ABSTRACT

The concept of human capital is concerned with the added value people provide for organizations. It has been well said by Chatzkel (2004) that “it is human capital that is the differentiator for organizations and the actual basis for competitive advantage”. Human capital theory, as stated by Ehrenberg and Smith (1997), conceptualizes workers as embodying a set of skills which can be “rented out” to employers. The knowledge and skills a worker has – which come from education and training, including the training that experience brings – generate a certain stock of productive capital. Human capital is an important element of the intangible assets of an organization. The significance of human assets explain why it is important to measure their value as a means of assessing how well they are used and of indicating what needs to be done to manage them even more effectively. Human capital concept is viewed as a bridging concept and defines the link between HR practices and business performance in terms of assets rather than business processes (Scarborough and Elias, 2002). The purpose of this research is to establish a model by which we measure human capital and to what extent it determines an organization's performance.

KEY WORDS
Human capital, performance, assets, return on investement.

1. Introduction

The world is experiencing a revolution in information technology, innovation, and telecommunications, which is driving the emergence of the knowledge-based economy. This requires successful organizations of the twenty-first century to recognize the importance of human capital as a source of sustainable competitive advantage. The field of human capital has developed in two phases. The first phase started in the 1990s and focused on raising awareness, defining concepts, reviewing case studies and developing initial conceptualizations (Sveiby, 1997; Stewart, 1997; Brooking, 1997; Bontis, 1996, 1998, Ashour, 1997, Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Ross et al., 1997; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Kennedy, 1998; Sullivan, 1999). The second phase, which started in the year 2000, addressed measurement, modeling, international cases and various levels of analysis (Ashour, 2000; Bontis, 2002, 2003, 2004; Harrison and Sullivan, 2000, Guthrie and Petty, 2000; Petty and Guthrie, 2000).

The purpose of this study is a literature review who wants to highlight the difficulty, but many factors that influence human capital in order to obtain organizational performance in terms of profit company and company goals achievement.

2. Definition of Human Capital

The approach of human resources in terms of economic growth was a pioneering work of Schumpeter on entrepreneurship and has been studied in detail by Theodore Schultz, based on empirical observations of growth of agriculture in the U.S. in the first half of the 20th century.

Before starting our approach we conceptualizes intellectual capital term as the sum of all knowledge and knowing capabilities that can be utilized to give a company competitive advantage (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Stewart, 1997). We focus on two aspects of this popular conceptualization. One, intellectual capital is the sum of all knowledge, implying that knowledge that exists at different levels both within or outside the organization has to be taken into account for intellectual capital. And two, intellectual capital requires utilizing knowledge for competitive advantage; implying that knowledge has to be leveraged to be considered as intellectual capital. Thus, for the purposes of this study, we define intellectual capital as “the sum of all knowledge an organization is able to leverage in the process of conducting business to gain competitive advantage.”

Edvinsson and Malone (1997), for example, view intellectual capital as being comprised of two primary components: human capital (i.e. the knowledge skills and experience of employees) and structural capital (i.e. the embodiment, empowerment, and supportive infrastructure of human capital). The authors then sub-divide structural capital into two smaller components: organizational capital (i.e. the systems, tools, and operating philosophy that speed the flow of knowledge through the organization) and customer capital (i.e. relationships a company has with its customers).
Stewart (1997) similarly conceives of intellectual capital as composed of human capital and structural capital, but places customer capital on equal footing with structural capital (rather than as a subcategory). He also subsumes organizational capital into structural capital. Bontis (1996), on the other hand, introduces the notion of relational capital as an expanded version of customer capital that includes the value of all relationships including those of customers. Bontis' concept of relational capital is virtually identical to what sociologists (Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1988) and organization theorists (Baker, 1990; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998) refer to as social capital.

Synthesizing the above discussions, we conceptualize intellectual capital as consisting of three distinct subcategories: human, social, and organizational. Whereas human capital simply refers to individual employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities (Becker, 1964; Schultz, 1961), organizational capital represents institutionalized knowledge and codified experience stored in databases, routines, patents, manuals, structures, and the like (Hall, 1992; Itami, 1987; Walsh and Ungson, 1991).

However, many theoretical underpinnings of intellectual capital developed by literature streams on organizational learning and knowledge management suggest strong interdependencies in the creation, development, and leveraging of its subcategories. Organizational learning theorists (Argyris and Schön, 1978; Nonaka, 1991; Senge, 1990), for example, point out that organizations in and of themselves do not create knowledge; rather people, or human capital, are the origin of all knowledge. This literature also suggests, however, that 'individual learning is a necessary but insufficient condition for organizational learning' (Argyris and Schön, 1978, p. 20). In order for organizational level learning to occur, individuals must exchange and diffuse shared insights, knowledge, and mental models (Senge, 1990; Stata, 1989); that is, use their social capital. And ultimately, much of the knowledge individuals create through human capital and diffuse through social capital becomes codified and institutionalized in organizational databases, routines, systems, manuals, and the like, thereby turning into organizational capital (Hall, 1992; Itami, 1987; Walsh and Ungson, 1991). [24]

Although the latter had been primarily focused on the concept of human capital could explain most of the changes in labor supply, it does not explain the demand for human capital accumulation and increasing its value (Schultz, 1993, p. 73). In the 1950s, Schultz estimated that material contribution "to economic growth" has dropped to 5% (USA) and 25% (developing countries) (ibid., p. 114).

A summary of the main approaches to human capital would depend on four theses [9].

First, human knowledge and skills are as important as physical capital in the production process, and are actually a form of capital, which should be analyzed in the same manner as is customary to consider capital "traditional" (physical and financial), in particular with regard to investment in human resources implications. Physical capital is a form of capital in the fundamentals of the neoclassical growth concept was formulated by Solow (1956) and Swan (1956). In its simplest form, the human capital is the stock of personal skills that traders have at their disposal, in addition to physical capital.

Secondly, according to Schumpeter, the human capital school places economic imbalance at the ground of growth process. Economic growth process is both a result and a central contribution to the imbalance in a continuous process of "creative destruction" of the current state of calm and economic attempts of traders to respond to a state of imbalance. Thus, savings are in a constant process of adjustment. Imbalance is considered a fundamental source of technological progress, which itself is linked to the search for better forms of human capital resources in its scientific and applied research form.

Thirdly, there are entrepreneurs who are regarded as agents balancing role not only in absorbing risk, but also to identify the opportunities that exist for adjustment. Entrepreneurship is therefore not just a particular human skill, but so is a form of human capital, but as a source of adjustment towards equilibrium imbalance, can itself become the basis for economic dynamics and therefore economic growth. Entrepreneurship is therefore fundamentally different from other forms of capital. Indeed, while investment in physical capital may be part of broadening opportunities for production, economic growth is the act of investment itself and the activation of additional production opportunities, which are inherently dependent on the recognition of entrepreneurial opportunities investment. In this sense, therefore, entrepreneurship is a key form of human capital and a basic precondition of economic growth.

Fourthly, the concept of stock of knowledge is closely related to a more familiar term, but less strict stringent - technology. The stock of knowledge, we mean factors such as expertise stored in a company which has at its disposal in the form of accumulated information in books, computer programs, libraries, databases, etc. This form of human capital is quite different from human capital competencies identified in the first sentence. Since personal skills are essentially private goods of human, stocks of knowledge has public good character [9].

It is worth noting that this conception of the role and impact of human capital, summarized above four points are better represented in earlier forms of Schumpeter and Schultz than in the form they had received the modern theories ie endogenous growth term. Romer (1986, 1990) and Lucas (1988) discussed aspects of human capital in terms of public good. But this was less developed and the role of terms of creative destruction and entrepreneurship as a specific form of human capital have not received much attention. The distinction is fundamental, however. In design-Lucas Romer, the role of human capital is simply to provide a more differentiated description of the characteristics of steady-state economy. In Schultz, while this is a dimension of this, there is strong suggestion that human capital has in itself (its entrepreneurial aspect) that is
responsible both for generating imbalances and to provide means by which the economy returns steady state. It is thus a more inclusive vision, dynamic vision of the nature and role of human capital may lead to an endogenous change, both in terms of revenue and technology, a much broader vision than that of endogenous growth promoted by Romer and Lucas. To summarize, based on Schumpeter's views and Schultz, we can conceive of three categories of human capital, as we shall see. [5]

Wright, McMahan, and McWilliams. (1994). working from a resource-based perspective, argue that in certain circumstances, sustained competitive advantage can accrue from a pool of human capital. Hudson (1993) has defined human capital at an individual level as the combination of genetic inheritance, education, experience, and attitudes about life and business. [15]

Human capital includes task-related skills such as: tacit knowledge and soft skills such as communication skills and entrepreneurship, and personal attributes such as have considered human capital as consisting of employee capability, employee satisfaction, and employee sustainability.

We adapt Kaplan and Norton’s classification of human capital. Employee capability includes individual competencies, soft skills, and an individuals’ investment in their human capital (Dulewicz & Herbert, 1999; Mayo, 2000).

We consider employee capability as consisting of explicit qualifications and creativity. Sveiby (1997) emphasized employee capability as a key asset for organizational growth. Employee satisfaction refers primarily to an employee’s emotional or affective state. An employee’s overall satisfaction is related positively to job satisfaction reflecting the difference between what the employees’ want from their job and what they perceive it as offering (Locke, 1976). Employee satisfaction relates positively to organizational commitment (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Cramer, 1996; Curriwan, 1999; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Lance, 1991) and retention (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Employee sustainability refers primarily to retention of employees. Voluntary turnover can threaten the livelihood of an organization as accumulated organizational knowledge is lost as seasoned organizational members leave (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002). Accordingly, organizations must be proactive in their retention efforts. [15]

All of these writings agree that human capital is something that employees bring to the organisation (and take with them when they leave), yet is also something that is developed within the workplace through training and work experience (Miller and Wurzburg, 1995). From this wide and burgeoning literature, however, it is possible to identify several distinct schools of thought, which range in their interest from theory building to the development of tools. One important school of thought, for instance, is human resource accounting (HRA), which has existed at the margins of academic studies of accountancy for many years (Flamholtz, 1999). Given the growing emphasis on people as key company assets in a knowledge-driven economy, HRA has become the subject of renewed interest (Roslender and Dyson, 1992). [5]

A second school focuses on the non-standardised, tacit, dynamic and context-dependent features of human capital. Viewed from the perspective of competitive advantage, these features are seen as significant because they reinforce the causal ambiguity of human capital and hence its inimitability by competitors (Carpenter et al., 2001).

A third school, which has developed recently, focuses more narrowly on the competitive value of scarce and inimitable skills. Inspired by the notion of a ‘war for talent” (Haker, 2001; Michels et al., 2001), a number of writers have addressed questions of recruiting and retaining the most valued employees – often technical specialists or young managers of high potential (Annnunzio, 2001; Sadler and Milmer, 1993). This focus, however, has been rebutted by other writers (O'Reilly and Pfeffer, 2000; Pfeffer, 2001), arguing that the value of human capital is context-dependent. In this view, concentrating managerial efforts on the recruitment and retention of talented individuals risks neglecting the development of the workforce as a whole.

A fourth set of studies is explicitly tools and systems-oriented, and seeks to develop robust systems for measuring human capital (Becker et al., 2001; Davenport, 1999; Fitz-Enz, 2000; LeBlanc et al., 2000; Mayo, 2001, 2002; Ulrich, 1998; Zwell and Ressler, 2000). Similarly, several major consultancy firms have developed methodologies relating to human capital management as part of their product offerings. What these approaches have in common is that they all share a commitment to building robust metrics for measuring one of the most intangible of intangibles, and recognise that the development of such metrics will help firms and investors to understand the drivers of corporate performance, enabling firms to identify future sources of value in a competitive business environment. [11]

2.1 Investing in human capital

Investing in human capital is the total amount of human resources in a business. The main dimensions in which human capital investments have been made are: recruitment and selection of personnel, counseling staff, training and staff development [22]. For a growing number of organizations, recruitment and selection is based on choosing a suitable employee and not in the selection of star. Of course, for any organization would be the right ideal employee, but there are conceptual differences between being an employee "right", "good" or "exceptional." Because of individual differences, employees will be associated with different characteristics. The question is how to make these personal characteristics to match the work to produce the highest efficiency in an organization is a point of interest to human resource management (Bohlander & Snell, 2004; Li 2003). [17, 18]

Harel and Tzafrir (2004) were surprised that it is necessary to emphasize the importance of praise at a job for a job well done. Efforts to inspire staff earn their gratitude, which can in turn boost loyalty and
productivity. Oversupervision management staff can undermine trust and deprive the challenges the job offered. Lahteenmaki, Storet, and Vanhala (2003) considers it very important for a company to make staff feel that their contribution is recognized and their work has made in achieving additional objectives will be measured and recorded. Lin and Lin (2004) showed that training courses and workshops available on the market can cover many different skills and areas of development. Schüler (2000) stated that training and staff development is essential in order to improve business performance and achieve goals. Without a highly trained and skilled team, a business can’t grow and prosper. [19]

2.2 Human Resources Management Practices

A number of authors have stressed the importance of management systems "active involvement" or "high performance" for contemporary organizations (Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1995, Walton, 1985, Womack, Jones & Roos, 1990). Supporters of vision based on firm resources (Barney, 1991), for example, argue that traditional sources of competitive advantage, such as access to technology and capital are becoming less effective for those assets that are easily imitated. Human resources, on the other hand, is an asset that can provide a source of sustained competitive advantage because they are often difficult to imitate. [20]

There are at least two mechanisms through which HRM practices would increase productivity and profitability (Neal & Griffin, 1999). The first involves the employee commitment, job satisfaction, and motivation. Practices such as job enrichment, team building, participation, performance evaluation, compensation, are incentives to increase engagement, satisfaction and motivation (Patterson et al., 1997), which, in turn, the task of improve performance and OCB, and reduce absenteeism and resignations. The second mechanism involves employee knowledge, skill and capacity. Practices such as the selection and training are supported to increase employee knowledge, skills, and capacity (Huselid, 1995), which in turn are responsible to improve performance. Increasing the task and OCB performance and reducing absenteeism and resignation should enhance organizational productivity. [17]

The relationship between HRM practices and productivity was stronger when there was a minimal presence of human relations climate, suggesting that progressive HR practices can compensate for a human relations climate of low, and vice versa. This two-way interaction between HR and human relations climate was stronger when there was an emphasis on achieving the minimum target at the workplace. When the staff reported that there was a strong emphasis on achievement, human resource practices and human relations climate exerted additive effects on productivity. [14]

23 Studies on the relationship between human capital and organizational performance

The argument made to produce the advanced results for the organization, employees need to be successful, must be "involved". Towers Perrin (2003) defines employee involvement as the desire and ability to contribute to the company [...] extent to which employees have discretionary effort in working place, in the form of extra time, intelligence and energy.

Underlying assumption behind the research is that organizational performance in any organization there is a high performance value chain that runs something like: match employees with AMO fitting-(A) ability, (M) the right motivation and opportunity (O) - will provide performance among customers, which will then produce financial gains and other than those required by the organization (Purcell, 2002) [2]. The real challenge for HR managers and democrats is to create AMO leading to employee involvement and performance. The role of the HR should be to develop and implement strategies that help their organizations to attract and retain talent, which adds human asset value of the firm, which produces the necessary conditions required for high performance. Furthermore, employees are an asset to the organization, but also a cost, and most organizations have only been able to measure performance in terms of human capital and less cost in terms of human capital value. [6], [14]

As described by Nahbatian and others (2004), organizational performance, the model developed by Mercer HR Consulting, is based on the following elements: people, work processes, management structure, information and knowledge, decision making and reward, each they play a different role within the organization. Where these elements have been developed piecemeal, as often happens, the potential alignment is strong and it is likely that human capital is not optimized, creating opportunities for substantial improvement in return over time. Identifying such opportunities requires measuring the values of human capital organization and management practices to determine their performance. Thus, can be identified gaps between what is necessary to support employment and business objectives of the company. [2]

Andrew Mayo (2001) developed the monitoring of "human capital" to identify the human value of the enterprise or value human capital, which is equal to "employment cost x multiplication of individual value". The latter is a weighted average rating of capacity, growth potential, personal performance and align their value to the objectives set by the organization in the context of the labor environment. Instead of the average absolute number is not important. What matters is that the measurement process will be to consider whether human capital is sufficient, growing or declining, and the problems they face. Mayo is against using too many measurements, rather than work to focus on organizing a series of measures at the organizational level, which are critical in creating value actionariatului or current and future objectives of the organization [2].

Sears Roebuck model (Ricci et al, 1998) defines the employee-customer-profit chain. Model is sometimes called "engagement." He explains that if you keep employees satisfied in their attitude towards
society and their place of work, will create a compelling employment, which will encourage the retention and lead to useful services and give value to goods, which leads to customer satisfaction, retention of and recommendations, creating "a favorable place to shop." This, in turn, creates "a favorable place to invest" because of its impact on the value of profitability, operating margins and increase revenues. [2]

The Balanced Scorecard views organizational performance from four dimensions: financial (or shareholders), customers, internal business processes, and learning and growth. Atkinson et al. (1997) suggest that BSC has the potential to provide planners with a way of expressing and testing a sophisticated model of cause – and – effect in the organization – a model that provides managers with a basis on which to manage drivers of desired outcomes:

- **Financial perspective** – includes profitability measures such as operating income, return on capital – employed, sales growth, generation of cash flow, or economic value-added;

- **Customer perspective** – encompasses such measures as customer satisfaction, customer retention, new customer acquisition, customer response time, market share and customer profitability;

- **Internal – business – processes perspective** – the key measures include product design, product development, post-sale service, manufacturing efficiency, quality, etc.;

- **Learning and growth perspective** – measures the ability of employees, information systems, and organizational procedures to manage the business and adapt the change.[10]

### 3. Effects of human capital on organizational management

Organizations are developing, not only because of globalization, technological advances, demographic and employment but also because of force that make truly competitiveness global companies - exchanging information. Although there are many forces that affect human capital management. The combination between the recently on-demand business model and demographic trends regarding the workforce is a sign. [6]

Communication - use existing technology to make information available to all, it allows to collect, modify and transmit such information and their management must reinvent the organization through a network of power sharing. [22]

Process - on-demand business model is bringing the supply chain management principles in all aspects of organizational management. Product development and marketing, administrative functions such as finance, information technology and human resources are part of the corporate value chain. As such, each is a target for foreign suppliers and this has opened the door for business process outsourcing. [22]

Structure - when occurs communication channels and processes changes, organization structure tends to become obsolete. The pressure will be on resource providers, such as finance, IT, human resources, procurement act in a coherent way, as a single process. For human resources, this means that the planning, staffing, compensation system, developing and retaining employees will have to move so strategic and tactical value added process. It is difficult to clearly show the interconnections between all human resource departments. The idea is that all are interdependent and interactive. This is in accordance with the requirements for an integrated process as smoothly as possible. [22] Ironically, the vast majority of data resident on organizational databases is collected and organized in a manner that will help managers to manage their human capital issues or to exploit their potential. Since employee costs in Romania today is 70 percent of expenses corporation, measuring return on investment in human capital is essential. Management needs a system of indicators to describe and predict the cost curves and productivity of its workforce. Quantitative measures are evaluated cost, capacity and time. Qualitative measures are focused on value and people's responses. When we measure the value of people, we must recognize the two aspects of this issue: the economic and person. Usually, we accept the intrinsic value of people, but management requires us to focus on the economic side. Only people enhance value by applying their inherent humanity, motivation, skills and tools learned handling. In parallel, we have to deal with the myth that only specific financial information is correct. But the facts are correct only as entries, which everyone business man knows are manipulated.

Accounting standards fail to address today's mandate to two levels: economic and person. First, the role of accounting within the organization is to preserve the assets of the firm. Second, is to focus on the past, when you need to focus on the issues that will extract value from the market. The emergence of new forms of accounting - namely, economic value added and the Balanced Scorecard approach - is a promising step in the right direction. If HR professionals embrace the many faces of change if the decision in an organization today, effective management of human capital will lead to measurable results that can bring greater value. [23]

#### 3.1 Cycle valuable data related to human capital

Cycle is a continuum rather than as data from one phase to another phase of the cycle may affect previous or other phases. Added value always starts with business objectives. Operational these objectives based on the basic needs of business units from the management of human capital - human resources activities. At this point, the data connection provided by human capital begins to show its value. The value can be observed from the beginning until the results of collecting economic data. The cycle starts data through processes such as planning, purchasing, support, development, commitment and retention of human capital. Values are the economic effects arising from investments in human capital. Human capital is held in the HR department and transferred to operational units. There is invested along with other resources. Meliors thus made will form the active value. The value comes
through spending cuts, as well as generating revenue, which ultimately lead to profitability and achieve business goals. This cycle spans the following phases:

*Phase 1* of the cycle consists of obtaining the support and retention of human capital. Internal efficiency of the department of human resources leads to reduced costs. Improvement of cycle time working to boost compensation plans, higher employee involvement or development programs can affect revenue generation.

*In the second phase*, human capital is applied to tasks and processes within the various business units.

*The third phase* is focused on the competitive advantages of these improvements are generated that achieves economic goals.

When this cycle is seen as a continuous recycling process, we find many ways in which we assess the impact on the profitability of the company's internal improvements. Organization's ability, as used in this segment is the company's ability to extract value from intellectual and physical assets or human and relational capital. [6]

### 3.2 ROI - return on investment

Capital (apud. Stolovitch Harold D. and Jean-Gabriel Maurice, 1999) is any form of wealth used to produce as much wealth. Human capital (ibid.) is the sum of knowledge, experience and human performance capability that has an organization and can be applied to create wealth. Numerous documented cases have convincingly demonstrated that training in itself, rarely achieve the results desired by the organization. The reasons for this have also been documented: the problem is not qualified due to deficiencies of knowledge, but because of insufficient resources to sustain a job, lack of incentives to perform concrete work, the abundance of multitasking and the lack of a system support to encourage or support performance. [23]

Human Performance Technology (HPT) is a study of nearly forty years of performance gaps must be addressed systematically and sistemicamente. Training of specialists, consultants in human resources development and line managers is a priority everywhere.

"Improving employee performance" has become the most circulated problem after setting the organization's objectives. HPT has become a reliable means for its achievement. Interest in human capital has increased recently. A number of publications (eg Crawford, 1991; Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Stewart, 1997) had a significant impact on management thinking. There is evidence that there is a strong relationship between human capital and business outcomes. [23]

Human capital is the sum of human performance in an organization. However, the potential that can be obtained from this capital can only be changed if the organization is operating effectively.

To highlight the impact of HPT interventions need concrete means to demonstrate value. In an article by Stolovitch and Maurice (1998) provides more details as follows:

*Step 1*. Calculate the potential for improved performance. Perform a front-end analysis to determine the nature of the difference in performance (magnitude, value, number) and select an appropriate plan of intervention.

*Step 2*. Calculate the estimated costs of intervention. Includes development, implementation and maintenance costs. Internal staff costs are calculated at least three times base salary to cover benefits and other bonuses (full cost). Divide the number of working days per year (220-235) to determine the daily cost.

*Step 3*. Calculate the value of performance interventions. Worth (WPI) is equal to the potential (V) achieved improved performance (from step 1) divided by the estimated costs (C) of interventions (from step 2). [WPI = V / C].

*Step 4*. Development and implementation of interventions. Perform this step, using teams of specialists and line managers in the partnership.

*Step 5*. Calculate the true cost of interventions. This step is the mirror step 2 when the actual cost estimates replaced.

*Step 6*. Calculate the ROI of the organization. This usually requires waiting six months or more after an intervention was implemented. The results collected (eg sales figures, productivity growth rates of rejection, absenteeism figures, order processing speed, the number of disputed invoices) are assigned a monetary value.

*Step 7*. Calculate the increased value of individual human capital. Create a human capital account for each employee. This account must include an initial value equal to base salary. The higher individual performance, the account value will increase. If the value is significantly higher than the salary of an individual, is adjusted to preserve the employee's compensation[23]

### 4. Conclusions

Measurement of human capital was, is and will remain a challenge for every manager, is strongly influenced by the context of an organization, especially the lack of general criteria to be easily adaptable to any organizational context.

HPT provides a solid foundation for improved production performance gains. When it is clearly defined, ROI model can facilitate the calculation of these gains and to demonstrate increased value of human capital in an organization.

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