how their performance is viewed by a number of organizational constituencies (e.g. Edwards et al., 1985). The appraisal done for this purpose will be part of a feedback process that encourages an honest self-diagnosis of strong and weak performance areas, and sets in motion developmental efforts to improve effectiveness in the relatively weak areas. These evaluations have also been used as administrative performance appraisals that feed into personnel decisions, such as promotions and succession planning.

There are a number of issues associated with administering a 360 degree appraisal program. Best practice thinking at this point (e.g. Bracken, 1994) suggests, first, that behavioral rather than trait rating scales should be employed. Second, selection of raters should be managed carefully to avoid, for example, ratees nominating only "friendly raters" to provide them with feedback. Third, ratings should be made anonymously to encourage honest appraisals. Finally, raters should be trained to use the rating form properly to help them make accurate appraisals.

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WALTER C. BORMAN
and DAVID W. BRACKEN

401(k) plans Named for the section of the Revenue Act of 1978 authorizing them, these cash or deferred arrangement (CODA) plans allow employees to agree to a reduction in salary in exchange for the employer's equal contribution to a tax-qualified trust. Employees thus can accumulate capital for retirement purposes and defer income tax on both contributed and plan income until retirement. Employers are allowed to match some portion of employee contributions; the most common match is 50 percent. As with all defined contribution pension plans, there are nondiscrimination regulations to assure that plans do not discriminate in favor of highly paid employees.

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CHARLES H. FAY

absenteeism Absenteeism is the failure to report for scheduled work. Absenteeism is distinguished from lateness or tardiness, which

2 ABSENTEEISM

indicates a failure to show up for scheduled work on *time* and from turnover, which indicates a permanent break in the employment relationship. Traditionally, managers have been interested in absenteeism because of its cost to organizations, while academic researchers have been interested in absenteeism on the assumption that it indicates something about employees' social or psychological attachment to the organization.

The Measurement of Absenteeism

Many organizations are notoriously lax when it comes to systematically recording instances of absence. When they do so, they often codify absence instances with attributions as to cause which are of suspect accuracy. Consequently, contemporary researchers most often simply divide absenteeism into *time lost*, the number of days missed over some period, and *frequency*, the number of inceptions or spells of absence over some period irrespective of the duration of each incident. To permit comparisons of employees with a different number of scheduled days or to characterize absenteeism at the group level these figures can also be expressed as rates. Following the logic that absence is missing *scheduled* work, not reporting due to jury duty, vacation, or maternity leave is not generally counted as absence.

Absence is a low base rate behavior, in that most employees exhibit relatively low absence levels while a few exhibit higher levels. Thus, a frequency distribution for absenteeism is truncated on the low end and positively skewed. Because it is a low base rate behavior, absence measures for individuals must be aggregated over a reasonably long period of time (3 to 12 months) to achieve adequate reliability of measurement. Even then, the reliability of absence measures (indexed by interperiod stability or internal consistency) is tenuous and varies across samples. Some validity evidence suggests that frequency of absence is more likely than time lost to reflect a voluntary component (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982; Hackett and Guion, 1985). Because of its non-normal distribution, researchers often transform absence data or use alternative statistical procedures (e.g. probit or tobit) in its analysis. Managers should be aware that a few extreme absentees can have a disproportionate effect on

the means calculated from absence distributions, especially for small samples.

The Correlates and Causes of Absenteeism

A longstanding tradition concerns the correlation between demographic variables and absenteeism. This research reveals reliable associations between age and absence among men (younger workers exhibit more absence: Hackett, 1990) and between gender and absence (women are absent more than men). However, little theory has emerged to explain these associations, and they tend to be confounded by differences in occupation and job status.

Johns (1987) presents several models of absenteeism that correspond to both popular explanations and research-based explanations for absenteeism. Concerning the *medical model*, very little evidence exists regarding the association between verified illness and absence. However, self-reported health status is correlated with absence, and people tend to attribute the majority of their own absence to minor medical problems. The ultimate accuracy of such attributions is questionable, because sickness absence has motivational correlates. Medical diagnoses often reflect prevailing community standards and people sometimes adopt sick roles that manifest themselves in absence.

The *withdrawal model* suggests that absenteeism is an attempt to remove oneself temporarily from aversive working conditions. The voluminous literature on the relationship between JOB SATISFACTION and absenteeism reveals a very modest relationship, with dissatisfaction with the work itself being the facet most associated with absenteeism (Hackett and Guion, 1985). The progression-of-withdrawal hypothesis posits a movement from temporary absence to permanent turnover. In fact, there is a positive relationship between these variables at the individual level, a condition that is necessary but not sufficient to prove such a progression.

The *deviance model* derives from the negative consequences of absence for organizations and suggests that absentees harbor negative dispositional TRAITS that render them unreliable. People tend to make negative attributions about the causes of others' absenteeism. Absenteeism is a frequent cause of employee-management conflict. Employees tend to underreport their own absenteeism and to see their own

behavior as exemplary compared to that of their co-workers and occupational peers (Johns, 1994). Evidence for an actual connection between negative traits and absenteeism is sparse and indirect, but *more rigorous proof* would be an association between absenteeism and other negative behaviors. Bycio's (1992) review indicates that more frequent absentees tend to be poorer performers and notes that "a disposition for delinquency" is one possible explanation.

The *economic model* of absence suggests that attendance behavior is influenced by economic and quasi-economic constraints and opportunities. Those who value highly their nonwork time are more likely to be absent and looser contractual provisions regarding attendance will also result in more absence. Absence tends to increase when unemployment falls and when lucrative overtime pay is available. Some industrial relations scholars have argued that absence is a form of unorganized conflict that substitutes for some of the functions of collective action.

The *cultural model* of absence begins with the observation that there is often more variance between aggregates of individuals (such as work groups, departments, organizations, occupations, industries, and nations) than within these aggregates. Mechanisms of social influence and control subsumed under the label "absence culture" have been advanced to account in part for these differences between groups (Chadwick-Jones et al., 1982; Johns and Nicholson, 1982). Some rich case studies of absence cultures exist, and work unit absence has been shown to account for individual absence over and above individual-level predictors. Research is needed to provide more rigorous evidence on the formation and content of absence cultures.

In addition to the research subsumed under the above models, other eclectic themes can be seen in contemporary research. These include investigations of mood and absence, the self-regulatory and coping functions of absence, and the prediction of absence using within-person rather than between-person models.

Managing Absenteeism

The deviance model has tended to dominate management approaches to absence. As a result,

surveys show that punishment and discipline systems are the most common methods of controlling absence. Used alone, they are not especially effective because of negative side-effects and because few employees are actually punished. More effective are mixed consequence systems that punish extreme offenders but reward good attenders with money, time off, and so on (Rhodes and Steers, 1990). Job enrichment and flexitime have both been associated with reduced absence, as have self-management programs that teach employees to regulate their own attendance behavior. Badly needed are theories that translate the likely causes of absenteeism into credible interventions and organizations with the foresight to experiment with these interventions. Obsession with extreme offenders has distracted managers from giving attention to the attendance behavior of *all* employees.

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Rhodes, S. R. & Steers, R. M. (1990). *Managing Employee Absenteeism*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

GARY JOHNS

affirmative action Affirmative action is the practice of giving explicit consideration to race, gender, national origin, or some other protected characteristic in making an employment decision. It is designed to counter the lingering effects of prior discrimination, whether intentional or not, by employers individually and collectively, as well as to provide a workforce more representative of the gender and ethnic makeup of the qualified labor market for the positions within an organization.

Affirmative action is required by federal law for recipients of federal contracts, may be ordered by a court as part of the settlement or remedy in a lawsuit charging an employer with discrimination, or may be voluntary.

Required Affirmative Action

Executive Orders 11246 and 11375 require federal contractors and subcontractors to practice affirmative action in hiring and in other employment decisions (such as promotions, job assignments). The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs, part of the US Department of Labor, may conduct compliance reviews, either before or after the contract is awarded, may receive and investigate complaints from current employees or from applicants, and may commence administrative proceedings or judicial action. Remedies for violations of the Executive Orders include termination of the contract, debarment from future federal contracts, or injunctions.

Affirmative Action as a Remedy

Federal courts have ordered employers or trade unions to engage in race- or gender-conscious affirmative action as a remedy for prior intentional discrimination. For example, in *Local 28 of the Sheet Metal Workers' International Assn v. EEOC*, 478 US 421 (1986), the Supreme Court approved explicit quotas for admission to union membership to remedy prior intentional race discrimination that was "persistent" and "egregious." A similar outcome for gender discrimination occurred in *EEOC v. AT&T*, 365 F.

Supp. 1105 (E.D. Pa. 1973) (see Kirp et al., 1986, pp. 161–6 for a critical analysis of this case and other court-ordered affirmative action settlements related to gender).

Voluntary Affirmative Action

Voluntary affirmative action differs from court-ordered affirmative action in that the employer need not admit to prior discriminatory employment practices. The employer must first develop an affirmative action plan that meets the criteria listed in *United Steelworkers of America v. Weber*, 443 US 193 (1979): (a) the plan cannot "unnecessarily trammel" the interests of majority employees by requiring their discharge; (b) the plan cannot create an absolute bar to the advancement of majority employees, but a delay in advancement, in order to give minority employees an earlier opportunity at advancement, is permissible; and (c) the plan must be temporary in that it must be designed to eliminate a "manifest racial imbalance," but not operate to maintain that balance once it is attained. Preferences must cease when balance is attained.

The Court approved a voluntary affirmative action plan in *Johnson v. Transportation Agency*, 480 US 616 (1987), in which the agency used gender as one criterion among several to select a woman for promotion to the position of road dispatcher. When, however, a layoff or other job loss is at stake, the outcome has been quite different. In *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education*, 476 US 267 (1986), the Supreme Court ruled that a layoff plan that sought to maintain the same proportion of minority teachers after the layoff as previously violated the US Constitution's Equal Protection Clause. The Court denied that affirmative action could be a remedy for "societal discrimination" if there was no evidence of past intentional discrimination by the School Board.

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BARBARA LEE

affirmative action for non-victims When an employer is found to have engaged in unlawful discrimination against a class of

employees or applicants, the court may order the employer to engage in affirmative race- or gender-conscious employment practices as a remedy for the prior discrimination, including hiring or promotion quotas. If the actual victims of the prior discrimination cannot be found or are not interested in working for the employer, the court may require the employer to offer employment, promotions, salary increases, or whatever practice was attacked in the lawsuit to individuals in the same minority group as those against whom the discrimination was practiced, but who were not the actual victims of the employer's discrimination (see *United States v. Paradise* (480 US 149, 1987)).

BARBARA A. LEE

AFL-CIO The American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations is a federation of 78 labor unions representing nearly 13.6 million working women and men. The merger of the AFL (a craft union) with the CIO (an industrial union) in 1955 also coincided with the peak of trade union membership in the USA, membership that reached 35 percent of the nonagricultural workforce. Today, membership in private nonagricultural industries is nearly 10 percent. The federation does not engage in COLLECTIVE BARGAINING, but instead advises and supports the international unions by providing information and technical services to assist UNION ORGANIZING, collective bargaining, and legislative and political action by the unions of the AFL-CIO. The federation is supported by a per capita tax from its member internationals. The AFL-CIO has elected officers, who currently are: John J. Sweeney, President; Linda Chavez-Thompson, Executive Vice President; and Richard L. Trumka, Secretary Treasurer. The AFL-CIO supports an Executive Council made up of 33 vice presidents who also serve as presidents of their respective national unions. Sweeney, elected President at the biennial convention in October of 1995, has vowed to increase efforts at organizing to attract younger workers and to reach out especially to women and minorities. A US\$35 million political education campaign has been proposed and will be funded in part by the approval of a one-year assessment on national unions of 15

cents per member per month, as well as \$10 million which has been earmarked for new organizing activity. President Sweeney announced a major reorganization of the federation, including the appointment as head of the field services department of Marilyn Sneiderman, who previously served as education director at the Teamsters, and the creation of a new department, the Working Women's Department, to be headed by Karen Nussbaum, previously director of the Labor Department's Women's Bureau. The AFL-CIO has created a homepage on the Internet and can be reached at: <http://www.aflcio.org>.

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STUART A. YOUNGBLOOD

Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 (ADEA) extends anti-discrimination protection to workers who are at least 40 years old. Originally, the Act included upper age limits as well, but in 1986 upper age limits were eliminated (with a few exceptions). The employment practices that are covered by the Act mimic those of Title VII of the CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964, but the entities that are covered are not as extensive. Only employers having 20 or more employees are covered under the ADEA.

The ADEA creates both protected and unprotected age categories – those 40 and over, and those under 40, respectively. Other federal anti-discrimination laws do not generally create unprotected categories within the class of protection (e.g. "race" protection extends to *all* races; "sex" protection extends to both men and women). This distinction introduces complexities into the meaning of age discrimination. Additionally, because age is measured continuously and changes over a person's lifetime, problems of proof in regard to age tend to be more complex in nature than other proof issues arising under protected class statuses. For example, differential treatment among members *within* the protected age category may be evidence of illegal discrimination; violations of the Act need not rest on comparisons of

treatment *between* protected and unprotected categories.

In *Hazen Paper Co. v. Biggins* (1993), the US Supreme Court ruled that an employer's use of a factor that is correlated with age, but distinct from age, may not be illegal age discrimination. The court held that age itself must motivate the employer's decision and be a determining influence on the employment outcome in order for a finding of age discrimination to be obtained. This language makes unclear the future of the "mixed motive" model of DISPARATE TREATMENT under the ADEA. Also unclear is whether the ADEA accommodates DISPARATE IMPACT claims; to date the Supreme Court has not ruled on that issue and the Federal Courts of Appeal are split on the issue.

RAMONA L. PAETZOLD

agency shop The agency shop is a form of union security found in some labor agreements, whereby an employee is not required to join the union, but he or she must pay to the union an amount, known as an agency fee, which is usually equivalent to regular union dues. This fee is used to cover the costs of union representation for bargaining and grievance handling purposes. The Supreme Court ruled in *Beck v. Communication Workers* (1988) that the union can assess the fee, but if the costs of collective bargaining are less than regular union dues, the non-union agency-fee-paying employee can obtain a refund for the difference. In most right-to-work states, which make UNION SHOP agreements illegal, the agency shop is also prohibited.

DAVID A. GRAY

AIDS awareness training Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) awareness training entails educating members of an organization about Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) infection, how it is spread, and new developments in HIV/AIDS research and treatment. Training also focuses on ensuring that HIV-positive employees are treated appropriately by their supervisors, coworkers, and the organization as a whole, have their rights to

privacy respected, and are able to remain productive as long as they can. Dispelling myths about HIV and AIDS, educating employees in prevention, and communicating an organization's policies are important elements. Training can include the use of videos, group discussions, seminars, workshops, forums, and presentations as well as written educational materials.

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JENNIFER M. GEORGE

AIDS/AIDS-related complex Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is a disease that impairs people's immune systems, leaving them unable to fight infections and cancers. AIDS is caused by the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). Individuals infected with HIV may show no AIDS symptoms, may not develop AIDS in the near future, can transmit the virus to others, are referred to as HIV-positive, and are often able to effectively perform their jobs. HIV-infected individuals who show signs that AIDS might develop, such as swollen lymph nodes, excessive fatigue, fever, weight loss, and diarrhea, have AIDS-related complex (ARC) and may or may not be able to effectively perform their jobs. HIV-infected individuals who have multiple infections, often requiring hospitalization, have full-blown AIDS and often are unable to perform their jobs. HIV is most commonly transmitted through sexual contact and the sharing of infected needles by intravenous drug users. AIDS also can be transmitted through contact with contaminated blood products. AIDS does not spread through casual, nonsexual contact. While progress has been made in the treatment of HIV/AIDS, there currently is no cure or vaccine for the disease. In the United States, employees who are HIV-

positive, have ARC or AIDS are protected by the AMERICANS WITH DISABILITIES ACT OF 1990.

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JENNIFER M. GEORGE

Albemarle Paper Company v. Moody, 422 US 405 (1975) To defend against a DISPARATE IMPACT charge, an employer must show that the hiring procedures it uses are clearly job-related. In *Albemarle* the company used test scores of verbal and nonverbal intelligence to evaluate applicants. To determine whether the tests were job-related, the company hired an industrial psychologist who found a correlation between test scores and supervisor ratings of employee performance. The Supreme Court held, however, that this *validation study* did not meet EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY COMMISSION guidelines and that the tests used were not sufficiently proven to be job-related.

LEONARD BIERMAN

alternative dispute resolution The term alternative dispute resolution (ADR) refers to procedures that are used to resolve employee relations disputes as opposed to reliance on litigation. ADR procedures include GRIEVANCE PROCEDURES (both union and nonunion), ARBITRATION, MEDIATION, fact-finding, the use of ombudspersons, and combined approaches. As compared to litigation, ADR procedures are generally thought to provide a number of advantages, including more timely resolution of issues, reduced expense, more flexible remedies tailored to the unique circumstances of the parties involved, and less adversarial interaction (Zack, 1992; Lewicki et al., 1994). ADR procedures vary in the extent to

which neutral third parties have formal authority. Arbitration is at one end of the spectrum, with arbitrators having the authority to formulate remedies which the parties must follow. Mediation is at the other end of the spectrum, with mediators having no formal authority and only their skills to work through the conflict to enable the parties to arrive at their own solution to the dispute. While there is no authority with mediation, the conventional wisdom of conflict resolution is that superior outcomes are more likely because the parties themselves decide the solution and are therefore more committed.

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CHARLES R. GREER

American Arbitration Association The American Arbitration Association (AAA) provides services on a fee basis for parties using ARBITRATION, MEDIATION, and fact-finding to resolve disputes. The AAA, which has offices in most major cities, maintains a roster of arbitrators who meet the association's requirements of expertise in labor relations and neutrality. Parties seeking to obtain arbitrators to decide labor-management disputes over contract interpretation (RIGHTS ARBITRATION) or terms to be included in a new contract (INTEREST ARBITRATION) may specify in their labor agreement, or otherwise agree, that arbitrators will be obtained from panels provided by the AAA. The AAA also provides arbitrators for companies using arbitration as the final step in nonunion grievance procedures and provides arbitrators for resolution of commercial disputes. In addition to providing panels of arbitrators, the AAA handles administrative issues related to scheduling hearings, transmits correspondence between the parties, such as post-hearing briefs and the award, and has meeting rooms that can be used for hearings. The AAA also conducts periodic training sessions for its members and interested

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parties on arbitration and mediation and publishes books, a journal, and video tapes on arbitration and dispute resolution.

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American Arbitration Association (1991). *Labor-Management Dispute Resolution: a Guide to AAA Resources*, New York: American Arbitration Association.

CHARLES R. GREER

American Compensation Association

The American Compensation Association (ACA) is a not-for-profit association of some 20,000 members (1996) engaged in the design, implementation, and management of employee compensation and benefit programs. The association was founded in 1955 and is headquartered in Scottsdale, Arizona.

ACA sponsors a comprehensive educational and professional development program; administers certification programs for compensation professionals (CCP) and benefits professionals (CBP); and publishes the *ACA Journal* (quarterly), *ACA News* (monthly), *Building Block Booklets*, and various other booklets and software; funds research projects; and provides informational services.

Descriptive information is available on request from: American Compensation Association, 14040 N. Northsight Blvd, Scottsdale, AZ 85260. Telephone 602-951-9191. Fax 602-483-8352.

ROBERT M. MCCAFFERY

American Society for Training and Development

Founded in 1944, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) is the world's largest professional association in the field of employer-based training. ASTD represents 58,000 corporate-based professionals in the growing training and development industry: managers, human resource specialists, designers, technical trainers, instructors, evaluators, front-line supervisors, consultants, researchers, and educators. ASTD members work in every size and type of company and industry, in every state of the

United States, and in over 90 countries throughout the world. ASTD hosts annual conferences, publishes periodicals and other publications, maintains an online service, and sponsors over 150 state and local chapters.

For further information, please contact: American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), 1640 King Street, Box 1443, Alexandria, Virginia 22313-2043. Telephone 703-683-8100. Fax 703-683-8103.

SCOTT I. TANNENBAUM

Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990

The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) is similar to the REHABILITATION ACT, 1973 in providing job protection for handicapped individuals, but ADA is designed to cover private sector employers with 15 or more employees. ADA went into full effect on July 26, 1994 after a gradual phase-in to allow employers time to make building accommodations and to allow small employers (fewer than 25 employees) time to adjust to new legislative requirements. ADA contains five titles or sections that: (a) make it illegal to discriminate against qualified individuals with a disability in employment; (b) make it illegal for state or local governments to discriminate against the handicapped in the provision of public services; (c) make it illegal for public accommodations to discriminate against the handicapped in the provision of goods, benefits, services, facilities, privileges, advantages or accommodations and require public accommodations to be made accessible; (d) require common carriers engaged in interstate communication to insure that telecommunications systems are available to individuals with hearing and/or speech impediments and to provide accommodation; and (e) include a catch-all title that, among other things, makes it illegal to retaliate against individuals who exercise their rights under ADA. A disabled or handicapped individual is any person who: (a) has a physical or mental impairment that limits one or more major life activities; (b) has a record of such an impairment; or (c) is regarded as having such an impairment.

The Act, in effect, covers any qualified person who with or without reasonable accommodation can perform the "essential functions"