

**Differences in characteristics of competency profiles
of sales managers in multinational companies
for the Dutch and Belgian culture**

Case study of Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux

**Annemiek Harremeijer
Master thesis**



UNIVERSITEIT TWENTE.

Differences in characteristics of competency profiles of sales managers in multinational companies for the Dutch and Belgian culture

Master thesis

Business Administration, International Management

Date : March 22, 2010
Author : A. (Annemiek) Harremeijer Msc
Email : a.harremeijer@gmail.com
Student number : s0042633
Institute : University of Twente, Enschede (Netherlands)
Faculty : School of Management and Governance (SMG)

Graduation Committee (intern)

Supervisor : Dr. H.J.M. Ruel
Institution : University of Twente, Enschede (Netherlands)
Faculty : School of Management and Governance (SMG)

Supervisor : M.R. Stienstra Msc
Institution : University of Twente, Enschede (Netherlands)
Faculty : School of Management and Governance (SMG)

Graduation Committee (extern)

Supervisor: J.B. Zwart
Institution: Johnson & Johnson Medical B.V., Amersfoort (Netherlands)
Department: Human Resources

Acknowledgments

This thesis is the result of ten months of research at Johnson & Johnson Medical on sales managers, culture and competencies profiles. This has been an amazing experience, in which I learned a lot and also had a lot of fun.

I could have not completed the process of doing the thesis without the help of many people. First, I would like to thank the graduation committee. First I would like to thank Huub Ruël, for his good advice and overview on the thesis. I would like to thank Bas Zwart for his critical views and remarks that kept me sharp, as well for keeping me motivated from time to time. I would like to thank Martin Stienstra, for being his reviews and contributions to this thesis.

Secondly, I would like to thank my friends and family for their unconditional support, not only during the last few months of my study, but throughout all years of studying. Finally, I owe a big thank you to Jeffrey, for receiving the unlimited supply of support, an occasional pep talk and a lot of love. Thanks to all.

Annemiek Harremeijer
22 March 2010

Abstract

This master thesis was motivated by personal interest in multinational companies and a question put forward by Johnson & Johnson Medical B.V.. The question was whether sales managers should have different competency profiles in different cultures, in this case considering the Benelux. Sales managers are influenced by many elements, including external, internal and personal factors. Based on this the following research question was formulated: *'What are the differences in characteristics of competency profiles of sales managers in multinational companies for the Dutch and Belgian culture?'*.

Literature

The literature review starts with an overview of the different human resource management approaches in the world, changes over time and cultural adaptations. The current HRM concept was originally conceptualised and developed in the United States of America, discussed by many researchers and put into practice by organizations. European writers were not convinced these practices should be applied in the European cultures, Claus (2003) even states a theoretical or practical HRM model developed in the cultural context of one country should not indiscriminately be applied to another country without testing the cultural biases of its assumptions. The comparison of European and US HRM points also out that in Europe, HRM is less dependent, companies have less autonomy and freedom in action, trade unionism is more important, social partners have more influence, legal regulations are more important, and there is a stronger tradition of employee involvement.

Pudelko's comparative analysis of the HR practices in US, Japanese and German companies agree in this view of European writers. Demonstrated is that the socio-economic contextual factors of the American and Japanese HR systems are in many ways at opposite ends of the spectrum, with the German factors in between.

The cultural factors described are conclusive: differences between the nations are present, as well as the regional cultural differences in Belgium. These cultural differences have proven to influence people behaviour and could thus influence the competencies of a job profile.

Other influences on sales managers are internal, external and personal factors. As the traditional roles of selling are changing, the role of a sales manager is developing. Sales managers' goals and company commitment are important in establishing relations and gaining results, and influences the behaviour of those. The right fit between a sales manager's approach and the salesperson's wishes is critical for the selling process. Coaching is one of the most important skills for a sales manager, however there are no universal methods for success as well as standards for the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Conclusions

The product specialists of Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux value their HR system as an European HR system with a minor deviation towards an US HR system. This deviation is explainable by a few international influences at the multinational organization. The results also indicate Johnson & Johnson Medical uses a mixture of practices when selecting and recruiting new employees.

The competencies of a sales manager are quite similar to a manager in general although the discussion raises when speaking of linking and leading the organization. The most important competencies for a sales manager are coaching, motivation and trust.

The influences of culture are present in literature as well as in the results presented by the respondents, the market differences on the other hand influence the job of a sales manager too. These are not included in the cultural differences of a nation because this is branch specific. Both of these influence and/or determine the success or failure of a sales manager and product specialist.

Index

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	3
ABSTRACT	4
1. INTRODUCTION	8
1.1 Background information	8
1.2 Problem definition	9
1.3 Research strategy	12
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.1 Human resource management	14
2.2 Multi National Companies	18
2.3 Culture	21
2.4 Sales Manager	25
2.5 Research framework	29
3. METHODOLOGY	30
3.1 Introduction	30
3.2 Survey strategy	30
3.3 Data analysis methods	32
3.4 Research limitations	33
4. RESULTS	34
4.1 Organization	34
4.2 HR system	36
4.3 Competencies	41
4.4 Culture	45
4.5 Conclusion	47
5. CONCLUSIONS	48
5.1 Conclusion	48
5.2 Discussion & future research	51
5.3 Recommendations	53
6. REFERENCES	54
6.1 Literature	54
6.2 Interviews	57
7. FIGURES AND TABLES	58
APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE PRODUCT SPECIALISTS	63
APPENDIX B – QUESTIONNAIRE MANAGERS	70
APPENDIX C – EXAMPLE DISC	71
APPENDIX D – HEALTH CARE SYSTEMS	72
APPENDIX E – CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF FRANCE	74

1. Introduction

This thesis researches the characteristics of sales managers, their skills and competencies. The added value of this research is the focus on culture influencing the competency profile. The background information and problem definition provide a brief insight in current theories and research on culture, human resource management, multinational companies and sales managers. Since Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux is the organization for this case study, some background information of this company is given. The chapter concludes with the objectives and research strategy of this thesis.

1.1 Background information

Three main subjects lay the foundation for this research: human resource management, multinationals and sales manager's competency profiles. These subjects are under the influence of culture; each nation has a certain culture realized by the broad notion of symbols, heroes, rituals and values (Hofstede, 1991). This study aims to determine the influence of national culture on sales manager's competency profiles in the Netherlands and Belgium.

1.1.1 Johnson & Johnson

Johnson & Johnson is a multinational in consumer products, medical devices and pharmaceuticals. The company's divisions have local representatives for sales and marketing. Production is manufactured on a global scale.

Company results have been steadily improving over the last few years. In order to continue this growth, Johnson & Johnson tries to improve continuously. In the article 'the secrets of success' (April 22, 2009) they elucidate on the Johnson & Johnson successes: *"Are you having a tough year at your company? Sorry to hear it. If it makes you feel any better, they're also having a tough year at Johnson & Johnson. How tough? Well, it appears – though it's not certain – that sales may actually decline in 2009, and that hasn't happened in 76 years. Profits will probably decline too, which hasn't happened in 25 years. But don't worry about the dividend. The company will almost certainly manage to raise it this year, just as it has done annually for the past 46 years"*.

Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux is the Dutch, Belgian and Luxembourg organization within the division of medical devices. Similar to global results, the Benelux division has steadily improving net sales results.

Figure 1 gives a representation of the net sales results and differences between the Belgium and Dutch subdivision (Luxembourg's results are integrated in the Belgian sales results). Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux wanted to examine if the difference is a result of cultural or market differences.



Figure 1: Net sales Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux

1.1.2 Globalization of businesses

As various writers (e.g. Claus, Brewster, Sparrow & Hiltrop, and Hegewisch) point out there are distinct differences between HRM in Europe and the US. Differences in HRM in Europe are also present, but not as obvious as the differences between the continents. Sparrow & Hiltrop (1994) stated one can only speak of HRM in Europe, there is no such thing as European HRM. These differences are explained by cultural influences among others.

By the globalization of the market, companies are extending their business and invest abroad (Cascio, 2003). Business establishments are set up in foreign countries for employees to work at and practice local business, laws and regulations. Business in different cultures, the impact of geography, variation of products across culture, different people practices and cultural influences are examples of aspects a multinational faces when entering a new market (Ball, et al 2006).

Pugh & Hickson (2002): In international enterprise, managers need to know how far the workings of organizations in one country are different from those in another. How can knowledge of their home country style of organizing and its functioning help them deal with organizations in other places in the world? Are the structures and functioning of organizations in different cultures coming sufficiently close together to permit the development of universally applicable approaches with the expectation of obtaining consistent outcomes? Clearly there are international differences, but the key issues are: how important are they and are they diminishing?

Extensive research has developed and tested frameworks of salesperson performance and effectiveness. Obliquely related to this salesperson-related research is the research focused on sales management with an emphasis on job satisfaction and the sales manager-salesperson relationship. Noticeably absent in current (existing) literature is a systematic understanding of the characteristics of effective sales managers (Deeter-Schmelz, et al; 2008).

The topics above are all intensively researched, but the influence of culture on the sales manager's competency profile is missing within this picture. A deficiency because salesperson failure, whether it is reflected in a sales person's self-imposed cessation from the firm, an involuntary termination, or unremitting inadequate performance, has major costs for the employer (Johnston, et al; 1989)(Morris, et al; 1994). Such expenses can include those incurred in recruiting, selecting, and training replacement sales personnel; turnover; salaries and benefits of failed sale personnel; supervisory efforts expended; absenteeism; and lost revenues.

1.2 Problem definition

Many factors influence the performances of the sales teams; some are external, but most are internal organizational factors. The sales manager is an important factor in sales teams; for example monitoring progress, keeping sales representatives, transferring information and developing strategies (Deeter-Schmelz, Goebel & Kenndy, 2008). The sales manager is according to this outline very important within the organizational structure: they directly influence the performance and the evaluation of their direct reports and sales teams. The pre-analysis at Johnson & Johnson by interviews revealed the factors outlined in figure 2, as the mainstream of factors influencing a sales manager' performance.

For this research, we assume that the influencing factors can be subdivided into three major groups: internal, external and personal influences.

The external influences (red), are national culture and national market and health care system. Both of the factors cannot be influenced by the company or the sales manager, and are relevant for this research.

The internal factors (blue) influencing a sales manager are the organizational strategy, the division or franchise director, training and sales managers' managers. These factors should be uniform, or close to uniform, since everyone has the same access towards resources, trainings and organizational strategies within a division.

Personal influences (green) are individual motivation performance evaluation. These factors are individually determined, possibly influenced by for instance job satisfaction, family relations, friends and environment. Personal influences are not culture, country or industry related.



Figure 2: Organizational factors influencing a sales manager

1.2.1 Research question

Given the information described; the factors influencing a sales manager and the lack of literature on cultural influences describing competency profiles. The following research problem is formulated:

What are the differences in characteristics of competency profiles of sales managers in multinational companies for the Dutch and Belgian culture?

The research problem is divided into three main topics. These are guidelines for the direction of this research:

Characteristics of competency profiles of sales managers

In line with the human resource management strategies of a company, the competency profiles are drawn up. As stated sales managers are influenced by many internal and external factors. The objective of this topic is the determination of competency profiles of sales managers based on literature and a case study.

Multinational companies

The nature of the companies this research should be conducted in is multinational; in this case covering the Benelux. This component of the research question contributes to the international environment, the human resource differences between the US and Europe, and is important because of the cultural influence.

Dutch and Belgian culture

Culture in the Netherlands and Belgium is the influencing factor on competency profiles in this thesis and is therefore an important asset. The differences between both nations are expected to influence the competency profiles of sales managers.

1.3 Research strategy

The goal of this research is to investigate the cultural differences in competency profiles of sales managers. To discover and determine if cultural differences between Belgium and the Netherlands cause distinct variations in competency profiles. It is to be expected that since there are cultural differences in competency profiles, Belgian and Dutch regions should work with different competency and/or skills sets.

This research starts with an extensive literature review, prior to the collection of data. This deductive approach thus moves from theory to data, covers the need to explain causal relationships between variables and foresees in the collection of quantitative data among other emphasises (Saunders et al, 2007).

This strategy leads to the first question:

1. *What model(s) is (are) appropriate to investigate the research problem?*

Once the model is available it needs to be operationalized into a research protocol that can be applied for collecting data.

2. *What methodology is suitable and how can it be applied?*

Applying the research protocol leads to a set of data that needs to be processed and analyzed.

3. *What findings emerge from the collected data?*

Using the results from questions 3 an conclusion to the research question can be made.

2. Literature review

The literature review reflects on all research questions. The objective is to review previous research related to the research questions in order to refine it into a conceptual model. The literature review starts with a topic on existing theories on human resource management, followed by literature on multinational companies, culture and sales managers.

The topic on human resource management is not deriving from the research questions, nevertheless an important topic. In the literature that follows becomes clear there are large differences in the perception of human resource management, which are for example present due to culture. The extensive literature review on human resource management creates the basis for further analysis and literature reviews.

2.1 Human resource management

Langbert and Friedman (2002) describe four broad periods of HR history: pre-industrial, paternalistic, bureaucratic and high performance. In each, firms have responded to constituents' demands, trading among the three quality goals in ways that the environment has compelled them. Because of improving productivity and sophistication of HRM, each period has seen a net improvement over the prior one.

Many different writers have added new views on the existing knowledge and experience, for example the Hawthorne experiment, Maslow's human needs hierarchy, McGregor's theory X and Y and the Harvard model (Jaffee, 2001).

HRM, like many other aspects of management, was originally conceptualised and developed in the United States of America. The study of personnel management, which was "partly a file clerk's job, partly a housekeeping job, partly a social worker's job and partly fire-fighting to head off union trouble" (Drucker, 1989: 269) was superseded by the new science of human resource management.

Two seminal texts in 1984 launched the new approach although both were based on previous teaching by the respective authors and built on extensive antecedents. Fombrun et al.'s "Michigan" model emphasized the link between human resource strategy and the business strategy of the firm; the business strategy should define and determine the types of employee, employee deployment and employee performance. Employees are a resource like any other. As Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994) explained it, they "are to be obtained cheaply, used sparingly and developed and exploited as fully as possible." The other text offered the "Harvard" model (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quin-Mills, & Walton, 1984). This argued that employees are not a resource like any other—their understanding and commitment are critical—whatever the corporate strategy is. Hence, the business strategy is bound in with, rather than leading, the HR strategy.

2.1.1 European versus HRM in the United States

European writers have acknowledged that HRM originally developed in the United States (Brewster & Larsen, 1992). European writers (Bournois, 1991; Conrad & Pieper, 1988; Gaugler, 1988; Guest, 1990; Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990; Legge, 1989) have been critical of applying American HRM views to other countries, especially Europe. According to Lisbeth Claus (2003) this criticism is entirely valid. A theoretical or practical HRM model developed in the cultural context of one country should not indiscriminately be applied to another country without testing the cultural biases of its assumptions. Clarck and Pugh (2000) agree to this by pointing out that one of the main methodological problems with ethnocentric studies is that they assume the cross-cultural equivalence of concepts. They are underpinned by a universalistic approach, in that concepts, measures, and instruments developed in one culture are believed to be equally appropriate and applicable in others.

According to Sparrow and Hiltrop (1997) compared with US concepts of HRM, a European perspective needs to take the following into account:

- more restricted levels of organization autonomy in HRM decision such as recruitment, dismissal, and training;
- a history which has produced a lower exposure of organizations to market processes;
- a greater emphasis on the role of the group over the individual;
- the increased role of social partners (trade unions and employee representatives) in the employment relationship;
- higher levels of government intervention in the management of the business and the people within it.

Only HRM in Europe should be discussed, as opposed to any European model of HRM, since there is no such thing as a single European pattern of HRM, and marked differences exist between countries. Nevertheless, as a composite group, European countries are sufficiently alike in their HRM to be distinguished from US patterns (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1997).

The comparison of European and US HRM points out that in Europe, HRM is less dependent, companies have less autonomy and freedom of action, trade unionism is more important, the social partners have more influence, legal regulations are more important, and there is a stronger tradition of employee involvement (Claus, 2003). Brewster and Hegewisch (1994) push the comparison between European and American HRM even further and justify the existence of a European HRM model based on these differences.

2.1.2 Cultural influences on HRM

Lane (1989: 34) argues that although organizational goals may not differ significantly across organizations; courses of action towards those goals do, because action is socially constructed and hence shaped by culture as manifested in societal institutions. The values, ideas and beliefs of people within a country are rooted in history, geography and tradition and affected by many different institutional, physical and infrastructural factors which are unique to each state. Firms cannot be immune from the institutional context in which they are embedded, and the differences between countries and their political, social and legal institutions create differences in their strategies. They are also, therefore, more likely to show differences in their HRM. Differences in politics, employment legislation, education, labour markets and trade unionism have a direct effect on HRM within employing organizations.

In HRM, specifically, there is now considerable evidence that, despite the common framework provided by the European Union and the influence of multinational corporations, the development of managers, for example, varies by country (Bournois et al., 1994; Evans, Doz & Lurent, 1989; Lane, 1989; Luthans, Marsnik & Luthans, 1997; Ramirez, in preparation; Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray & Iles, 2001).

Boxall (1995) has made the point that comparative HRM should attempt explanation, as well as description. Some of the differences that have been adduced here between countries and some of the different clusters of countries are the result of a focus on different issues. There is no obvious reason, for example, why countries should not cluster one way for training and development and other way for flexibility. But there are also differences in the antecedents against which scholars choose to measure these differences.

There are a variety of explanations that have been put forward to explain the differences between regions and countries. Perhaps the major debate is between the cultural and the institutional perspectives, are these differences sustained because people find it repulsive, unethical or unappealing to do otherwise- . . .(or) . . .because a wider formal system of laws, agreements, standards and codes

exist (Sorge, 2004)? Culture is one of those terms that defy a single all-purpose definition, and there are almost as many meanings of culture as people using the term (Ajiferuke & Boddewyn, 1970:154). These cultural perspectives on workplace values most closely associated with the writings of authors such as Fukuyama (1995), Hofstede (1991), Laurent (1983), Trompenaars (1993) and Sako (1998).

Sparrow & Hiltrop (1994): 'There is no such thing as a single European pattern of HRM, one can only speak of "HRM in Europe".' In their paper they identify the main factors that have influenced national patterns of HRM within Europe and synthesizes the emerging body of comparative data in order to develop a "force field framework" that may move beyond the old convergence/divergence hypothesis. European managers and academic researchers need to appreciate four major sets of factors:

1. cultural factors
2. institutional factors
3. differences in business structure and system
4. factors relating to the roles and competence of HRM professionals

These are further divided into 23 factors, resulting in distinctive national patterns of European HRM (figure 3).

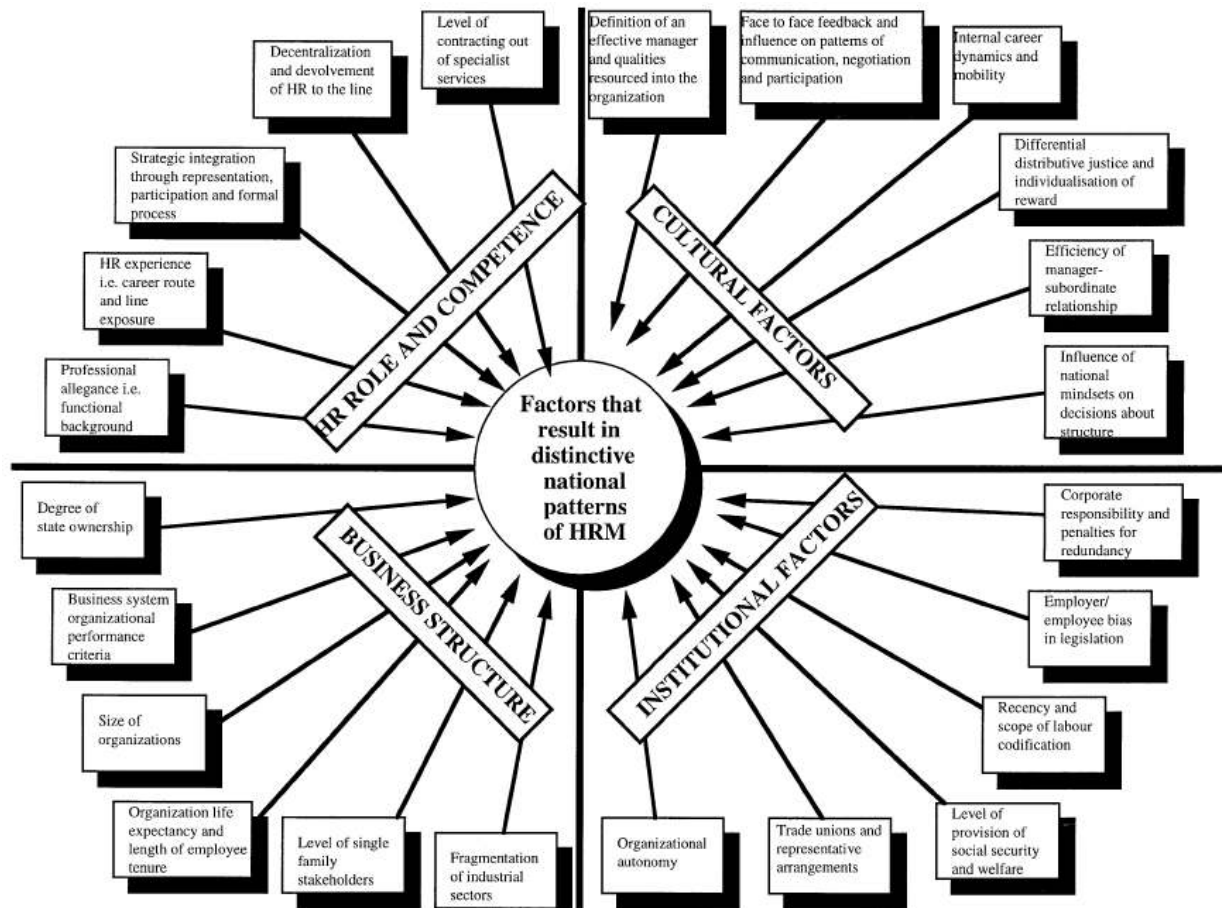


Figure 3: Distinctive national patterns of European HRM according to Sparrow & Hiltrop (1994)

Pudelko (2006) provided a comparative analysis of the HR practices of American, Japanese, and German companies. The starting point is an investigation of the managerial, economic, socio-political and cultural contexts of the three HR systems. Demonstrated is that the socio-economic contextual factors of the American and Japanese HR systems are in many ways at opposite ends of the spectrum, with the German factors in between. The research suggests that the relevant socio-economic context is highly pertinent for the establishment of an HR system. This outcome does not exclude either the integration of HR practices from a foreign HR model into the domestic one or standardization efforts of HR practices of multinational companies, but confines the potential for cross-cultural learning and standardization to what is within the 'fit' of the relevant socio-cultural context. Figure 4 displays the model developed by Pudelko in which he displays HRM is largely influenced by the (overall) management system and can therefore be defined as a subsystem of it. Appendix A – Questionnaire product specialists reproduces all categories Pudelko used for determining the HR systems.

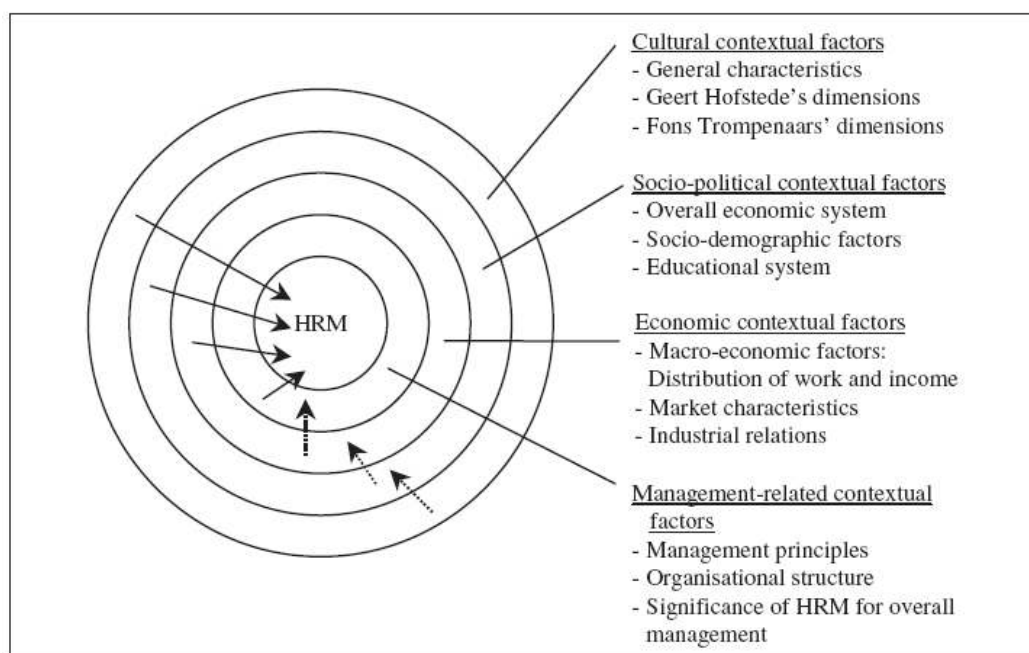


Figure 4: HRM and its societal-contextual factors (Pudelko, 2006)

2.2 Multi National Companies

So the internationalization of organizations does include the practices and organization of multinational companies (MNCs). The specific nature of the multinational company establishes a relationship between a global level decision-making and local level dynamics. The interdependencies of these two levels inscribe the MNC into a “pendulum swing” between local and global (Dion, 2004).

Traditionally, the literature presents the MNC as a company carrying out its activities in two different countries at least, which connects the headquarter and its subsidiaries (Ghertman, 1982; Kostava and Zaheer, 1999). A complete definition given by Westney and Ghoshal (1993) illustrates this classic representation:

'(the multinational) comprises entities in two or more countries, regardless of legal form and fields of activity of those entities, which operate under a system of decision-making permitting coherent policies and a common strategy through one or more decision-making centres, in which the entities are so linked, by ownership or otherwise, that one or more of them may be able to exercise a significant influence over the activities of the others, and in particular, to share knowledge, resources, and responsibilities with others.' (Ghoshal and Westney, 1993: 4).

The phenomenon of MNCs has been ascribed to a combination of two main factors: the uneven geographical distribution of factor endowments and market failure (Dunning, 1988). That is, because of their national origins, some firms have assets that are superior to those in many other countries. Moreover, a substantial proportion of these firms concluded that they can only successfully exploit these assets by transferring them across national boundaries within their own organizations rather than by selling their right of use to foreign-based enterprises. More recently, nationally endowed assets have been supplemented by MNCs acquiring, developing and integrating strategically important assets located in other countries, thereby making their national origins somewhat less significant (Gooderham & Norhaug, 2003).

To date, this combination of unequally distributed factor endowments combined with difficulties in using market-based arrangements has yielded more than 60.000 MNCs with over 800.000 affiliates abroad. On a global basis, MNCs generate about half of the world's industrial output and account for about two-thirds of world trade. About one-third of total trade (or half of the MNC trade) is intra-firm. MNCs are particularly strong in motor vehicles, computers, and soft drinks. In 1990 only 17 percent of total manufacturing production was controlled by a foreign subsidiary of an MNC compared to 25 percent in 1998 (Gooderham & Norhaug, 2003).

The advantages of becoming a global player in manufacturing are more obvious than for service-based firms. In case of the former, the value chain can be divided across many locations. Parts of the manufacturing process can be located to low-cost countries, while R&D can be located in a region with specialized competencies with its costs spread across many markets. In the case of service-firms, much of the value chain has to generate locally: that is there is little in the way of opportunity to centralize activities to low-costs locations. To a greater or larger degree, services have to be tailored for each client unlike, for example, pharmaceuticals, which can be mass-produced. Sharing advanced knowledge is also more problematic. In manufacturing companies it can be made available through patented technologies or unique products. In service companies it has to be transferred from country to country through learning processes. Nevertheless with the liberalization of recent years, the share of services in foreign direct investments (FDI) has risen significantly particularly (Gooderham & Norhaug, 2003).

2.2.1 Barriers for MNCs

Over 40 years ago Hymer (1960/1976:34) raised the question of why MNCs existed at all given that they are 'playing away from home' both in national and cultural terms. Domestic companies have 'the general advantage of better information about their country: its economy, its language, its laws and its politics'. Certainly the liability of foreignness is particularly severe in the initial entry phase. A MNC will often have to compete head on with domestic companies that have a number of natural advantages. First, domestic companies have a customer base they have cultivated and which is familiar with their brand. This loyalty to a local player has to be overcome in such a way that it does not evoke a nationalistic reaction.

Second, local firms will also have developed supply chain relations that may involve long-term contractual relationships that effectively preclude newcomers. This has been a formidable barrier for companies entering the Japanese market.

A third entry barrier is that national regulators will tend to discriminate against foreign subsidiaries. Except when they are so locally embedded that they are perceived as domestic, foreign firms will be significantly more investigated, audited, and prosecuted than their domestic counterparts (Vernon, 1998).

Finally, a fourth entry barrier is the lack of institutional and cultural insight. When Wal-Mart moved into Germany it had little feel for German shoppers, who care more about price than having their bags packed, or German staff, who hid in the toilets to escape the morning Wal-Mart cheer. Added to that were two of factors above, the inflexibility of local suppliers and the entrenched position of local discounters such as Aldi, but also the strength of trade unions.

2.2.2 Multinational companies in the Benelux

This last and final entry barrier is specifically interesting in case of Benelux MNCs, because these MNCs are intervening within three countries with different cultures and institutions. Or as Jones (2003) says the choice to treat the Benelux countries as a single unit is not because of the strong assertion the Benelux countries are all alike.

Nevertheless, the choice to group the Benelux countries together is not arbitrary. Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg share the same geographic space—known generically as the 'Low Countries'. They have shared a special economic relationship for more than half a century. And, of Europe's smaller countries, they have the longest experience of integration. Still, the irony is that the three countries are actually very different from one another (Jones, 2003).

Take language, for example. Like most countries in Europe, the Dutch speak a single language – called 'common civilized Dutch' – albeit with a moderate-to-strong dialectical variation from South to North and from West to East. People from Amsterdam (which is toward the northwest) can understand people from Maastricht (which is in the southeast), however the people from Maastricht can make it difficult if they choose.

The Belgians are divided by language, with the northerners speaking Flemish varieties of the Dutch and the southerners speaking Walloon French. The capital of Belgium, Brussels, is officially a bilingual city French/Dutch. Even there, however, visitors are quick to note that the shopkeepers tend to prefer one language over another.

Finally, the Luxembourgers are polyglot. They are educated in French and German, they use French as their official language, and they speak their own German dialect – Lëtzebuergesch – at home. This multilingual education is actually a clever strategy for keeping Lëtzebuergesch alive. So long as everyone is equally well-trained in French and German, no-one need feel they are disadvantaging their children by speaking to them in dialect.

2.2.2.1 Health care system

The health care systems in the Netherlands and Belgium influence the market in which Johnson & Johnson is selling their products. They influence relationships and patterns in business processes. A systematic model of the health care systems is reproduced in Appendix D – Health Care Systems.

The market in Belgium is based on the relationships with surgeons, prices are not negotiable because they are set by the government, and a doctor by himself is allowed to make decisions on which products he wants to work with. Being friends with a doctor, maintaining the relationship and using his power to get to others is thus the main task of the product specialist. Doctors have more autonomy, status and power.

The market in the Netherlands is quite different as more hospitals are using buyers or buying groups to reduce costs, prices are negotiable, and doctors are in partnerships within hospitals. As part of the new Dutch health care system, for each medical procedure – diagnose – costs are calculated by the government (DBC), and hospitals receive only that amount of money for the procedure. This is a fixed amount, so by lowering procedure costs hospitals are able to save money for other procedures. Procedures which can only be done against more costs than calculated by the government.

2.3 Culture

Culture plays a significant role in how global and local firms conduct business because culture mediates or influences the planning, implementing, and controlling of global sales training practices. As a result, the mediating variable culture influences managerial perceptions of perceived importance/perceived adequacy of training programs (Dubinsky, 1981). That is, culture influences the importance of skills, knowledge, and behaviours taught in sales training programs, and the perceived adequacy of the level trainees are expected to perform, training methods employed, and managerial satisfaction with training results (Attia et al; 2008).

Culture is expected to be the influencing factor in the relation between HRM & MNCs versus the characteristics of competency profiles of sales managers. This role is expected since not many researches are conducted in this field. As Dubinsky and Attia state, the significant role of culture is proven, although not in competency profiles.

A brief conception of culture is given in this chapter to understand the meaning of culture as used in this thesis, followed by the cultural values of the separate nations.

2.3.1 Conceptions of culture

The word culture has different descriptions, all extracted from the Latin radical for cultivation. In most western languages culture means civilization, especially the fruits of this like education, art and literature. This is culture in narrow sense (Hofstede, 1991).

The second description of culture is used by sociologists and anthropologists, where culture is more like a mental programming. It does not only describe activities for mental development, but also regular and day-to-day matters like greeting, dining, expression of feelings, keeping distance towards others, making love, and hygiene. This description always refers to a collective phenomenon, more or less shared by people who lived or are still living together in the same society: the place they got hold of this culture (Hofstede, 1991).

Thus, culture is the collective mental programming separating people of one group/a category of people from others. Culture is acquired, not something you are born with, and is transferred to us from our social environment. Similarly, Rossi (1989) speaks of the 'unconscious infrastructure', and Schein (1985) of the 'basic assumptions and beliefs . . . that operate unconsciously'. Cultural 'systems' and social systems are treated as analytically distinct but related – the latter being theorized as the dependent variable (Sweeney; 2002).

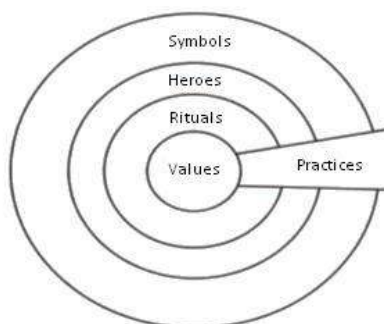


Figure 5: Onion of culture (Hofstede)

acquired there fundamentals in their childhood from their parents (Hofstede, 1991).

Symbols, heroes, rituals and values together describe the broad notion of culture. This figure contains those elements in the symbol of an onion; with symbols to represent the most superficial and values to represent the deepest layers of culture.

The inner circle of the onion will not change over time: Dutch youngsters do differ from Belgian youngsters as much as Dutch elderly differ from Belgian elderly. Their values will remain the same over time; consequently the fundamental values of culture do remain stable over time while practices, the more visible parts of culture, are subject to change. New practices can be learned as long as we live; using a computer or learning how to drive a car. But those values are acquired in childhood by your parents who

National values are a known fact, almost as known as the geographical facts or climate of a country. Later introduced cultural manifests are more subject to change, especially organizational cultures where people get introduced to if they are adults.

2.3.2 Cultural dimensions

Hofstede's main research on *national* culture is principally described in *Culture's consequences* (1980a, 1984). On a few occasions he has added to his model, but he has never acknowledged any significant errors or weaknesses in that research. Indeed many of his subsequent publications are robust, at times aggressive, defences of his 1980 methods and findings (Sweeney; 2002).

Hofstede's primary data were extracted from a pre-existing bank of employee attitude surveys undertaken around 1967 and 1973 within IBM subsidiaries in 66 countries. In retrospect, some of the survey questions seemed to Hofstede to be pertinent to understanding the respondents' 'values' which he defines as 'broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others' and which are for him the 'core element in culture' (1991: 35). He statistically analyzed the answers to these survey questions. That analysis, together with some additional data and 'theoretical reasoning' (p. 54), revealed, he states, that there are four central and 'largely independent' (1983: 78) bi-polar dimensions of a national culture and that 40 out of the 66 countries in which the IBM subsidiaries were located could be given a comparative score on each of these four dimensions (1980a, 1983, 1991).

Hofstede defines these dimensions as follows (1991):

<i>Low versus High Power Distance</i>	The extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. In cultures with lower power distance, more democratic and consultative relations are expected. In cultures with higher power distance, more autocratic or paternalistic relations are accepted by the less powerful.
<i>Individualism versus Collectivism</i>	The degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. In individualistic cultures, people are expected to develop and display their individual personalities and to choose their own affiliations. In collectivistic cultures, people are defined and act mostly as a member of a long-term group, such as family, religious group, age cohort or profession, among others.
<i>Masculinity versus Femininity</i>	In masculine cultures, people value competitiveness, assertiveness, ambition, and the accumulation of wealth and material possessions. In feminine cultures, people value relationships and quality of life. This dimension is also called quantity of life versus quality of life.
<i>Low versus High Uncertainty Avoidance</i>	This dimension measures how much members of a society attempt to cope with anxiety by minimizing uncertainty. In cultures with high uncertainty avoidance, people prefer explicit rules and formally structured activities, and employees tend to remain longer with their present employer. In cultures with low uncertainty avoidance, people prefer implicit or flexible rules or guidelines and informal activities.
<i>Long versus Short Term Orientation</i>	This dimension describes a society's time horizon. In long term oriented societies, people value actions and attitudes that affect the future: persistence / perseverance, thrift and shame. In short term oriented society, people value actions and attitudes that are affected by the past or the present: normative statements, immediate stability, protecting one's own face, respect for tradition and favours.

These dimensions are the values within the onion of culture (figure 5). The practices of this figure are the practical consequences of the values of the dimensions. A higher/lower score indicates different behaviour in practices, and in line with that other rituals, heroes and symbols.

2.3.3 Culture in the Benelux

Because of the Benelux focus of this research, the culture in the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg are described.

The border between Belgium and the Netherlands revives the border between the Roman Empire and the barbaric Germanic tribes, which has been fixed in its present position in about the fourth century AD Hofstede (2002). On the Latin side we find Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal and Spain, all countries speaking a Romanic language, plus Greece; on the Germanic side Britain, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Luxemburg and the Netherlands, all countries speaking a Germanic languages. Flanders is the only Germanic-speaking region that acquired a Latin mentality, because it was dominated by French-speaking overlords.

The Roman empire – the first large empire in the heart of Europe – was characterized by a single power centre (implying large Power Distances) and a uniform system of laws (implying strong Uncertainty Avoidance).

The differences between both countries are not only visible in language-driven background. In Hofstede’s research both nations were discussed, and also the difference between the Flemish and Walloon parts of Belgium.

Country	Power Distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Individualism/collectivism	Masculinity/femininity	Long- /short-term orientation
Netherlands	38	53	80	14	44
Belgium	65	94	75	54	38
<i>Flanders</i>	61	97	78	43	
<i>Wallonia</i>	67	93	72	60	
Luxemburg	40	70	60	50	

2.3.3.1 Culture - the Netherlands

The high individualism ranking for the Netherlands is indicative of a society with more individualistic attitudes and relatively loose bonds with others. The populace is more self-reliant and looks out for themselves and their close family members. The individuality is integral to in the daily lives of the population and must be considered when travelling and doing business in their country. Privacy is considered the cultural norm and attempts at personal ingratiating may meet with rebuff. Due to the importance of the individual within the society, individual pride and respect are highly held values and degrading a person is not well received, accepted, or appreciated.

The second highest Hofstede dimension for the Netherlands is uncertainty avoidance at 53, compared to a world average of 64. A moderate UAI score may indicate a cultural tenancy to minimize or reduce the level of uncertainty within the population by enacting rules, laws, policies, and regulations to cover most any and all situations or circumstances.

The lowest dimension is masculinity at 14. This relatively low index value is indicative of a low level of differentiation and discrimination between genders. In this culture, women are treated more equally to men in all aspects of society. This low Masculinity ranking may also be displayed as a more openly nurturing society.

The power distance index of the Netherlands is 38. This relatively low index value indicates people are quite to another; children are treated as almost equal and are able to out initiatives. Education is for everyone and lasts on two-way communication between teacher and student.

The Dutch are a little bit more short-term than long-term orientated with an index value of 44, consequently they strive for freedom, rights, success and mind yourself. Spare time is kind of important, as well as the “bottom line” and not the market position. People should be rewarded in line with competencies; large social and economical differences can therefore appear.

2.3.3.2 Culture – Belgium

The Geert Hofstede analysis for Belgium has a very high uncertainty avoidance Index (UAI) of 94, compared to other the average European countries' score of 74.

High uncertainty avoidance indicates the society's low level of tolerance for uncertainty. In an effort to minimize or reduce this level of uncertainty, strict rules, laws, policies, and regulations are adopted and implemented. The ultimate goal of this population is to control everything in order to eliminate or avoid the unexpected. As a result of this high uncertainty avoidance characteristic, the society does not readily accept change and is very risk adverse.

The high individualism ranking in Belgium is almost as high as the Dutch', therefore Belgium is also a society with more individualistic attitudes and relatively loose bonds with others. Power distance and femininity are on the other hand very different compared to their northern neighbour.

Belgium has a power distance index of 65; almost contrary to the 38 of the Netherlands. This indicates the Belgians are more respecting towards elderly and teachers, inequality between people is expected as much as desirable and no one should have aspirations above one's social class.

The median ranking for masculinity index in Belgium indicates the general Belgians differ in opinion whether the women and men should be equal in doing or have to act differently. Strong masculinity refers to strong men with ambition, never showing emotions and conquering about jobs and money. This relates to women being the soft person, focused on relations and the children, and being clean and busy as a bee. Within the opposite of this - a strong feminine culture - women are more equal to men; men are also allowed to show feelings, and both genders live up to the same norms and values.

Wallonia and Flanders, the two regions in which Belgium is divided, score on almost every cultural aspect more or less the same despite on masculinity. According to these numbers the northern half of Belgium is more feminine than the southern half. The 38 score on long-term orientation indicates the Belgians being little bit more focused on short-terms like the Dutch.

2.3.3.3 Culture – Luxemburg

The final nation of the Benelux is Luxemburg, the smallest country. There are no numbers for long- or short-term orientation available, and the scores are not thoroughly tested as they do not come from the IBM-file like the Dutch or Belgian scores. Luxemburg's scores therefore remain on replications or reasonable estimates.

With a score of 40 on power distance, Luxemburg scores like the Dutch civilians; this relatively low index value indicates people are quite to another; children are treated as almost equal and are able to out initiatives. Education is for everyone and lasts on two-way communication between teacher and student. The uncertainty avoidance of 70 indicates people from Luxemburg lean towards an emotional need of regulations and activities, a need for precision and formalization and motivation by (job) security. But they are less in need of certainty as the Belgians with an indication of 94.

The score on individualism is lower than both the Dutch and the Belgians: 60. This number displays the Luxembourger is more collectivistic than the others within the Benelux. Children are more likely to be thought to think as 'we' not as I, direct confrontations should better be avoided, and everything should be shared with family and friends. But since the score is still above 50 the Luxembourger is to be called individualistic, and not collectivistic.

On masculinity they fit directly between both groups, like the Belgians do on average.

2.4 Sales Manager

In international enterprise, managers need to know how far the workings of organizations in one country are different from those in another. How can knowledge of their home country style of organizing and its functioning help them deal with organizations in other places in the world? Are the structures and functioning of organizations in different cultures coming sufficiently close together to permit the development of universally applicable approaches with the expectation of obtaining consistent outcomes? Clearly there are international differences, but the key issues are: how important are they and are they diminishing? (Pugh & Hickson; 2002)

In a sales and marketing organization, the people most directly influenced by these cultural and institutional differences are the sales representatives. Within their job the sales representatives are interacting with countries characteristics, culture and institutions. Consequently they are most likely to be from the same nation as they are working in; this transfers the responsibility of influence towards the sales manager.

A literature search seeking studies that investigated the traits or characteristics related to sales manager effectiveness revealed five studies spanning the 34-year period between 1972 and 2006 (Dawn et al., 2006). Researching the attributes present in effective sales managers is needed because sales managers have been shown to have great influence on sales representatives and the process by which salespeople initiate, develop, and expand customer relationships (e.g., (Castleberry & Tanner, 1986)(Dubinsky, 1999)).

Those same sales managers have been shown to influence a variety of outcomes, including sales force trust, morale, organizational commitment, ethical conduct, job stress, job performance, and the entire customer interface (e.g. (Brashear et al, 2003)(DelVecchio, 1998)(Guest & Meric, 1989)(Mehta et al., 1999)). With such a highly visible and influential role in the organization, researchers and managers acknowledge the importance of understanding sales manager selection and performance.

The traditional tactical role of selling is being transformed in many companies to the strategic responsibility for building and sustaining customer relationships in target markets (Piercy, 2006). The growing importance of effectively managing business-to-business customer relationships has been shown in the shift in many companies to more collaborative and relationship-based forms of selling (Weitz & Bradford, 1999). Sales organizations are increasingly attempting to strategically cultivate long-term buyer-seller relationships; yet, there is a management need to create an environment in which such alliances can be developed. In this context, sales managers have the ability to forge environments that are both useful and harmful in such connections (Schwepker & Good, 2007).

There is thus a considerable interest in investigating the sources of superior salesperson performance and sales organization effectiveness, and particularly the impact of the sales manager on those outcomes. Management control is a key dimension of running a sales organization. Sales management control spans a continuum from behaviour-based control to outcome-based control. Behaviour-based control involves closely managing the day-to-day behaviour of salespeople as they carry out their job responsibilities, while outcome control encourages and rewards salespersons' results, such as sales volume, profit contribution, and related outcomes (Piercy, Cravens & Lane, 2009).

Walker, Churchill and Ford (1977; 1979) posit that one variable affecting salesperson performance is sales manager supervision. Moreover, Jolson et al. (1993) state that a sales manager's leadership style can have a dramatic impact on his/her salespeople's performance. The underlying premise behind the argument of these authors is that the degree and quality of interaction between the sales manager and the sales subordinate will influence the effectiveness with which the salesperson executes his/her job tasks.

For example, span of control (Ryans & Weinberg, 1979) and quality of the sales manager (Beswick & Cravens, 1977) have been shown to be related to territory performance. The nature of the relationship between sales managers and their subordinates has been found to be associated with salespeople's performance (e.g., (Dubinsky et al., 1995; Tanner & Castleberry, 1990)). Moreover, the degrees of 'active involvement' sales managers have with their sales personnel had been determined to affect salespeople's performance (Dubinsky et al., 1994).

The study of Brewer (1997) suggests that the traits of high-performing salespeople are similar to those of high-performing sales managers, contrary to other evidence suggesting that sales performance does not necessarily translate into sales management effectiveness (Ziyal, 1995). The study of Deeter-Schmelz, et al. (2002) provides an initial investigation into the attributes of effective sales managers. The results identify the three major roles effective sales managers fulfil – that of communicator, motivator and coach – with less emphasis given to the attributes themselves.

One key commonality among all of these studies is that none include or compare the perspectives of both sales managers and sales people in the same study, which is a weakness of extant literature given previous calls for further research examining differences in sales manager-salespeople perceptions (Dubinsky, 1998)(Evans et al., 2002).

Schwepker & Good (2007): Understanding the role of sales managers' goals and professional commitment in relationships to salespeople's ethical behaviour has important implications. First, given the importance of selling ethically in establishing customer relationships, understanding factors that could impact ethical selling is critical for determining means for influencing ethical selling and thus improving the chances of developing long-term client relationships. Second, understanding how to positively affect professional commitment has implications for both the firm and the sales management profession.

Correspondently, management has the ability to influence the ethical behaviour of subordinates by delineating and emphasizing appropriate behaviour through the development and enforcement of ethical codes and policies, as well as by setting a good example (e.g., (Ferrel & Gresham, 1985)(Hunt & Vitell, 1986)(Jones, 1991). When in place, such standards should filter "top down" as higher management communicates acceptable behaviours for the sales force. Despite this, some sales managers allow unethical actions to occur, perhaps owing to their drive to obtain quota, a typically used outcome-based performance measure designed for controlling and evaluating performance (Anderson & Oliver, 1987).

Professional commitment is "an individual's belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of a profession, a willingness to work hard on behalf of the profession, and a strong desire to remain in a profession" (Bergmann et al., 2000, p17). At higher levels of professional commitment, sales managers should be more inclined to be concerned about the ethical actions of his/her sales forces.

Organizational commitment in this study is based on the salesperson's attitude toward his or her organization, which is known as attitudinal commitment. In the organizational behaviour literature, attitudinal commitment is defined by the relative strength of an individual's identification and involvement with an organization and is characterized by an acceptance of the organization's values, a willingness to exert effort for the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982; Porter et al. 1974).

Organizational commitment among salespeople is important to sales managers for several reasons. First, organizational commitment reflects the salesperson's attitude about how connected or disconnected he or she feels with the organization. Organizational commitment implies the level of trust between the salesperson and the organization or its representatives. Further, organizational commitment has

implications for the salesperson's propensity to leave (PTL) or desire to remain with the organization. For example, low organizational commitment could accelerate employee turnover.

Similarly, in the marketing literature, Hunt, Chonko, and Wood defined organizational commitment as "a strong desire to remain a member of the particular organization, given opportunities to change jobs" (1985, p. 116). The bottom line is that organizational commitment suggests the strength of the bond between the individual and the organization (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). Because their definition reflected attitudinal organizational commitment, the Hunt, Chonko, and Wood (1985) conceptualization of organizational commitment was used in the current study.

Further, finding the right fit between the sales manager's leadership approach and the salesperson is critical. In particular, firms should be more proactive about listening to their salespeople, understanding their needs, and enhancing the sales manager–salesperson relationship through improved leadership and reward behaviours (Luckey & Dorf, 2004).

Recent research, however, suggests that sales manager appear to be uncertain about what are the most appropriate bases with which to evaluate salespeople (Jackson, et al., 1995).

Prior empirical evidence suggests that sales management leadership style may facilitate organizational goal acceptance by salespeople (Klein and Kim 1998) and enhance salesperson organizational commitment (Agarwal, DeCarlo, and Vyas 1999; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Hampton, Dubinsky, and Skinner 1986; Ruyter, Wetzels, and Feinberg 2001). Thus, proper leader reward behaviour may also lead to some of the same organizational benefits of having a highly self-motivated sales force.

The sales manager can have a major impact on his or her salespeople. The type of leadership style along with other facets of the sales manager–salesperson relationship may result in beneficial, neutral, or even disadvantageous effects on a range of outcomes (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1979). Thus, the role of sales manager (leader) behaviour appears to be a major influence on how salespeople view themselves and their organizations.

There is no single universal measure of the supervisor–subordinate relationship. The current model examines PLRB, similar to Chonko's (1986) "supervisor relationships." PLRB is defined as "supervisory use of positive rewards, contingent upon subordinate performance" (Sims and Szilagyi 1979, p. 66). Because salespeople are frequently motivated by "rewards," PLRB is identified as an antecedent to organizational outcomes because it represents "the relationship between good performance and leader-administered rewards such as recognition" (Sims and Szilagyi 1975, p. 429).

Salesperson performance is without question a critical area of interest in the sales literature and, consequently, has been defined and measured in a variety of methods (e.g., self-rating scales, supervisor-based performance appraisals). A self-rating scale was used and considered most practical for the purposes of this study because it afforded several advantages. Because the surveys were anonymous, there was no incentive for salespeople to exaggerate assessments of their performance.

Dubinsky (1999) says no matter what excuses the sales management team might offer for the sub par performer (e.g., dismal economic conditions, intense competition, inadequate selling skills, little initiative or drive), the simple fact of the matter is that the rationale offered can be dispatched to the sales management team. The sales management team has to work within the internal environment's constraints (e.g., company reputation) to assist sales personnel in dealing with difficult situations.

Several sales management activities – and the adeptness with which they are executed – clearly can make or break a salesperson. What sales management does to a salesperson after he/she has been hired is critical to sales success (Churchill et al., 1985).

The overwhelming conclusion of previous research tends to be that sales managers are unlikely to assign culpability to themselves but especially prone to attribute failure to salespeople (Dubinsky, 1999). Prior

research in sales management (which will be subsequently noted) generally has found that sales managers are more likely to blame salespeople for poor performance (or failure) than themselves, the firms or factors external to the company. The ascribed culpability has frequently been explained using attribution theory (Kelly, HH, 1971). According to this theory, individuals try to understand others' behaviours by assigning underlying causes to those behaviours. Dubinsky (1999) argues that essentially, there is no situation where the salesperson is the final party accountable for his or her failure.

Salesperson failure, whether it is reflected in a sales person's self-imposed cessation from the firm, an involuntary termination, or unremitting inadequate performance, has major costs for the employer. Such expenses can include those incurred in recruiting, selecting, and training replacement sales personnel; turnover; salaries and benefits of failed sale personnel; supervisory efforts expended; absenteeism; and lost revenues (Johnston, et al; 1989)(Morris, et al; 1994).

According to a survey of 316 sales and marketing executives, nearly half (47%) believe their salespeople have lied on a sales call and only 16,5% have never heard their salespeople make an unrealistic promise to a customer (Strout, 2002). Also, nearly three-quarters (74,2%) of those surveyed believe salespeople lose focus of customers' needs as a result of their "push" to achieve sales goals.

As the foundation for developing a customer relationship (Dwyer, Schurr & Oh, 1987), trust requires the buyer to depend upon the seller's honesty and reliability (e.g., ethicalness) and is one of several critical factors in developing relational marketing exchanges (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993)(Hawes et al., 1989).

2.4.1 Competencies

Deeter-Schmelz, Goebel and Kennedy (2008) examined the characteristics of effective sales managers from two perspectives – that of sales managers and sales representatives. The outcome of this study was presented in hierarchical value maps; one from sales manager perspective and one from sales representative perspective (Figures and tables).

Table 1 (Figures and tables) derives from a model Mintzberg developed of managerial work (1994), together with a review of many other lists from published and company sources. Many of them mix skills, values, traits, and even wishes in strange ways (e.g., from one company list: coaching, customer focus, commitment, or in a prominent textbook: financial management, hard work, clear thinking, respect).

Both studies focus on the same areas within (sales) management, only description is different. Like many theories also in competencies theory different insights are presented, but for this research the models are used for questioning and modelling the competencies of sales managers within the Benelux.

2.5 Research framework

The literature review starts with an overview of the different human resource management approaches in the world, the change over time and cultural adaptations. The current HRM concept was originally conceptualised and developed in the United States of America, discussed by many researchers and put into practice by organizations. But European writers were not convinced these practices should be applied in the European cultures, Claus (2003) even states a theoretical or practical HRM model developed in the cultural context of one country should not indiscriminately be applied to another country without testing the cultural biases of its assumptions. The comparison of European and US HRM points also out that in Europe, HRM is less dependent, companies have less autonomy and freedom in action, trade unionism is more important, social partners have more influence, legal regulations are more important, and there is a stronger tradition of employee involvement.

Pudelko's comparative analysis of the HR practices in US, Japanese and German companies joins in this view of European writers. Demonstrated is that the socio-economic contextual factors of the American and Japanese HR systems are in many ways at opposite ends of the spectrum, with the German factors in between.

The cultural factors described are conclusive: differences between the nations are present, as well as the regional cultural differences in Belgium. These cultural differences have proven influences on people behaviour and could thus influence the competencies of a job profile.

The other influences on sales managers are internal, external and personal factors. As the traditional roles of selling are changing, the role of a sales manager is developing. Sales managers' goals and company commitment are important in establishing relations and gaining results, and influences the behaviour of those. The right fit between a sales manager's approach and the salesperson's wishes is critical as well for the selling process. Coaching is one of the most important skills for a sales manager, however there are no universal methods for success as well as measures for the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

As a result of the theories discussed a research model comes forward (figure 6). The theories on multinational companies and human resource management within Europe form the basis on which we shift to the sales manager working within this environment. The influencing factor on this research is national culture; this is the point of interest in investigating the values following from the questionnaire and interviews.

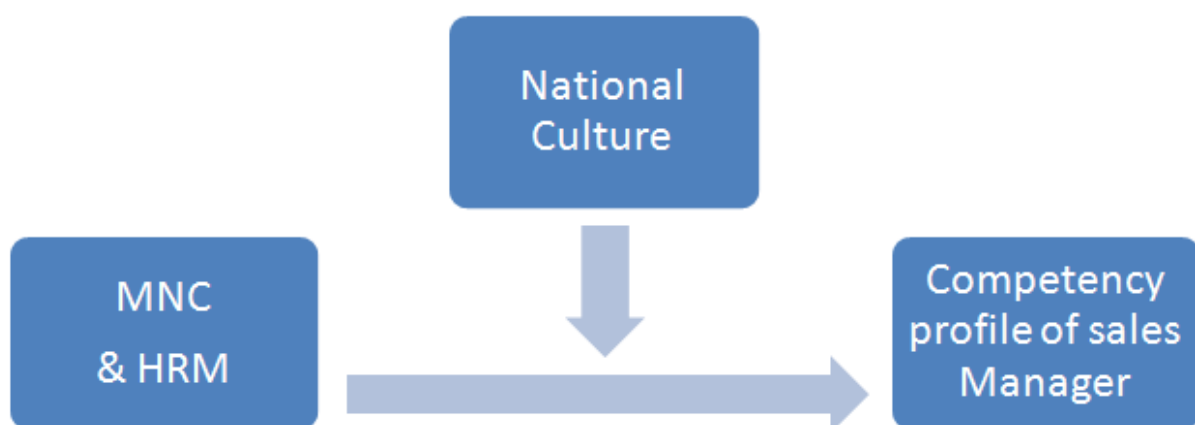


Figure 6: Research model

3. Methodology

This study is a descriptive investigation of the influence of culture on the characteristics of sales managers in MNCs. The research has been conducted at Johnson & Johnson Medical B.V., as described in chapter 1. This chapter provides insight on the approach used and specifically stages what have been completed to be able to answer the research question. The focus of this chapter is on the empirical part of the research, which consists of the questionnaire, case study and analysis.

3.1 Introduction

According to Yin (1987) there are six sources of evidence in case studies; documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observations and physical artefacts. For this research interviews are held with several employees, questionnaires are used to gain information from a larger group of people, the corporate websites and documentation have been skimmed for information, and direct observations are included. This triangulation of information sources ensures that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you (Saunders, 2007). For example, qualitative data collected using semi-structured interviews are a valuable way of triangulating quantitative data collected by other means such as a questionnaire.

In order to become more aware of the field of research; job of the sales manager, the market, business culture and hospital environment, a few interviews and co-travels were performed.

- In order to become familiar with the sales managers job and position, a co-travel was scheduled with one of the sales managers in the Netherlands. Co-travelling ensured interviews could be held during the day; questions about the several aspects of the job. This day provided a more narrow view on the tasks, influence and position of a sales manager, a welcome addition to the interview strategy and starting point for the questionnaires.
- Interviewing one of the division directors on culture in the Benelux created an awareness of the different cultural aspects within the countries. He is neither Dutch nor Belgian; therefore could provide a more objective view on the differences in culture.
- A co-travel with a product specialist was performed to become familiar with the environment the product specialists, sales managers and support are working in. The hospital and operation rooms should be places they feel comfortable in; in conversations with the surgeons, but also in assisting during operations.
- A interview with the sales force effectiveness manager of Johnson & Johnson about training and development of employees, the specific characteristics he'd like them to have and the Johnson & Johnson integrity selling program.

These interviews and observations provided a clear insight on sales at Johnson & Johnson, and created the basis for the method of analysis, interviews and questionnaires.

3.2 Survey strategy

The survey strategy is chosen in association with a deductive approach, a common strategy in business and management research and applicable for descriptive studies. A deductive approach relates to a research approach involving the testing of a theoretical proposition by the employment of a research strategy specifically designed for the purpose of its testing. Emphases of the deductive approach are: scientific principles, moving from theory to data, the need to explain causal relationships between variables, the collection of quantitative data, etc (Saunders, 2007).

3.2.1 Questionnaire

One of the features of a survey strategy is the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way. Standardized data allow easy comparison and understanding, but one needs to ensure the sample is representative and a good response rate has to be obtained.

A questionnaire can be sent out in many ways; online, by post, personal delivery, by telephone and as a structured interview. In our case, Johnson & Johnson Medical product specialists are the target audience. They will be sent an online questionnaire; the risks of non-response is reduced by sending an introduction e-mail, and a reminder after two weeks.

Summary of data collection 1	
Technique	Online questionnaire
Nature of questions	Closed, except 3 open questions
Sample size	96 product specialists within Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux
Time to complete collection	2 weeks
Data input	Automated

The questionnaire (Appendix A – Questionnaire product specialists) can be divided into four sections. The first section introduces the respondent to the topic. In this topic a few basic questions on their background are addressed. The second section consists of three open questions involving their job and sales manager intervention. For this section open questions are chosen to ensure answers are not influenced in choice of word by questions in the remainder of the questionnaire. The third section consists of a determination of importance of the competency model introduced by Mintzberg (2006), in this a 5 point likert scale will be used. Section four is about the determination of the HR systems by the model of Pudelko, 5 point likert scale for answering.

3.2.1.1 Third section

The third section is compiled by the competencies Mintzberg assigns to a manager. This theory is in agreement with the theory of Deeter-Schmelz, Goebel & Kenndy (2008), whom have included many other theories in their models. This model of Mintzberg (table 1) consists of four groups: personal, interpersonal, informational and actional competencies. Groups are represented by at least two competencies, which are clarified by examples of skills.

Every respondent, manager or product specialist, is asked to comment on the importance of the separate competencies in which either they strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree or strongly disagree.

3.2.1.2 Fourth section

The fourth section is compiled by statements Pudelko provided in his article about HR practices in Europe, Japan and the US. He started with an investigation on the managerial, economic, socio-political and cultural aspects of the three HR systems (figure 4). This research and its statements form the basis for the propositions in the questionnaire.

The section questions can be divided into five subsections: general characteristics, managerial principles, organizational structure, significance of HRM for the overall management and human resource management. Each respondent was asked to choose between two statements, to 'completely agree', 'agree' or 'agree nor disagree' with either one of them. Statement A represents the American HR system, statement B represents the Japanese HR system. The Germanic or European HR system stands between both statements.

Response	Score	HR System
Strongly agree with A	1	USA
Agree with A	2	
A nor B	3	EU
Agree with B	4	
Strongly agree with B	5	Japanese

3.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

In order to be able to research the problem not only at product specialist level, the managers of the sales managers will be interviewed. The interview techniques used will be semi-structured, in which an amount of questions will be asked to every interviewee but also provide the option to probe answers, where you want your interviewee to explain, or build on their responses. It is important to understand the meanings that respondents ascribe to various phenomena. The nature of questions can be either closed or open (Saunders, 2007). Also will the interview be face to face if possible, and to make the interviewee as comfortable as possible the interview will be held in their own office or if not applicable a location chosen by the interviewee. These settings help the interviewee to feel comfortable and speak freely. Before the interview started the protocol was explained to each interviewee, including confidentiality. Approval has been given to record the interview.

The sequence of the interview is divided into three sections:

- The first section consists of three general questions, with the purpose to start the conversation and to be set the scope for the interview.
- The second section of the interview is formed in response to the findings by the theoretical framework. The outcome of this section is compared to the opinions of the interviewees and compared with the research findings. This section matches section three of the questionnaire (chapter 3.2.1.1).
- The final section allows the interviewee to discuss topics that were not handled during the interview.

Summary of data collection 2

Technique	Semi-structured interviews
	Face to face
Nature of questions	Closed & open
Size of sample	8 managers
Target interview rate	4 out of 8

These data-collection methods are complemented with documents about sales managers created by Johnson & Johnson Medical; the current job profile of the sales manager, information gathered at the HR department and by the information collected during pre-analysis.

3.3 Data analysis methods

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis will be used for processing the data collected as described above. Quantitative data refers to all numeric data or contains data that could usefully be quantified; analysis techniques such as graphs, charts and statistics allow us to do this. Qualitative data refers to all non-numeric data or data that have been quantified and can be a product of all research strategies. It can range from a short list of responses to open-ended questions in an online

questionnaire to more complex data such as transcripts of in-depth interviews or entire policy documents (Saunders, 2007).

The results of the questionnaire will display the importance of competencies for a sales manager's job according to product specialists. This general overview will be supported by the country or culture specific outcomes; this cross-cultural aspect of the questionnaire is the influencing aspect of this research (figure 7).



Figure 7: Research model

The questions within the semi-structured interviews of the managers is translated into standards, which creates an overview of the most and less important characteristics. For the analysis of the results student's t-tests, average scores and tests on correlations are used (Saunders, 2007):

- A t-test or independent group test is a statistical test to determine the probability (likelihood) that the values of a quantifiable data variable for two independent samples or groups are different. The test assesses the likelihood of any differences between these two groups occurring by change alone.
- Correlation is the extend to which two variables are related to each other. Correlation coefficient is a number between -1 and +1 representing the strength of the relationship between two ranked or quantifiable variables. A value of +1 represents a perfect positive correlation.

The concept of culture is operationalized by the theory of chapter 2.3. The literature and theories by Hofstede and others are the standards for the cultural concepts used in the analysis of culture.

Combining this information results in the characterization of competencies required by sales managers. Culture might influence this overview, as Belgians consider different aspects more important compared to the Dutch and vice versa.

3.4 Research limitations

The following limitations have to be considered:

- The research is a one case study, therefore the hypotheses are only tested at one company
- Johnson & Johnson Medical is a Benelux organization, it is not necessary so the findings of this research of this research can be generalized to other cultures and countries
- An insufficient number of interviews is done
- The data is analyzed by one person, this means personal perception has an influence on the analyzes

4. Results

In this chapter the results from the desk research and the interviews are presented. First, the organization will be further explained in terms of HR systems, then a sales manager's required competencies are discussed, concluding with the cultural influence on the results.

4.1 Organization

Johnson & Johnson Medical is the Benelux division of Johnson & Johnson, world's most extensive and versatile manufacturer of healthcare products and supplier of connected services. Johnson & Johnson consists worldwide of more than 250 companies located in 57 countries. Their family of companies is organized into several business segments comprised of franchises and therapeutic categories. The three segments are 'consumer health care', 'medical devices & diagnostics', and 'pharmaceutical'. Johnson & Johnson Medical in the Benelux is part of the medical devices and diagnostics division, and is structured in the EMEA zone (Europe, Middle East & Africa).

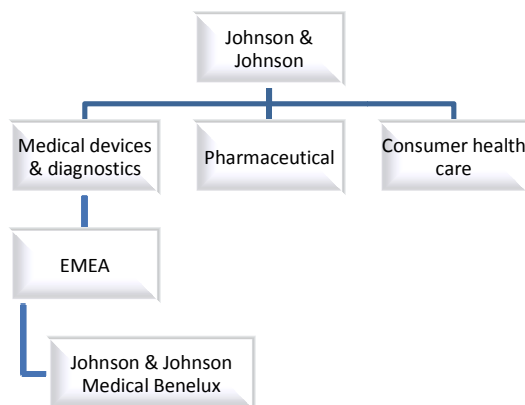


Figure 9: Structure of Johnson & Johnson (2009)



Figure 8: Divisions of Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux

Before 2006 both Belgium and the Netherlands were performing separately in the EMEA zone of Johnson & Johnson. In 2006 the official merge between the separate nations was realised due to efficiency and financial matters. The Benelux structure was established. From then on only local executions of strategy differ; by interpretation or otherwise necessary differences due to for instance market, regulations and laws. *An organization wide restructuring in 2010 will combine the Benelux and France into a Fraben cluster within the medical devices division of the EMEA group.*

Johnson & Johnson Medical in the Benelux cooperates with hospitals and medical organisations on the optimisation of care from her core business: medical products, instruments, and services. The company strives for high quality, professionalism, and lasting contacts with their partners. The organization provides the gross of hospitals in the Benelux with products and services of DePuy, Ethicon and Ethicon Endo-Surgery.

As a typical sales and marketing organization the majority of employees consists of product specialists and product managers. The educational background of these employees is a bachelor or master degree with a medical or economic background. Other functions within the organization are in HR, finance, logistics and information management.

All divisions within the organization are managed by a franchise director; his direct reports is the sales director or the sales managers. The product specialists within the divisions are managed by a sales

manager who is responsible for either the North/South of Belgium or the Netherlands. As example of a divisional structure; the organizational chart below represents an organizational chart of a franchise within the Benelux.

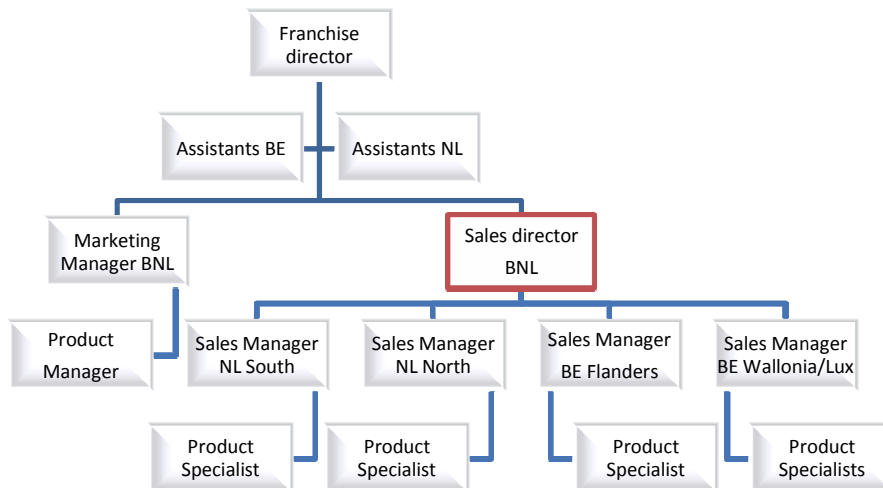


Figure 10: Structure of a franchise within Johnson & Johnson Medical B.V.

Because of the multinational character of the organization, Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux is subject to many (cultural) influences. Each nation the organization operates in has a different understanding and implementation of human resource management, through cultural and industrial aspects and developments (Chapter 2.1).

Pudelko (Chapter 2.1.2) has determined the European, USA and Japanese system of general characteristics; Japanese and USA are opposites were the European HRM is situated in-between both.

4.2 HR system

This part of the chapter discusses the results obtained from the assessment of the HR system. The assessment of the HR system is reviewed by product specialists. The independent sample test of these five groups can be found in Chapter 7.

4.2.1 General characteristics

The general characteristics of the cultural contextual factors describe the core values, value system, freedom and liberty, and social relations within the organizational context. The propositions are views of the HR systems of the US and Japan; European views on HR systems are in-between both as shown below.

US	European	Japan
Core values: individuality, self-assertion, enforcing own interests, little importance of collectives for individual preferences A relatively heterogeneous value system in society renders it impossible to define collective commonalities as a basis for society; in contrast, the common ground lies in the respect for each individual, regardless of his/her value position, personal philosophy, religion, origin and race.		Core values: group orientation, consensus, cooperation, precedence of collective entities (working group, company, nation) A rather homogeneous value system in society allows collective commonalities to be regarded as the basis for society
High importance of the notion of freedom and liberty: precondition for a free-market economy and a society often characterized as socio-Darwinistic		Emphasis on the limitation of individual freedom and liberty because of the individual's embeddedness in society: precondition for a government-guided market economy or social market economy
Social relations are based on the conciliation of opposite interests and the negotiation of individual rights and duties according to fair procedural rules.		Social relations are based on harmony, consensus and compromise.

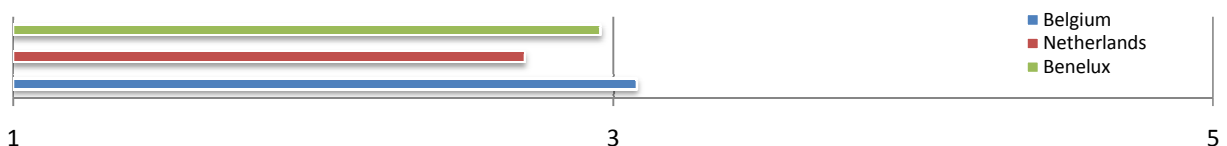


Figure 11: Results general characteristics

The Benelux mean on general characteristics is 2.96 (n=34), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands on general characteristics are 3.07 and 2.75. The results indicate the HR system, present at Johnson & Johnson Medical in the Benelux, is a European or Germanic HR system. The scores of both nations vary significantly ($p=0,211$ at $\alpha = 0.05$).

As a result of these figures and definition of the HR system on general characteristics, can be concluded that product specialists assess the HR system of the organization as European. Hence a quote of a product specialist: 'the core values mediate between individuality and group orientation, translating this to a Johnson & Johnson situation means the product specialist is happy to have the liberty to make decisions and carry out projects individually, however does he appreciate to work as a team member as well; independency within a group.'

The difference in scores between both nations can be explained with Hofstede (Chapter 2.3); the Dutch have a higher score on individuality in the index. This score indicates the Dutch are more individualistic

compared to Belgians. This tends towards the HR system of the US since this system aims on individuals and the Japanese HR systems on groups.

4.2.2 Managerial principles

The management related contextual factors are measured by propositions on management principles, organizational structure and significance of HRM for overall management. These factors indicate the management styles, the (long-term) objectives and orientations at Johnson & Johnson. The propositions are views of the HR systems of the US and Japan; European views on HR systems are in-between both as shown below.

US	European	Japan
Most important company objective: maximisation of shareholder value.		Most important company objective: to secure the survival, independence and long-term growth of the company to the benefit of all those involved with the company (stakeholders)
Focus on the 'hard S' of McKinsey's 7S-concept: strategy, structure, systems.		Focus on the 'soft S' of McKinsey's 7S-concept: staff, style, skill, super ordinate goals.
Uni-dimensional orientation towards financial objectives: maximisation of cash flow, return on investment, profit and share price.		Multidimensional orientation towards a bundle of performance, financial and social objectives.
The importance of management manoeuvres, breakthrough innovations and the (few) people involved with them is the reason for the selective weighting of human resources (few specialists of high importance, rest of the employees of less importance).		The importance of the entire production process, incremental innovations and all those involved in them (the entire workforce) is the reason for the importance of all human resources (from the manager to the worker).

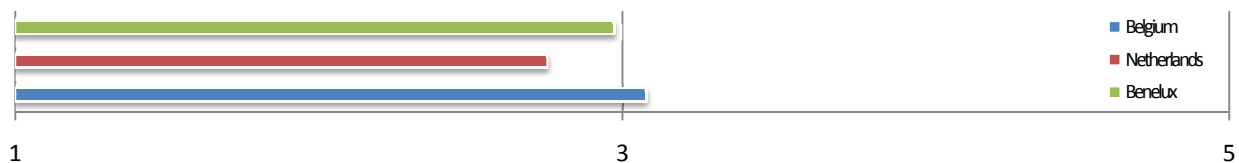


Figure 12: Results managerial principles

The Benelux mean on managerial principles is 2.97 (n=34), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands on managerial principles are 3.07 and 2.75. These figures indicate the HR system considering managerial principles present at Johnson & Johnson in the Benelux is a European HR system. The scores of both nations vary significantly ($p=0,238$ at $\alpha = 0.05$).

As a result of these figures and definition of the HR system on managerial principles, can be concluded that product specialists prefer to steer on a middle course. For example the McKinsey 7S' system to measure the quality of the organization's performance; by only focusing on strategy, structure and systems the people (human resources) are considered less important, this conflicts with the general characteristics of the company. Product specialists appreciate their influence on the organization, and education opportunities.

The differences between Belgium and the Netherlands can be explained by the masculinity versus femininity, and power distances dimensions of Hofstede (Chapter 2.3). Belgians score higher on these dimensions, indicating they lean more towards a Japanese HR system. The Japanese HR system focuses on the soft side of business and tends towards a feminine culture. The higher score of the Belgians indicates they value the feminine as more important compared to their northern neighbours.

4.2.3 Organizational structure

The organizational structure features the centralization of decision-making, individual responsibility, company structure and (cross) departmental thinking. These factors indicate the patterns in style of decision-making. The propositions are views of the HR systems of the US and Japan; European views on HR systems are in-between both as shown below.

US	European	Japan
Centralisation of decision-making with the top management level, in particular with the CEO (pro-active role); aligned to quick direction changes.		Task of the top management is to mediate between the various decision proposals of the middle and upper management (reactive role); aligned to status quo conserving decisions; direction changes occur only reluctantly.
Members of the board as function specialists are strongly rooted in departmental thinking.		Members of the board are aligned to cross-departmental thinking due to repeated change of function.
High degree of individual responsibility at the top management level; promotes quick and flexible decisions, but also increases the risk of wrong decisions.		Smaller degree of individual responsibility at the top management level; promotes stability in the company, but also half-hearted compromises.
Company has a pyramid structure.		Company has a network-like structure.

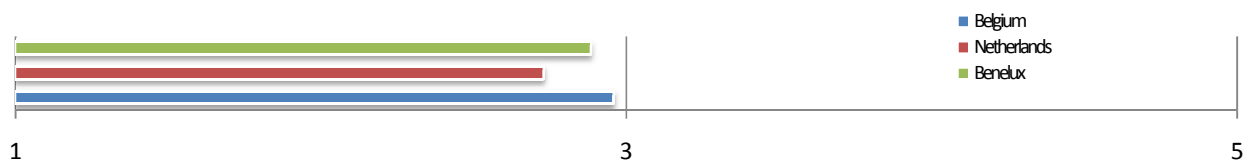


Figure 13: Results organizational structure

The Benelux mean on organizational structure is 2.88 (n=34), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands on organizational structure are 2.96 and 2.73. These figures indicate the HR system considering organizational structure present at Johnson & Johnson is a European HR system.

Because of the Benelux management at Johnson & Johnson Medical an initial assumption is made that both nations would significantly be equal in assessing the propositions. With 95% confidence interval (p=0,358) can be concluded this assumption is true; the scores of both nations do not vary significantly.

4.2.4 Significance of HRM for the overall management

The significance of HRM for overall management is measured by the conceptual importance of HRM, operational functions, importance of the HR department versus line management, and importance of human resources. These factors indicate the importance of HR for the company, but not in terms of recruitment, training, development, etc. The propositions are views of the HR systems of the US and Japan; European views on HR systems are in-between both as shown below.

US	European	Japan
Low conceptual importance of HRM for the definition of the corporate strategy.		High conceptual importance of HRM for the definition of the corporate strategy.
Low importance of HRM in relation to other operational functions.		High importance of HRM in relation to other operational functions.
Low importance of the HR department versus line management with regard to HR decisions.		High importance of the HR department versus line management with regard to HR decisions.
High strategic relevance of HR management is asserted, but the importance of the human resources themselves is actually subordinated.		High importance of human resources, with without stress of its strategic meaning.

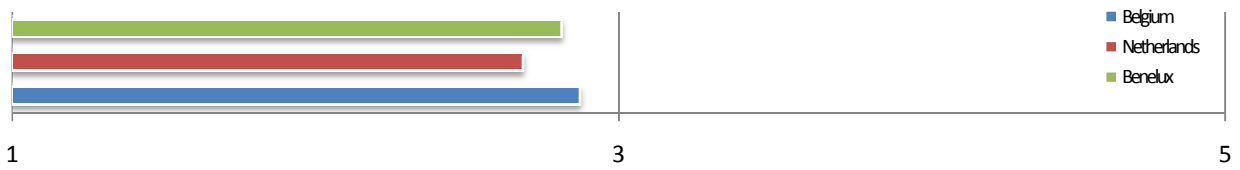


Figure 14: Results significance of HRM for the overall management

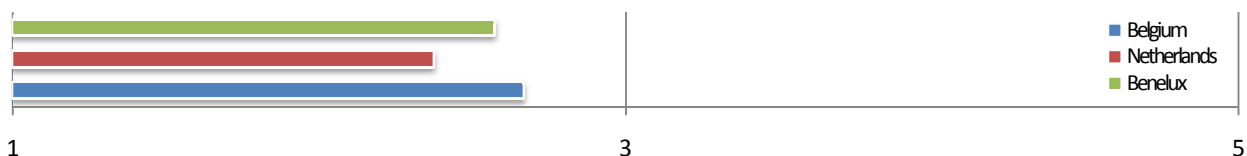
The Benelux mean on significance of HRM for overall management is 2.81 (n=34), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands on managerial principles are 2.87 and 2.68. These figures indicate the HR system considering managerial principles present at the organization is a European HR system with a minor tendency towards a US HR system. The scores of both nations are significantly equal ($p=0,435$ at $\alpha=0.05$).

As a result of these figures can be concluded that product specialists assess that human resource management has neither much nor little influence. The minor tendency towards the US HR system indicates the product specialists assess the importance of other departments as more valuable.

4.2.5 Human Resource Management

The propositions on Human Resource Management involve recruitment, development, assessments, incentives, communications, decision making and superior-subordinate relationships. The propositions are views of the HR systems of the US and Japan; European views on HR systems are in-between both as shown below.

US	European	Japan
Recruitment and release of Personnel: Finding the best qualified person for a specific job (job-oriented), high labour turnover.		Finding the person who fits best for the company (people-oriented), lifelong employment.
Training and development : Training focused on specific, limited knowledge for individuals for narrowly defined tasks (specialist training).		Widespread, extensive and group-oriented training for broadly defined tasks (generalist training).
Employee assessment and promotion criteria: Individual achievements and quantifiable criteria of importance (results oriented), specialist career path.		Seniority and contribution to collective achievements of importance (behaviour-oriented), generalist career path.
Employee incentives: Primarily material incentives, pay based on individual achievements, significant pay differences.		Material and immaterial incentives, pay based on seniority, small pay differences.
Communication within the company: Primarily vertical, structured and efficient.		Primarily horizontal, unstructured and extensive.
Decision making within the company: Top-down, authoritative, individual, confrontational and based on hard facts.		Bottom-up, participative, collective, consensus-oriented and based on soft facts.
Superior-subordinate relationship: Specific, task-oriented, based on regulations.		Holistic, person-oriented, based on common values.



The Benelux score on human resource management is 2.57 (n=34), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands on human resource management are 2.66 and 2.37. These figures indicate HRM present at the organization is a European HR system with a minor tendency towards US HR systems. In

repetition the score will with 95% confidence be equal ($p=0,80$). However, p is not strong which implies deviations might occur in repetition.

Based on the results, the human resource management approach the organization practices, is called European which is in agreement with the Europeans working in the organization. The tendency towards the US HR system is explainable by the influences of the Johnson & Johnson headquarters in the US. Although the Benelux has his own human resource strategy, the influence on salaries, job profiles, company structure, recruitment and development is visible in the assessment of HRM by the product specialists.

4.2.6 Conclusion

The results presented are average scores obtained by assessments of propositions by product specialists in the Benelux, within this group the difference between Belgium and the Netherlands is not significant although the Dutch scores lean more towards the US HR system compared to the Belgian. Still the results are conclusive; the HR system is determined as European with a minor tendency towards US. There were also no significant differences found between the franchises of Johnson & Johnson.

This conclusion is comparable to the theoretical conclusions (Chapter 2.1) – *‘the comparison of European and US HRM points out that in Europe; HRM is less dependent, companies have less autonomy and freedom of action, trade unionism is more important, the social parents have more influence, legal regulations are more important, and there is a stronger tradition of employee involvement’* – and in agreement with direct observations of HR at Johnson & Johnson Medical in the Benelux.

The sales managers are exerting these HR activities within the company, supported by the HR advisors of Johnson & Johnson. Recruitment, development, assessments, incentives, communications, decision making and superior-subordinate relationships are all put in to practice by the sales managers and their managers.

4.3 Competencies

Although sales person failure cannot be explained by one theory, a simple list of competencies or skills, or a misguided pattern; there are certain competencies of which managers believe make sales managers successful. Managers of Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux believe the ideal sales manager exists. Although none of the current sales managers has all requirements for the ideal sales manager, the combination of competencies and skills to make the ideal sales manager are present. Quote from a manager: *“I do not believe that someone (for instance) not very analytical, would automatically fail as a sales manager. Of course someone completely lacking analytical skills would not have a chance of becoming a sales manager. But with a certain basic level, enough to make reports and being conclusive, other competencies can compensate for this less developed competency.”*

The ideal sales manager has a definite set of competencies, most of them are equal to managers in general and a general competency profile can be concluded from this. In order to be the ideal sales manager one should meet management and subordinate demands.

Three managers gave the following descriptions of the ideal sales manager:

- The ideal sales manager is someone with a high EQ and a high IQ, one that preferably has previously been a product specialist, and has good coaching skills. The first three months are crucial to the development of a sales manager; in this period the trust and respect of the team has to be earned.
- The ideal sales manager is someone with much drive, the willingness to score, lots of energy and dynamics, communicative with marketing, customer service, clients and subordinates, but also has coaching skills.
- The ideal sales manager is someone with knowledge of the entire health care environment, a people manager with management and coaching skills, analytical, influencing, prioritizing, and scheduling qualities.

4.3.1 DISC

Johnson & Johnson uses a Personal Profile Analysis (PPA) in recruiting as a tool to understand their behaviour. This PPA-profile of Thomas International exists of four key-words; Dominance, Inducement, Submission and Compliance (DISC). Each group of characteristics consists of certain behavioural features, extremes of one another but also features in behaviour closely together (Appendix C – Example DISC).

The score on a group of characteristics (high or low) determines if a person meets the job profile. A product specialist is supposed to have a high D and I, a lower S and C. This means the person should have the drive to close deals (D), have the communication skills to develop a network (I), and should also be flexible, dynamic (S) and willing to take a risk (C).

According to the managers the sales manager should have been a product specialist, and therefore have the same PPA-profile; high D & I, lower S & C. A high score on Compliance, indicating better structure and following procedures, is even called a barrier for sales managers.

Managers say sales managers should preferable be former product specialists, because of their knowledge of the field; the knowledge of how tough the environment of hospitals is and closing a deal can be. The experiences as a product specialist will help the sales manager in coaching their direct reports; these experiences also are their biggest pitfalls as they feel comfortable in these patterns and thus try to force the product specialists into handling alike.

4.3.2 Questionnaire results

The competencies of Mintzberg are grouped into four categories: personal competencies, interpersonal competencies, informational competencies, and actional competencies. Mintzberg's list of competencies is in accordance with the profiling method of Thomas International. The main difference is that instead of a group of competencies is presented, only individual competencies are used.

4.3.2.1 *Personal competencies*

The group of personal competencies is divided in managing one self, internally and externally; self-reflection, strategic thinking, stress-, time-, information- and career management.

The managers of the sales manager give the managing self competencies a score between important and very important. The competency managing self externally is considered more important than managing self internally. Strategic thinking as a skill should according to the managers not be part of the managing self internally competency; they value this as a skill marketing specialists should have because they are in charge of the strategic settings.

The Benelux score by product specialists on managing self internally is 1.85 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.96 and 1.64. These figures indicate the product specialists consider managing self internally as an important competency, the Dutch indicate the competency as more important than their southern neighbours.

The Benelux score by product specialists on managing self externally is 2.03, the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 2.08 and 1.93. These figures indicate the product specialists consider managing self externally as an important competency, but less important compared to the managers' opinion.

Career management is ranked last and thus valued less as a sales managers' skill by product specialist. According to this ranking product specialists do not care about a sales manager's career, or do not consider it important for their own career.

4.3.2.2 *Interpersonal competencies*

The group of interpersonal competencies includes leading individuals, leading groups, leading the organization or unit and linking the organization or unit.

- Leading individuals includes the skills selecting, teaching, coaching, inspiring, and dealing with experts
- Leading groups includes team building, resolving conflicts, mediating, facilitating processes, and running meetings
- Leading the organization/unit includes merging, building culture, and managing change
- Linking the organization/unit includes networking, representing, collaborating, promoting, dealing, negotiating, protecting, and buffering

The **leading individuals'** competency sticks out of these four competencies. All managers stated at least one skill of the leading individuals competencies, therefore making it in their perception an important competency. They also stated coaching is a necessary skill for sales managers.

The Benelux score by product specialists on leading individuals is 1.41 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.44 and 1.36. These figures indicate the product specialists consider leading individuals as an important competency. The open questions about sales manager's competencies, part of the questionnaire, support this outcome; coaching is the number one mentioned competency. Product specialists describe their ideal sales manager as a people manager with good coaching skills, able to train and develop product specialists and a motivator. All parts of the leading individuals' competency as described by Mintzberg.

Leading groups is important according to the managers, only leading individuals is considered more important. Managers think product specialists operate on individual basis in stead of as a team. The sales manager manages a team, but their subordinates are working on individual schedules, projects, regions and tasks. Since product specialists work individually, this influences the outcome for this competency according to the managers.

Product specialists do not agree with this statement; the Benelux score by product specialists on linking individuals is 1.44 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.36 and 1.57. These figures indicate the product specialists competencies give leading groups a score between important and very important. Team building is the number one skill within this group according to product specialists; indicating they feel like working in a team.

The difference in outcome between the managers and the product specialists indicates they have different opinions on a product specialists' job and a sales manager's team. Although the difference in opinion is not significantly high, it is definitely present.

Leading and linking the organization are indicated as less important competencies according to managers. In the current job description of sales managers these competencies are not valued as necessary. However, career wise, a sales manager has to develop these competencies in order to be eligible for promotion. The managers indicate that these competencies are part of their job.

The Benelux score by product specialists on leading the organization is 1.97 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.92 and 2.07. These figures indicate the product specialists consider leading the organization as a competency a sales manager should have.

The Benelux score by product specialists on linking the organization is 1.77 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.56 and 2.14. These figures indicate the product specialists consider leading individuals as an important competency, the difference between both nations is quite present but not statistically significant.

In alignment with the managers, product specialists indicate these competencies are of less importance. Scores were between very important and unimportant, while on average the results indicate the competencies are important.

4.3.2.3 Informational competencies

The group of informational competencies include communication verbally, communication nonverbally and analyzing.

- Communicating verbally includes listening, interviewing, presenting, writing, information gathering and information disseminating
- Communicating nonverbally includes seeing and sensing
- Analyzing data includes data processing, modelling, measuring and evaluating

These competencies are considered as very important for sales managers. Sales manager are constantly mediating between different departments, people and clients. Verbal communication is required in discussions, managing product specialists and presenting information. Non-verbal communication is considered essential in persuading clients in buying the products. Especially when negotiating becomes tougher in the coming years, the sales manager needs his physical presence for persuading clients.

Quotes by a manager:

'For me everything is based on trust; spread communication from the manager to direct reports and vice versa whether it is good or bad news. Whenever you're not able to trust the sales manager the communication stiffens, the job becomes less fun and critics become more personal.'

'Sales managers of north and south have to communicate one message; it cannot be that a product specialist senses that a thing he did would be appreciated in the north, but not in the southern region he is working in.'

An example of a sales manager setting a bad example for product specialists, his nonverbal communicating conflicted with his verbal communication and example setting:

'We have had problem with product specialists not sensing the priority setting of networking, being present in hospitals and subsequently not meeting targets set. Unfortunately this example was set by their sales manager due to his appearances at co-travels; he started at 10 and left at 15h00 with the excuse he had to be home before traffic jams started. A good example of how things should not be alike concerning motivation and organizational discipline!'

This example conflicts with building a trustworthy relationship with managers, colleagues, product specialists, clients, etc.

The Benelux score by product specialists on communicating verbally is 1.54 (n=37), the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.52 and 1.57. The Benelux score by product specialists on communicating nonverbally is 1.69, the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.68 and 1.71. The Benelux score by product specialists on analyzing is 1.71, the individual scores for Belgium and the Netherlands are 1.52 and 2.08. These figures indicate the product specialists consider informational competencies as competencies a sales manager should have, the differences between the Netherlands and Belgium are not statistically significant.

This outcome is in agreement with the responses on the open ended questions. The informational competencies are one of the most mentioned: contract negotiations and sensing.

4.3.2.4 Actional competencies

The group of actional competencies includes scheduling, administering, designing and mobilizing.

- Scheduling includes chunking, prioritizing, agenda setting, juggling and timing
- Administering includes resource allocating, delegating, authorizing, systematizing, goal setting and performance appraising
- Designing includes planning, crafting and visioning
- Mobilizing includes fire fighting and project managing

The actional competencies are considered less important compared to interpersonal and informational competencies by managers. Especially designing is seen as a less important competency, while scheduling is considered more important. The score on scheduling is interesting in view of this quote of a manager:

'Whenever a sales manager is scheduling his direct reports agenda's we may have come to the point of starting a dismissal procedure; if a sales manager feels the necessity to do this, something is not working. We have to recruit self starters, the product specialists need to be able to set their own agenda and sense how much work has to be done in order to be successful.'

Interesting are the open ended questions for product specialists; answers differ between scheduling and self management. The question what competencies a sales manager should not have displayed a consistent answer: scheduling (agenda/priority setting).

Scores on actional competencies:

Competency	Benelux	Belgium	The Netherlands
Scheduling	1.95	1.84	2.14
Administering	1.85	1.68	2.14
Designing	2.15	2.16	2.14
Mobilizing	2.00	1.96	2.07

4.4 Culture

This section of the results chapter discusses the influence of culture on sales managers. The research model indicates that culture influences the competency profile of a sales manager, and should therefore be investigated. The chapter starts with some quotes of employees on the differences between Belgium and the Netherlands. Onwards the differences between Walloon and Flanders will be assessed.

4.4.1 Examples of differences between Belgium and the Netherlands

Questioning interviewees provided insights into cultural differences at Johnson & Johnson Medical. Discussed are employees and their personal experiences.

'There are clear differences between Belgium and the Netherlands, considering Hofstede's theories both nations should not be combined into a Benelux 'nation'. Masculinity and femininity completely differs, management and control styles too; the 'polder' culture in the Netherlands in which 'je' and 'jij' is very normal, and your boss is also just someone. Your boss can have a certain philosophy but this doesn't ensure him his subordinate will follow his patterns if he an idea of his own. In Belgium a manager tells his subordinates what to do and they just do it: le patronne c'est le patronne.'

'In Belgium the amount of rule bending; do not obey rules as much, but tend to try to get around rules. For example when I send a template to my Dutch managers, they send it back whether it makes sense or not. Therefore I have a problem with them questioning things and engaging their brain. There might be a bit of a grumble, but they will use the template. In Belgium they will systematically not use the template, even the best people I have in Belgium will take the template and change it or modify it or make it more their way. Which is just a way of doing that.'

'There is a lot of noise in Belgium, people will complain a lot more about things, they will shout that all business is leaving and that all the customers are pissed and things are an absolute disaster. And then something small happens.

In the Netherlands it is the complete opposite, you hear absolutely nothing; radio silence. I've been told nothing, maybe because I'm a foreigner or the boss. And then all the sudden we lose accounts, very big accounts. "Oh btw, we lost this account and the day before we lost this account". Why did it take three days to tell me first of all, where were the warning signs and why didn't you tell me? So in Belgium lots of noise and we do not lose accounts, in the Netherlands no noise and we do lose accounts. So direct when it comes to jokes or personal attacks, or telling opinions, but when it comes to getting things done and getting their hands dirty and taking responsibility they are much less good than the Belgians.'

As part of the interviews the managers were asked if they consider it realistic for a Dutch sales manager to work in Belgium, or vice versa:

'I am 100% sure this will be no problem. I've been a product specialist myself in Flanders and Walloon, and there are also companies so small they have only one sales person in the Benelux. So I don't think it is unconquerable, although I do believe selling in your own language is easier as well as in your own culture.'

'There are no differences between sales managers in Belgium or the Netherlands, the competencies are alike. Perhaps the use of skills is different, and the communication has to be adapted to the culture and the people. But the grounds don't change; if a sales manager speaks the language he can either work in Belgium or in the Netherlands.'

'A Dutch sales manager will not be successful in Belgium and vice versa. Success or failure is in small details, but mainly in communication and manners. In the beginning I have tried to standardise these manners and communication, but turned out it didn't work that way so we stopped standardisation. An example: in Belgium product specialists are running more from client perspective, if doctors cannot get along they send different product specialists to each. In the Netherlands it is more like: we have a business to run, this is what you can get and nothing more. Client perspective is important, but doctors are no saints.'

The managers consider the differences in culture secondary to the competencies. The required competencies for sales managers are therefore the same for Belgium and the Netherlands. Due to cultural and market differences they are applied in different ways.

4.4.2 Walloon versus Flanders

According to Hofstede, the biggest difference between Flanders and Walloon is in masculinity versus femininity (Chapter 2.3). Masculinity versus femininity refers to assertiveness and competitiveness versus modesty and caring in gender roles. The Flemish seem to be more alike the Dutch; less differentiation and discrimination between genders, and a more openly nurturing society. This last remark can be translated into the interpersonal competencies of this research (coaching, teambuilding, mediation, networking). These cultural differences should according to this theory be present in the outcomes of the questionnaire.

All Levene's tests for equality of variances (Chapter 7) result in 'equal variances assumed', and only the interpersonal competencies hypothesis has to be rejected due to a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. This implicates the differences in interpersonal competencies between Flanders and Walloon, and confirm the hypothesis of differences in culture.

The independent sample test (Chapter 7) tests the correlation between the Netherlands and Flanders and reveals the same outcome as between Flanders and Walloon. As does the independent sample test testing the relation between the Netherlands and Walloon. These results confirm the theory of Hofstede and previously found answers.

4.5 Conclusion

The determination of the HR system by product specialists reveals the European character of the management approaches at Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux. Without doubt can be ascertained the HR system is European, although minor differences in application are visible between Belgium and the Netherlands.

The results on competencies reveal every manager has different standards for his or her sales managers, but in the end they agree on most competencies. Although there are visible differences, on the final list of competencies they agree. Product specialists and managers disagree at the importance of the competencies scheduling and leading groups. Two competencies determining the relationship between the product specialist and sales manager.

Competencies currently less or not important for a sales manager according to the manager are linking and leading the organizations. Managers agree these are competencies necessary whenever promoted, but in the current job not important for becoming successful.

All results indicate there is influence of culture; Dutch and Belgians clearly have different cultures and thus different approaches of market, people and clients. Differences between Flanders, Walloon and the Netherlands are visible. Quotes and examples of employees notice the differences in people, market and culture. About the possibility of a sales manager working outside his region are managers not conclusive; although they agree that without speaking the local language a sales manager would definitely fail to succeed.

5. Conclusions

This chapter provides an overall conclusion on the gathered data and answer the main question of this research: *To what extent should competency profiles of sales managers differ in the Benelux?* Furthermore a discussion in which the wider implications of the findings and conclusions are considered. The chapter ends with recommendations regarding this research and future research.

5.1 Conclusion

This part of the chapter discusses the conclusion which is the outcome of the results. The HR system and competencies of sales managers are discussed, and on both topics the influences of culture will be described.

5.1.1 HR System

The HR system of the organization is reviewed by product specialists. The determination of the system was between US, Japanese and European, by theories of Pudelko. The questions were addressed in five groups: general characteristics, managerial principles, organizational structure, significance of HRM for the overall management and Human Resource Management. All results indicate the HR systems of the organization in the Benelux are European, with a tendency towards the US HR system.

The general characteristics of Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux are mediating between the US and Japanese HR systems. These systems are each others extremes, like for example in-between individualism and collectivism as the quote in chapter 4.2.1 states: the employees are happy to work individually, however they do appreciate to work in teams to gain victories (sales). The differences between both nations can be explained by the theories of Hofstede, were Belgians score lower on individuality (75 versus 80). Although the score does not differ that much, it indicates Dutch are more individualistic. Since the scores are not significantly equally assumed by repetition, these are negligible. On managerial principles the organization is mediating between the variables, which is important for the employees. The objectives, orientations and management styles are adjusted for each situation, leaving space for matching style and personal preferences in conversations.

The European HR system indicates the organizational structure of the company has not a single structure in decision-making, for example: decisions are not made at top level, but also not as a mediation between the various decision proposals of the middle and upper management. Board members are not function specialists, but also not focussed on cross-departmental thinking. Therefore, these structures are adjusted as the situation requires. There are no direct cultural influences to explain the differences in thought between the nations.

Human Resource Management's importance for the overall management is assessed as mediocre at Johnson & Johnson Medical. Although the influence of HRM for the definition of the strategy - in relation to strategic meaning and other operational functions - is not distinctly present in the organization, product specialists notice the presence of HRM. If the score would have revealed an US HR system for this matter, HRM would not have noticeable added value for overall management.

The multinational and thus US influence of the Johnson & Johnson headquarters is present in the score on Human Resource Management; a tendency towards the US HR system.

These results indicate Johnson & Johnson Medical in recruiting is using a mixture of practices when selecting. The people oriented approach, in which is searched for the person who fits best for the company, and the job oriented approach, in which is searched for the most qualified person for a specific job, are thus practiced in combination. The results reveal product specialists value specialist training as more important than generalist trainings.

The influence of culture on the HR system of Johnson & Johnson Medical is more European than a difference between Belgium and the Netherlands can be found. The differences between both nations can be assigned to cultural differences as Hofstede's describes, but are not to the extent they influence the strategy, management or human resource management of the organization.

However, the outcome of this part of the research is important for the competencies; as the HR system in Belgium and the Netherlands is equal, the comparison of competencies is valuable.

5.1.2 Competencies

With these findings, the competencies of a sales manager for the European and more specifically the Dutch and Belgian culture is researched. The research conducted by questioning managers and product specialists revealed both groups agreed on most competencies. The success of a sales manager at Johnson & Johnson depends on several competencies; trust, motivation and coaching are the most important competencies. Several examples state these findings, including the open answered questions by the product specialists. Coaching is an item of huge importance to managers as well, the EQ of a sales manager has to be present as well as IQ.

The main discussion between both groups is at the competencies leading groups and scheduling. The competency scheduling is one product specialists as a group do not agree on; some want their sales managers to stay away from their agenda's and others want the sales manager to set their schedules. As a result of the closed questions only, product specialists agree on scheduling as an important competency. Overall I think the example given in this matter, explaining product specialists should manage their own agenda's, schedules and appointments because if they are not able to do that anymore one should probably look for another job. This is in line with the communicative, goal driven person the managers believe a product specialist and thus automatically a sales manager should be. They want freedom in their job and be able to do what they think is best. The scheduling competency is therefore useful, but should not be the best developed competency of a sales manager. Whenever the sales manager is intervening too much with scheduling, the product specialist is probably not pleased with that. However the sales manager should definitely keep track on prioritizing.

The discussion on leading groups as an important competency, is based on whether the product specialists are working as a team or not. Sales results are individually, because each has own accounts but the region (north or south) makes them a team. And the sales managers speak of their team, they have team meetings for example. Product specialists value this competency with more importance, they believe they are a team member. Managers are speaking more about individuals. In this matter the product specialists are more important, because it is as they feel; they are working it. Concluding on that the competency is important for sales managers to have; it creates teams which are able to learn from each other and become better sales persons.

The DISC profile Johnson & Johnson uses for employee development, team building and behavioural analysis thus seems to be conclusive. The goal driven (D), communicative (I), flexible and dynamic (S) skills are presented above. The C for Compliance is the only discussion; a lower C means a sales manager is willing to take a risk and bend some rules, a higher C means more compliant and following rules. This discussion involves the scheduling competency. A manager said a high C would be a barrier for a sales manager, but this isn't completely true according to the results. The common denominator in this discussion is probably a lower C, but not far from the middle. Concluding, the DISC profile is in line with the results of this research.

Competencies currently not important for a sales manager are leading and linking the organization or unit, but whenever a sales manager wants to make promotion these are competencies they should have.

Development of these competencies is thus very important, not only for them but for Johnson & Johnson as well. Presenting the organization, networking, negotiation and building culture are useful skills which can be applied as a sales manager as well and will be of help whenever they make a promotion.

According to the results product specialists do not care about a sales manager's career, or do not consider it important for their own career. This might be a thought they would consider to change, especially for their own careers. At Johnson & Johnson HR supports career development and promotion of employees; however this is only possible if a position becomes vacant. The career management skill is also important for product specialists in drawing up personal development plans; a plan they have to coordinate with their sales manager.

5.1.3 Influence of culture on the relationship between HR system and competencies

Within all these results the influence of culture is represented; Dutch differ from Belgians and vice versa. The main differences can be found at the interpersonal competencies. In all correlations this difference in culture is found between Flanders, Walloon and the Netherlands. These cultural differences in interpersonal competencies should be taken into account drawing up the competency profile of a sales manager; a Dutch sales manager needs to have different skills compared to a Walloon sales manager and a Flemish sales manager. Market difference between both nations does influence these competencies as well: should one have better negotiation skills or is a higher EQ of more importance in building a relationship with doctors? These should not only be present in the competency profile of a sales manager, but also in the profile of a product specialist.

The managers did not agree on sales managers becoming successful in either country, some of them agreed to this and others did not. According to the competency profiles drawn up there are possibilities a Belgian sales manager can become successful in the Netherlands or vice versa. What needs to be taken in order are the different ratings on competencies and skills.

In conclusion of the results and theory it becomes clear the competency profiles of sales managers are different, the difference are minor but absolutely present and key to success. The relationship between sales managers and the people around them are based on trust, respect and motivation. These relationships can only be build if the sales manager and his team fit together. The competencies of sales manager can therefore be equal for both nations and the different nations, but the practical implementation of the skills involved differs.

This is the exact influence of culture on the relation between human resource management in multinationals and competency profiles of sales managers. Culture influences the way competencies are put into practice when strategies are set. Differences in market are not as influencing as culture. A coaching competency for instance will be different for Belgians and Dutch, as their femininity/masculinity and power distance scores differ.

5.2 Discussion & future research

In this discussion the wider implications of the findings and conclusions are considered, and recommendations for future research are presented.

5.2.1 Discussion

The European HR system fits the Johnson & Johnson Medical Benelux organisation, and as a division of the in the US established Johnson & Johnson, combined with the international board, the deviation towards the US HR system is explicable. As this part of the results was to confirm the organization is pursuing an European HR system, this hypothesis is conclusive.

The differences between the nations are slightly present and mostly explicable by culture, however the question raise whether the answers would be more present if it wasn't a Benelux organization.

Overall these results and thus the questionnaire can be used in further research, the questionnaire is conclusive and an easy tool to distinguish HR systems. Suggestions for adaptations should be cultural and country specific, a perfect tool for European countries to measure their HR system would be a model with for example a Nordic, Roman and Germanic HR system. The differences occurring between those cultures and nations might however be to slightly present to fit in such a model.

The conclusions on the results are clear, the competencies a sales manager needs to have are trust, motivation and coaching. Leading and linking the organization is less important for a sales manager's current job, but the need occurs when a promotion is wanted. The DISC profile Johnson & Johnson uses for selecting and recruiting of personnel is in line with the results of this research. According to this the method has proven its value for the company. The DISC profile is a proven tool for other companies too, with many models stemming from it.

The model of Mintzberg of a manager in general is quite conclusive for a sales manager, however adaptations within the group of interpersonal competencies would improve this model regarding sales managers. The interpersonal competencies including leading individuals, groups and the organization, and also linking the organization. These competencies leading and linking the organization are discussed during the interviews, and by the results of the questionnaires. As the respondents indicate these are not important for a current job, but for future promotions they are. However, since this should be a model for the competencies of a sales manager, these should be left out.

An extension of the informational competencies, were much skills are assigned to the communicating verbally competency, would improve the model. These skills should be divided into two groups: one of gathering, processing and dissemination of information, the other including interviewing, listening, writing and briefing. These last skills are less prominent in a job, because often practices in smaller groups or without people around. Therefore these skills might be overshadowed by the "stronger" skills.

Cultural differences are distinctively present in the sales managers job, not only the market but also the behaviour of product specialists, clients and managers differs. The current managers of the sales managers are not conclusive on if sales managers can worker in either country or either region.

Considering all information gathered during this research, it might be possible that a sales manager becomes successful outside of his original region. However, strong doubts are present when the company wants to station a Dutch sales manager from the North, although speaking perfectly French, in the south of Belgium or vice versa. The cultural differences might in these cases be unconquerable. To become inconclusive on this proposition, culture in the market has to be researched and a specific model for the health care branch should be developed. This model should include the organizational cultures in the health care branch considering the differences in regulations, money and negotiations. However it stays clear that culture influences the practical implementation of the competencies.

5.2.2 Future research

Future research should be conducted with more product specialists and managers from different multinational organizations. This should be companies from within the Benelux, but it can also be interesting to test the competency profiles of sales managers over Europe. When Johnson & Johnson can be the case study for this, one should set up a questionnaire for European product specialists and managers. Because the HR systems should be equal, which of course can and should be tested as well, the cultural influence is measurable.

The outcome of this competency profile for sales managers in the Benelux should be tested against the current sales managers. Whether they meet these standards or not, and their level of current success. It might also be interesting to see what competencies a sales manager believes they should have and if these are compliant with the findings of this research.

5.3 Recommendations

Following on the conclusions recommendations for multinationals operation in the Benelux can be made.

The first recommendation is to draw up new competency profiles for sales managers in the Benelux with credits for cultural influences. As the results proof the different cultural aspects have significant influence on the success of a sales manager. It would therefore be even better not only to have different profiles per country, but also to take into account the differences between Walloon and Flanders.

The second recommendation is to secure the European HR system currently present at Johnson & Johnson Medical in the Benelux. Influences from the US are already perceptible, which is not directly wrong, but should not become more deviant. As a multinational it is important to listen to local employees and implement a HR system that fits with the culture. The differences in culture between Belgium and the Netherlands show people have different needs and wishes regarding work environment.

The third recommendation is for managers and sales managers to have a discussion on their team members. Are they individuals or are the working as teams? This in an important aspect for sales managers to coach on; this discussion is ground for what they have to coach on. Individuals should be coached differently than groups or teams.

The fourth recommendation is about scheduling, prioritizing and goal setting. Product specialists were not conclusive on this matter, although their seem to be two extremes. The sales manager is not yet heard in this discussion, these opinions should be collected first before further conclusions are made.

Onwards a decision should be made on which policy to apply:

- A policy in which product specialists are able to set goals, prioritize on hospitals and schedule. The key in this policy is the trust sales managers and higher management levels have in their first line employees. All product specialists are recruited professionals with a high level of skills, and should therefore given freedom to set goals, prioritize and schedule within the boundaries of the plans set by the divisions.
- A policy in which sales managers are the ones setting priorities and goals, making sure the product specialists follow their plans and schedules. Product specialists perform the actions specified by sales managers and their management, within the boundaries of the plans set by the divisions.

Observations during interviews, co-travelling and desk research learned the average product specialists is a highly skilled professional with good education. Choosing the second option restricts the freedom to act in ways the product specialist feels is best in a certain situation, rules will probably be bended more often. For continuation of the successes Johnson & Johnson has, the first policy would be best to choose and should be applied in all divisions.

The fifth recommendation is regarding divisions and management. Every manager has personal favours in management style, each deriving from experiences in the past and also cultural influences. These influences are present in current evaluations and policies on sales managers, and thus product specialists. The division directors and their direct reports should practice one policy regarding HRM.

6. References

6.1 Literature

- Attia, A.M., Earl D. Honeycutt Jr., & M. Asri Jantan (2008). Global sales training: In search of antecedent, mediating, and consequence variables. *Industrial Marketing Management* 37, 181–190
- Ball, D.A., McCulloch, W.H., Frantz, P.L., & Minor, M.S. (2006). *International business – the challenge of global competition*, McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P., Quinn-Mills, D., & Walton, R. (1984). *Managing human assets: The groundbreaking*, Harvard business school program. New York, The Free Press.
- Boselie, P. and Paauwe, J. (2004). *Human resource function competencies in European companies*, Research in Management. Erasmus Research Institute of Management
- Bournois, F. & Brewster, C. (1991). *Human Resource Management : a European perspective*, Personnel review, Vol. 20, issue 6, p. 4-13.
- Bournois, F. (1994). *The human resources function and its roles in Europe during the 90's*, Centre National de la Recherche scientifique, Lyon (France).
- Brewster, C & Hegewisch, A. (1994). *Policy and practice in European human resource management. The evidence and analysis from the Price Waterhouse Cranfield survey*. London: Routledge.
- Brewster, C. (1995). *Towards a 'European' model of human resource management*, Journal of international business studies, vol. 26, issue 1, pp.1-21.
- Brewster, C. and Holt Larsen, H. (1992). *Human resource Management in Europe: evidence from ten countries*, the international journal of human resource management 3:3, December 1992.
- Brewster, C., Sparrow, P. and Harris, H. (2005). *Towards a new model of globalizing HRM*, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 16, pp. 949-970.
- Budhwar, P.S. and Sparrow, P.R. (2002). *An integrative framework for understanding cross-national human resource management practice*, Human Resource Management Review, Vol. 12, pp. 377-403.
- Cascio, W.F. (2003). *Changes in workers, work and organizations*. In W.C. Borman & D.R. Ilgen (Eds) *Handbook of psychology: Industrial and organizational psychology*, 12, 401-422.
- Clark, T. and Pugh, D. (2000). Similarities and differences in European conceptions of human resource management –Toward a polycentric study , *International studies of management & organizations*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 84-100.
- Claus, L. (2003). *Similarities and differences in human resource management in the European Union*, Thunderbird international business review, vol. 45(6), pp. 729-755.

- Conrad, P. & Pieper, R. (1990). *Human resource management: an international comparison*, Walter de Gruyter.
- Drucker, P.F. (1989). *The new realities: In government and politics, in economics and business, in society and world view*, Harper & Row, New York
- Erik Jones - Johns Hopkins Bologna Center - a draft chapter prepared for Simon Bulmer and Christian Lequesne, eds. *Member States and the European Union Oxford: Oxford University Press (forthcoming) May 2003*
- Evans, P., Doz, Y. & Laurent, A. (1990) *Human Resource Management in International Firms - Change, Globalization, Innovation*. Houndmills u.a.
- Gaugler, E. (1988). *HR management: an International comparison*, Personnel
- Guest, David. 1990. *Human resource management and the American dream*. Journal of Management Studies, 27(4):377-97.
- Hampden-Turner, C. and Trompenaars, F. (2000). *Building cross-cultural competencies – how to create wealth from conflicting values*, Yale University Press, New Haven & London
- Hendry, C. & Pettigrew, A. (1990). *HRM: an agenda for the 1990s*, International journal of human resource management, Vol. 1, Issue 1, p 17-25.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). *The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories*, Journal of international business studies, vol. 14, no. 2, special issues of cross-cultural management (autumn 1983), pp. 75-89.
- Hofstede, G. (1986). *Cultural differences in teaching and learning*, International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Vol. 10, pp. 301-320.
- Hofstede, G. (1993). Management briefing of ‘*cultural constraints in management theories*’, Academy of management executive, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 81-93.
- Hofstede, G. (2002). *Images of Europe: past, present and future*, in Warner, M. and Joynt, P. (2002). *Managing across cultures – issues and perspectives*, Thomson, second edition, pp. 89-102.
- Hofstede, G. and Hofstede, G.J. (1991). *Allemaal anders denkenden – omgaan met cultuurverschillen*, Uitgeverij Contact Amsterdam/Antwerpen, 24e druk, augustus 2007.
- Jaffee, D. (2001). *Organization theory*, McGraw-Hill Education - Europe
- Lane, C. (1989). *Management and labour in Europe*, Aldershot: Edward Elgar.
- Langbert, M. & Friedman, H. (2002). *Continuous improvement in the history of human resource management*, Management Decision, vol. 40, issue 8, page 782 – 787.

- Legge, K. (1989). *Human resource management: a critical analysis*, in J. Storey (editor), *New perspectives in Human Resource Management*, Routledge Londen, 1989.
- Luthans, F., Marsnik, P.A. & Luthans, K.W. (2001). *A contingency matrix approach to IHRM*, in: Albrecht, M.H., *International HRM: managing diversity in the workplace*, Wiley-Blackwell.
- McSweeney, B. (2002). *Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: a triumph of faith – a failure of analysis*, *Human Relations*, vol. 55, pp. 89-118.
- Mintzberg, H. (2004). *Managers not MBAs: a hard look at the soft practice of managing and management development*, Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc., San Francisco.
- Pudelko, M. (2006). *A comparison of HRM systems in the USA, Japan and Germany in their socio-economic context*, *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol 16., no 2, pages 123-153.
- Pugh, D.S. and Hickson, D.J. (2002). *On organizational convergence*, in Warner, M. and Joynt, P. (2002). *Managing across cultures – issues and perspectives'*, Thomson, second edition, pp. 7-12.
- Rosenzweig, P.M. and Nohria, N. (1994). *Influences on human resource management practices in multinational corporations*, *journal of international business studies*, vol. 25, issue 2, pp. 229-251.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research methods for business students*, Prentice Hall, Pearson Education, 4th edition.
- Sels, L. and van Hootegem, G. (). *Flexibiliteit van de arbeid – een vergelijking 'België - Nederland'*
- Sparrow, PR and Hiltrop, J (1994) *European Human Resource Management in Transition*. Prentice Hall, London.
- Sparrow, R.S. and Hiltrop, J.M. (1997). *Redefining the field of European Human Resource Management: a battle between national mindsets and forces of business transition?* *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 201-219.
- Uit Gooderham, P. N. and Norhaug, O. (2003) *International Management: cross-boundary challenges*, Blackwell Publishing Ltd:
- Warner, M. and Joynt, P. (2002). *Managing across cultures – issues and perspectives'*, Thomson, second edition.
- Yin, R.K. (1987). *Case study research: design and methods (Sixth ed)*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

6.1.1 Secundair

Fortune 500 – *the Secrets of Succes* (22 april 2009)

Johnson & Johnson – *Annual Report 2008*

Johnson & Johnson – *diverse information on HR and company profile/organization*

Johnson & Johnson – *Sales Manager job profile* (2009)

Thomas International – *PPA Analysis (DISC test)*

6.2 Interviews

██████████ – Product specialist DePuy JTE (23-11-2009)

██████████ – Sales Manager DePuy JTE (23-09-2009)

██████████ – HR Director Benelux (several data in 2009)

██████████ – Franchise Director DePuy Benelux (28-07-2009)

██████████ – Sales Force Effectiveness Manager Benelux (21-07-2009)

██████████ – Franchise Director EthiconEndoSurgery Benelux (14-12-2009)

██████████ – Sales Director Benelux (14-12-2009)

██████████ – Sales Director DePuy Benelux (16-12-2009)

██████████ – HR Advisor DePuy Benelux (several data in 2009)

7. Figures and tables

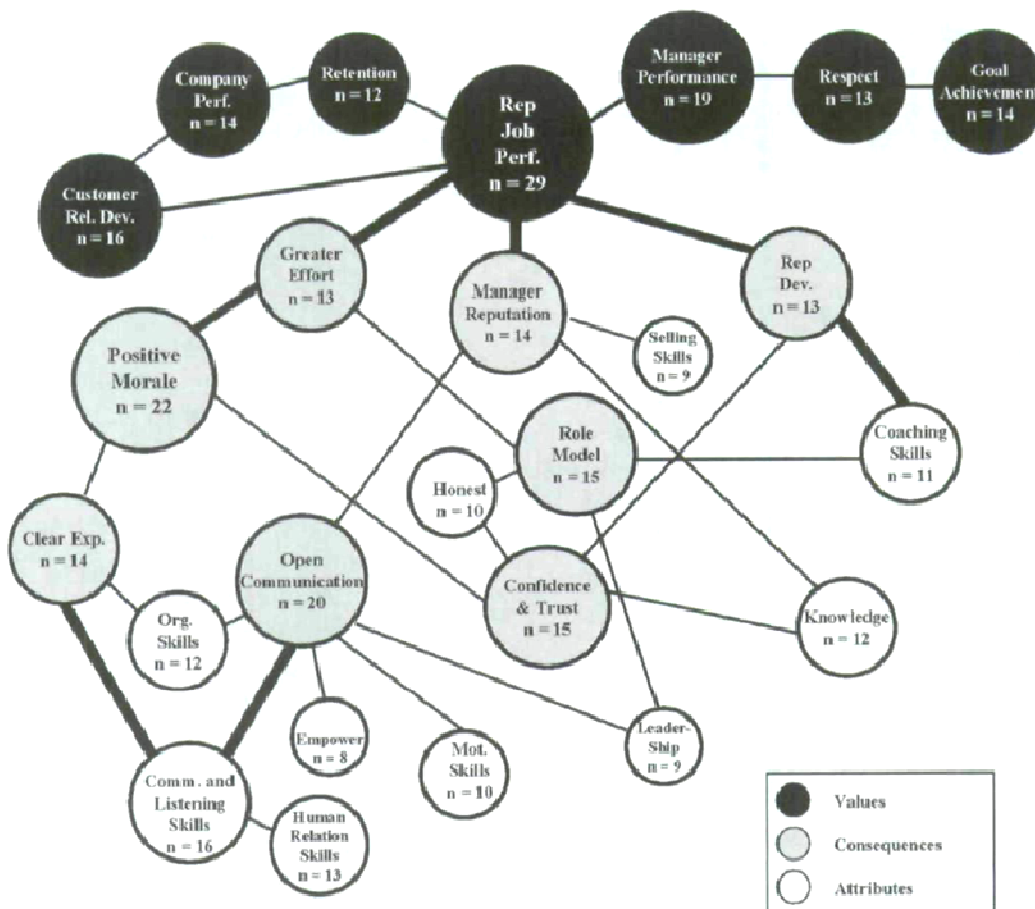


Figure 15: Sales Manager Effectiveness Value Map: Sales Manager Perspective (Deeter-Schmelz et al; 2008)

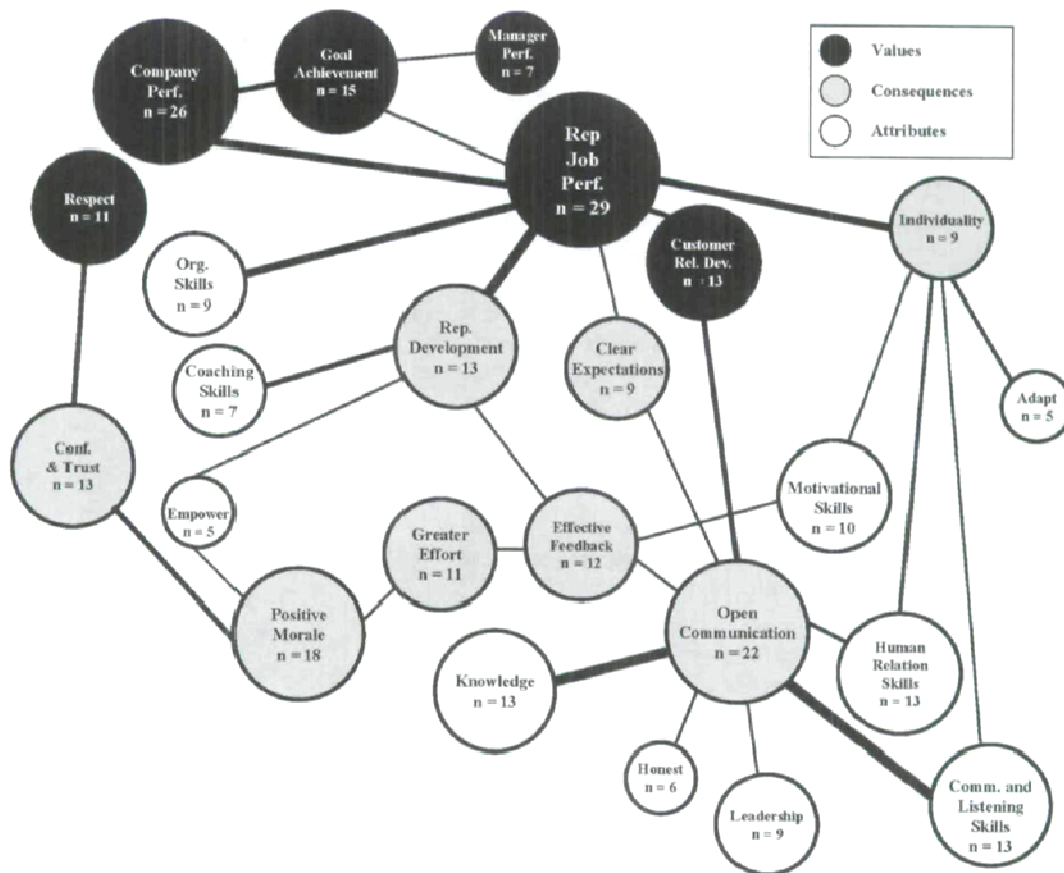


Figure 16: Sales Manager Effectiveness Value Map: Sales Representatives Perspective (Deeter-Schmelz et al; 2008)

Table 1: General management competencies

Personal competencies

1. Managing self, internally (reflection, strategic thinking)
2. Managing self, externally (time, information, stress, career)

Interpersonal competencies

1. Leading individuals (selecting, teaching/mentoring/coaching, inspiring, dealing with experts)
2. Leading groups (team building, resolving conflicts/mediating, facilitating processes, running meetings)
3. Leading the organization/unit (organization, merging, building culture, managing change)
4. Linking the organization/unit (networking, representing, collaborating, promoting/lobbying, negotiating/dealing, politicking, protecting/buffering)

Informational competencies

1. Communicating verbally (listening, interviewing, speaking/presenting/briefing, writing, information gathering, information disseminating)
2. Communicating nonverbally (seeing (visual literacy), sensing (visceral literacy))
3. Analyzing (data processing, modeling, measuring, evaluating)

Actional competencies

1. Scheduling (chunking, prioritizing, agenda setting, juggling, timing)
2. Administering (resource allocating, delegating, authorizing, systematizing, goal setting, performance appraising)
3. Designing (planning, crafting, visioning)
4. Mobilizing (firefighting, project managing)

Group Statistics				
	country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Dopřídavná	Relativní	23	2,9988	,73306
	Absolutní	11	2,7273	,50566
Obecné charakteristika	Relativní	23	3,3783	,40676
	Absolutní	11	2,7845	,67191
Manažerské kompetence	Relativní	23	3,3783	1,04886
	Absolutní	11	2,7509	,53619
Společenské HPM	Relativní	23	2,8886	,62902
	Absolutní	11	2,6818	,67167
HRM manažerů	Relativní	23	2,8948	,44264
	Absolutní	11	2,3743	,42561

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Dopřídavná	Relativní (Absolutní)	726	,297	,993	32	,358	,22926	,24882	-27146	72996
	Absolutní (Relativní)									
Obecné charakteristika	Relativní (Absolutní)	7,926	,006	1,888	32	,122	,37154	,23384	-10460	64906
	Absolutní (Relativní)									
Manažerské kompetence	Relativní (Absolutní)	7,740	,006	,970	32	,339	,32699	,39829	-36662	1,81199
	Absolutní (Relativní)									
Společenské HPM	Relativní (Absolutní)	490	,489	,709	32	,432	,18778	,23896	-29717	67267
	Absolutní (Relativní)									
HRM manažerů	Relativní (Absolutní)	216	,346	1,837	32	,082	,29957	,16979	-63666	61508
	Absolutní (Relativní)									

Table 2: Independent Samples Test - HR System Groups versus Country

		country	Personal_comp	Interpersonal_co mp	Informational_co mp	Actional_comp
country	Pearson Correlation	1,000	,153	,330*	,182	,244
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,353	,040	,268	,135
	N	39,000	39	39	39	39
Personal_comp	Pearson Correlation	,153	1,000	,208	,381*	,214
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,353		,205	,017	,192
	N	39	39,000	39	39	39
Interpersonal_comp	Pearson Correlation	,330*	,208	1,000	,161	,400*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,040	,205		,327	,012
	N	39	39	39,000	39	39
Informational_comp	Pearson Correlation	,182	,381*	,161	1,000	,313
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,268	,017	,327		,052
	N	39	39	39	39,000	39
Actional_comp	Pearson Correlation	,244	,214	,400*	,313	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,135	,192	,012	,052	
	N	39	39	39	39	39,000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3: Correlations competencies

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		Test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Personal_comp	Equal variances assumed	,009	,923	-,295	22	,770	-,11345	,38409	-,91000	,68311
	Equal variances not assumed			-,332	14,812	,744	-,11345	,34150	-,84234	,61545
Interpersonal_comp	Equal variances assumed	1,923	,170	-,2195	22	,839	-,32143	14644	-,82513	-,01773
	Equal variances not assumed			-,1704	7,426	,130	-,32143	18658	-,76222	11937
Informational_comp	Equal variances assumed	,040	,844	,153	22	,880	,03641	23662	-,45846	,53128
	Equal variances not assumed			,158	12,200	,877	,03641	22094	-,46368	,53651
Actional_comp	Equal variances assumed	,366	,551	-,2016	22	,056	-,32563	16154	-,66065	,00939
	Equal variances not assumed			-,2179	13,435	,048	-,32563	14943	-,64740	-,00386

Table 4: Independent sample test, Wallonia and Flanders

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-Test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Personal_comp	Equal variances assumed	.387	.538	.897	28	.378	.24370	.27298	-.31467	.80203
	Equal variances not assumed			.841	25.807	.398	.24370	.25905	-.28852	.77632
Interpersonal_comp	Equal variances assumed	2.728	.109	-3.841	28	.001	-.28571	.07438	-.42786	-.13357
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.068	25.282	.000	-.28571	.07037	-.43058	-.14087
Informational_comp	Equal variances assumed	.321	.575	-.840	28	.408	-.15406	.18330	-.52896	.22083
	Equal variances not assumed			-.884	26.961	.400	-.15406	.18035	-.52293	.21481
Actional_comp	Equal variances assumed	.800	.378	-1.893	28	.068	-.27206	.14378	-.56607	.02195
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.870	26.285	.073	-.27206	.14552	-.57103	.02691

Table 5: Independent sample test, Netherlands and Flanders

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-Test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Personal_comp	Equal variances assumed	.380	.545	-1.340	19	.193	-.35714	.26474	-.91124	.19806
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.215	9.377	.254	-.35714	.29406	-1.01831	.30402
Interpersonal_comp	Equal variances assumed	5.025	.025	-.268	19	.791	-.03571	.13313	-.31435	.24202
	Equal variances not assumed			-.196	6.485	.851	-.02571	.18211	-.47320	.40184
Informational_comp	Equal variances assumed	.076	.785	.870	19	.395	.10048	.21004	-.26797	.84893
	Equal variances not assumed			.846	11.272	.415	.10048	.22517	-.30366	.88461
Actional_comp	Equal variances assumed	1.964	.177	-.295	19	.772	-.05357	.18188	-.43424	.32710
	Equal variances not assumed			-.327	15.890	.748	-.05357	.16404	-.40151	.29437

Table 6: Independent sample test, Netherlands and Wallonia

Appendix A – Questionnaire product specialists

Survey Johnson & Johnson

The goal of this study is to develop the profile for the ‘ideal’ sales manager, composed by both product specialist and the managers of the sales manager. With the information gathered Johnson & Johnson can adjust the sales manager profile, in order to increase motivation, communication and efficiency. All survey questions are therefore addressed to the product specialist, and ask for your perceptions on the ideal sales manager; the manager you’d like to have in your current job.

The survey should take less than 15 minutes to complete. There are no known or anticipated risks to participation in this study. Participation is voluntary and confidential. No one at your organization, other than the researcher, will have access to the data. The data will be summarized and no individual responses will be identified for reporting purposes. The data collected will be maintained on a password-protected computer database for two years.

This study is being conducted by Annemiek Harremeijer under the supervision of University of Twente. If you have any questions about this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please feel free to contact me +31614445222. In the event you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please contact one of the previously mentioned researchers.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Annemiek Harremeijer

1) What is your gender?
Female
Male

What is your region?
Belgium – North
Belgium – South
Luxembourg
Netherlands – North
Netherlands – South

What is your franchise?
DePuy
Ethicon
Ethicon Endo

For how long are you working as a product specialist?
< 2 years
2 – 5 years
> 5 years

2) In what component(s) of your job as a product specialist, do you wish sales manager participation/support?

1

2

3

In what components of your job as a product specialist, do you NOT wish sales manager intervention?

1

2

3

What do you consider the most important characteristics or skills of a sales manager?

1

2

3

Section introduction

The following questions are addressed to sales managers' competencies. I'd like you to think of your "ideal" sales manager when answering these questions; what competencies would this perfect sales manager have according to you?

Statement: Managing oneself, internally (self reflection) is an important competency.

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Managing self, externally (time, information, stress, career) is an important competency

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Leading individuals (selecting, teaching/mentoring/coaching, inspiring, dealing with experts) is an important competency.

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Leading groups (team building, resolving conflicts/mediating, facilitating processes, running meetings) is an important competency.

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Leading the organization/unit (organization, merging, building culture, manage change) is an important competency.

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Linking the organization/unit (networking, representing, collaborating, promoting/lobbying, negotiating/dealing, politicking, protecting/buffering) is an important competency.

Strongly agree, agree, agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree

Statement: Communicating verbally (listening, interviewing, speaking/presenting/briefing, writing, information gathering, information disseminating) is an important competency.

Please rank these Informational Competencies - Communicating verbally	
listening	writing
interviewing	information gathering
speaking/presenting/briefing	information disseminating

Please rank these Informational Competencies - Communicating nonverbally	
seeing (visual literacy)	sensing (visceral literacy)

Please rank these Informational Competencies - Analyzing	
data processing	measuring
modeling	evaluating

Please rank these Actional competencies - Scheduling	
chunking	juggling
prioritizing	timing
agenda setting	

Please rank these Actional competencies - Administering	
resource allocating	systematizing
delegating	goal setting
authorizing	performance appraising

Please rank these Actional competencies - Designing	
Planning	Visioning
Crafting	

Section introduction

The following questions are to determine company characteristics and system. Please answer in regard of as you feel J&J is acting.

<p>Please choose one of the options considering these statements:</p> <p>A) Core values: individuality, self-assertion, enforcing own interests, little importance of collectives for individual preferences</p> <p>B) Core values: group orientation, consensus, cooperation, precedence of collective entities (working group, company, nation)</p>
<p>Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B</p>

<p>6) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:</p> <p>A) A relatively heterogeneous value system in society renders it impossible to define collective commonalities as a basis for society; in contrast, the common ground lies in the respect for each individual, regardless of his/her value position, personal philosophy, religion, origin and race.</p> <p>B) A rather homogeneous value system in society allows collective commonalities to be regarded as the basis for society</p>
<p>Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B</p>

<p>7) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:</p> <p>A) High importance of the notion of freedom and liberty: precondition for a free-market economy and a society often characterized as socio-Darwinistic</p>
--

B) Emphasis on the limitation of individual freedom and liberty because of the individual's embeddedness in society: precondition for a government-guided market economy or social market economy

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

8) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Social relations are based on the conciliation of opposite interests and the negotiation of individual rights and duties according to fair procedural rules.

B) Social relations are based on harmony, consensus and compromise.

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

9) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Most important company objective: maximisation of shareholder value.

B) Most important company objective: to secure the survival, independence and long-term growth of the company to the benefit of all those involved with the company (stakeholders)

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

10) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Focus on the 'hard S' of McKinsey's 7S-concept: strategy, structure, systems.

B) Focus on the 'soft S' of McKinsey's 7S-concept: staff, style, skill, superordinate goals.

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

11) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Uni-dimensional orientation towards financial objectives: maximisation of cash flow, return on investment, profit and share price.

B) Multidimensional orientation towards a bundle of performance, financial and social objectives.

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

12) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) The importance of management manoeuvres, breakthrough innovations and the (few) people involved with them is the reason for the selective weighting of human resources (few specialists of high importance, rest of the employees of less importance).

B) The importance of the entire production process, incremental innovations and all those involved in them (the entire workforce) is the reason for the importance of all human resources (from the manager to the worker).

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

13) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Centralisation of decision-making with the top management level, in particular with the CEO (proactive role); aligned to quick direction changes

B) Task of the top management is to mediate between the various decision proposals of the middle and upper management (reactive role); aligned to status quo conserving decisions; direction changes occur only reluctantly

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

14) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Members of the board as function specialists are strongly rooted in departmental thinking.

B) Members of the board are aligned to cross-departmental thinking due to repeated change of

function.

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

15) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) High degree of individual responsibility at the top management level; promotes quick and flexible decisions, but also increases the risk of wrong decisions

B) Smaller degree of individual responsibility at the top management level; promotes stability in the company, but also half-hearted compromises

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

16) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Company has a pyramid structure

B) Company has a network-like structure

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

17) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Low conceptual importance of HRM for the definition of the corporate strategy

B) High conceptual importance of HRM for the definition of the corporate strategy

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

18) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Low importance of HRM in relation to other operational functions

B) High importance of HRM in relation to other operational functions

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

19) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Low importance of the HR department vs line management with regard to HR decisions

B) High importance of the HR department vs line management with regard to HR decisions

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

20) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) High strategic relevance of HR management is asserted, but the importance of the human resources themselves is actually subordinated

B) High importance of human resources, with without stress of its strategic meaning

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

21) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Recruitment and release of Personnel: Finding the best qualified person for a specific job (job-oriented), high labour turnover

B) Finding the person who fits best for the company (people-oriented), lifelong employment

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

22) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Training and development : Training focused on specific, limited knowledge for individuals for narrowly defined tasks (specialist training)

B) Widespread, extensive and group-oriented training for broadly defined tasks (generalist training)

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

23) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Employee assessment and promotion criteria: Individual achievements and quantifiable criteria of importance (results oriented), specialist career path

B) Seniority and contribution to collective achievements of importance (behavior-oriented), generalist career path

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

24) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Employee incentives: Primarily material incentives, pay based on individual achievements, significant pay differences

B) Material and immaterial incentives, pay based on seniority, small pay differences

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

25) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Communication within the company: Primarily vertical, structured and efficient

B) Primarily horizontal, unstructured and extensive

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

26) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Decision making within the company: Top-down, authoritative, individual, confrontational and based on hard facts

B) Bottom-up, participative, collective, consensus-oriented and based on soft facts

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

27) Please choose one of the options considering these statements:

A) Superior–subordinate relationship: Specific, task-oriented, based on regulations

B) Holistic, person-oriented, based on common values

Strongly agree with A, agree with A, A nor B, Agree with B, Strongly agree with B

Appendix B – Questionnaire Managers

(interviews in Dutch)

Dit interview draait om het vaststellen van het ideale sales manager profiel. Het is daarbij belangrijk om niet de huidige populatie sales managers in gedachten te houden, maar puur te kijken naar de eigenschappen/competenties die we graag zien in de toekomstige generatie sales manager.

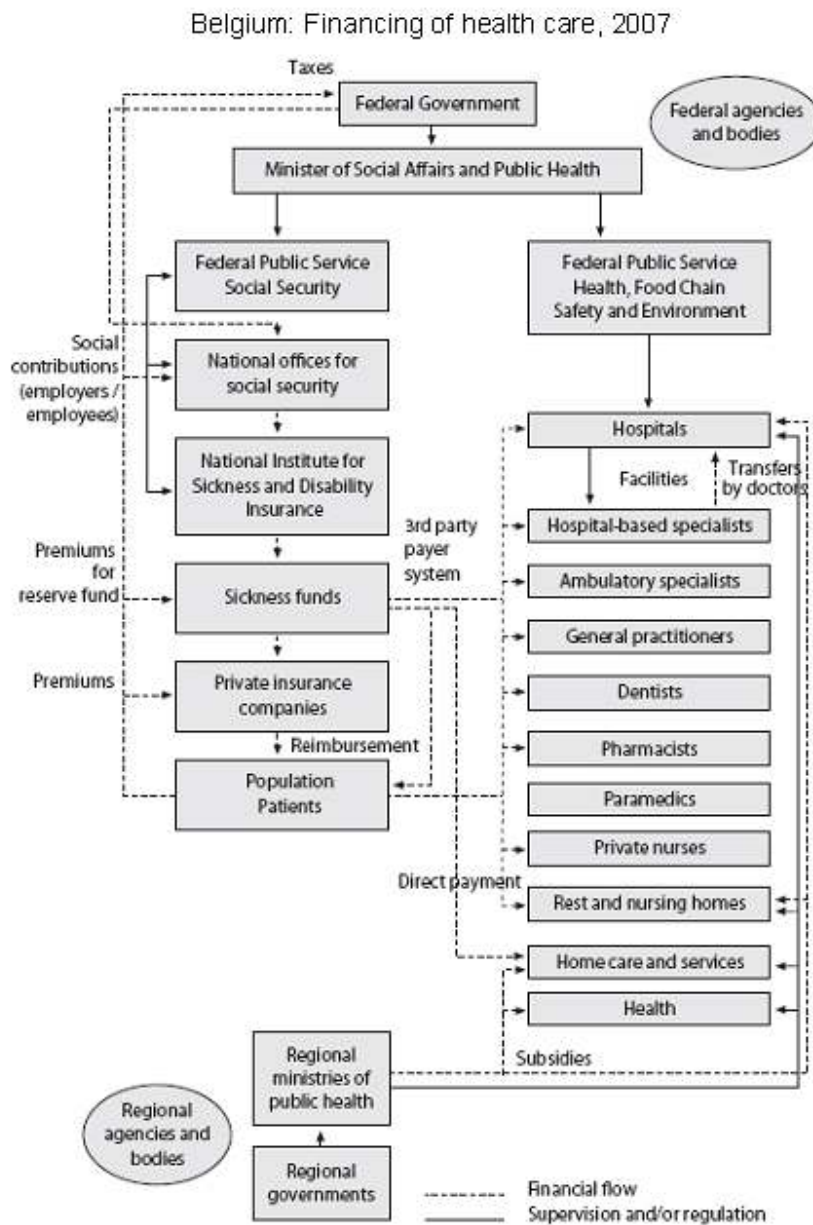
1. Kun je voor mij jouw ideale sales manager beschrijven?
 - a. Welke eigenschappen zou hij/zij hebben ten opzichte van jouw positie?
 - b. En welke eigenschappen ten opzichte van de product specialisten?
 - c. Wat is het ideale DISC-profiel van een sales manager?
2. Wat zijn de 3 belangrijkste eigenschappen van een sales manager? Waarom deze eigenschappen?
3. Wat zijn 3 eigenschappen die een sales manager absoluut niet zou moeten bezitten? Waarom deze eigenschappen?
4. Zijn er verschillen zijn tussen de sales managers in Nederland en België?
 - a. Waar komt dat door?
 - b. Is dit verschil cruciaal voor de positie?
5. Hoe belangrijk zijn de volgende competenties? [pag 2: competenties Mintzberg]
6. Zou je hier nog competenties aan toe willen voegen?
7. Is jouw verwachting dat de ideale sales manager bestaat?
8. Zijn er nog dingen die ik niet heb gevraagd, maar volgens jou wel belangrijk zijn voor mijn onderzoek?

Appendix C – Example DISC



Appendix D – Health Care Systems

Health care system Belgium



Source: Corens D. *Health system review: Belgium*. Health Systems in Transition, 2007; 9(2): 1–172.

Source: <http://www.ecosante.org/ocde.htm>

Appendix E – Cultural characteristics of France

For usage in the merging of J&J Medical Benelux and J&J Medical France into J&J Medical Fraben

Country	Power Distance	Individualism/ collectivism	Masculinity/ femininity	Uncertainty avoidance	Long- /short- term orientation
Netherlands	38	80	14	53	44
Belgium	65	75	54	94	38
<i>Flanders</i>	61	78	43	97	
<i>Wallonia</i>	67	72	60	93	
Luxemburg	40	60	50	70	
France	68	71	43	86	

Uncertainty Avoidance Index

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) is a cultural dimension that scores the degree to which people feel threatened by ambiguity. Countries with high UAI scores create beliefs and institutions that safeguard their high need for security. France's UAI score is 86,34% higher than the world UAI average. The French strongly resist changes to their traditional beliefs and institutions.

In 1992, Disney opened Euro Disneyland park in Marne-la-Vallee 20 miles east of Paris on what was previously French farmland best known for producing sugar beets and Brie cheese. Euro Disneyland was designed to mirror the American Disney theme parks back in California and Florida with very few concessions to French culture. French people found this highly ambiguous, and only 29% of visitors to Euro Disneyland in its first year were from France. If the French want a U.S.-style Disneyland experience, they will go to Disney parks in America.

Individualism Score

Individualism is the cultural dimension that measures to what extent people to look after themselves and their immediate family members only. France's score of 71 is high, 65% more than the world average.

American executives at Disney imposed a strict dress code at Euro Disneyland that required extremely short hair and banned beards and moustaches. Disney's dress code was based on Walt Disney's highly individualized, squeaky clean American family values. By imposing the Walt Disney appearance code, the Americans insulted French family traditions. Many of the highly individualistic French refused to work at Euro Disneyland, including a 28-year-old Parisian trumpet player who insisted on keeping his pony tail hairstyle rather than join the closely cropped Disney brass band.

Power Distance Index

Hofstede's Power Distance Index (PDI) measures the extent to which less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept unequal distribution of power.

France scores 68 points on the PDI, 24% higher than the world average. Higher power distance societies are more centralized with tall, hierarchal organization structure featuring a high proportion of supervisors who give orders at the lower levels. The French were confused when Disney appointed mostly American-born managers into the front-line supervisory positions at Euro Disneyland - many of whom were not fluent in the French language.

Masculinity Score

A high masculine society places greater value on success, money and material possessions. A country with a lower masculinity score places more emphasis on caring for others and quality of life. France has a relative low masculinity score of 43 which is 14% below the world average.

Clearly, French culture was not a priority for Disney during the first year of Euro Disney. Back in America, Disney CEO Michael Eisner expressed America's overriding focus on monetary success when he said "What we created in France is the biggest private investment in a foreign country by an American company ever. And it's going to pay off."

Yet in its first six months of operation to September 1992, Euro Disneyland had lost over US\$34 million. Like the other cultural dimensions in this analysis, Disney executives should have adapted to France's need for low masculinity values like cooperation, friendly atmosphere, group decision making, more employee freedoms and environmental conservation.

Conclusion