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ਪੰਜਾਬ ਸਟੇਟ ਓਪਨ ਯੂਨੀਵਰਸਿਟੀ
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**The Motto of Our University
(SEWA)**

SKILL ENHANCEMENT

EMPLOYABILITY

WISDOM

ACCESSIBILITY

**JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV
PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY, PATIALA**

(Established by Act No. 19 of 2019 of the Legislature of State of Punjab)

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE

SEMESTER V

THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

Head Quarter: C/28, The Lower Mall, Patiala-147001

WEBSITE: www.psou.ac.in

SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL STUDY MATERIAL FOR JGND PSOU

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PREFACE

Jagat Guru Nanak Dev Punjab State Open University, Patiala was established in December 2019 by Act 19 of the Legislature of State of Punjab. It is the first and only Open University of the State, entrusted with the responsibility of making higher education accessible to all, especially to those sections of society who do not have the means, time or opportunity to pursue regular education.

In keeping with the nature of an Open University, this University provides a flexible education system to suit every need. The time given to complete a programme is double the duration of a regular mode programme. Well-designed study material has been prepared in consultation with experts in their respective fields.

The University offers programmes which have been designed to provide relevant, skill-based and employability-enhancing education. The study material provided in this booklet is self-instructional, with self-assessment exercises, and recommendations for further readings. The syllabus has been divided in sections, and provided as units for simplification.

The University has a network of 110 Learner Support Centres /Study Centres, to enable students to make use of reading facilities, and for curriculum-based counseling and practicals. We, at the University, welcome you to be a part of this institution of knowledge.

Prof. G.S. Batra
Dean Academic Affairs



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MAX.MARKS: 100

EXTERNAL: 70

INTERNAL: 30

PASS: 40%

CREDITS: 4

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CANDIDATES:

Candidates are required to attempt any two questions each from the sections A and B of the question paper and any ten short questions from Section C. They have to attempt questions only at one place and only once. Second or subsequent attempts, unless the earlier ones have been crossed out, shall not be evaluated.

Section A

1. Work place dissatisfaction: Sources and causes of work stress
2. Impact of stress on performance; Concept of Burn out.
3. Effective skills at workplace: Interpersonal Skills, decision making,
4. Leadership qualities, teamwork, Work-related values and attitudes.

Section B

5. Organizational communication skills: Johari Window; Transactional Analysis; Power of grapevine.
6. Mental strength and flexibility: Resilience; Optimism
7. Self-efficacy; Self- confidence.

Suggested Readings:

1. Cunha, M.P., Rego, A., Simpson, A. & Clegg, S. (2019). Positive Organizational Behaviour: A Reflective Approach. Routledge. Taylor and Francis Group.
2. Friedman, R. (2014). The Best Place to work: The Art and Science of Creating an

extraordinary workplace. Penguin Publishing group.

3. Ivtzan, I., Lomas, T., Hefferon, K., Worth, P. (2016). *Second Wave Positive Psychology: Embracing the Dark Side of Life*. Routledge.
4. Lomas, T., Hefferon, K., Ivtzan, I., (2014) *Applied Positive Psychology: Integrated Positive Practice*. SAGE Publications Ltd.
5. Shawn Achor. (2010). *The Happiness Advantage: The seven principles of positive psychology that fuel success and Performance at work*. New York. Crown Publishing Group.



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SECTION A

UNIT No.:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 1	WORKPLACE DISSATISFACTION
UNIT 2	IMPACT OF STRESS ON PERFORMANCE
UNIT 3	EFFECTIVE SKILLS AT WORKPLACE
UNIT 4	LEADERSHIP QUALITIES

SECTION B

UNIT No.:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 5	ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS
UNIT 6	MENTAL STRENGTH AND FLEXIBILITY
UNIT 7	SELF-EFFICACY; SELF- CONFIDENCE

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT-1: WORK PLACE DISSATISFACTION

STRUCTURE

1.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

**1.1 JOB/WORKPLACE SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION –
INTRODUCTION**

1.1.1 THE CONSEQUENCES OF JOB DISSATISFACTION

- a) **EXIT- VOICE- LOYALTY- NEGLECT- FRAMEWORK (FARRELL, 1983)**
- b) **MODEL OF JOB DISSATISFACTION (HENNE AND LOCKE, 1985)**

1.1.2 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION

- a) **HERZBERG THEORY**
- b) **LOCKE’S VALUE THEORY**
- c) **VROOM’S MODEL**

1.2 STRESS AT THE WORK PLACE

1.2.1 FACTORS AFFECTING EXPERIENCE OF STRESS AT WORKPLACE

- a) **INDIVIDUAL FACTORS**
- b) **GROUP FACTORS**

**1.2.2 SOURCES OF WORK STRESS (MODEL BY COOPER AND
MARSHALL, 1976)**

**1.2.3 CAUSES OF WORKPLACE STRESS THAT IMPACT EMPLOYEE
EXPERIENCE**

1.2.4 HOW TO REDUCE WORKPLACE DISSATISFACTION?

1.3 SUMMARY

1.4 KEYWORDS

1.5 SUGGESTED READINGS

1.6 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the nature of work place stress and its impact
- Evaluate the role of employee dissatisfaction on personal and organisational goals
- Explore mechanisms to manage workplace stress and dissatisfaction

1.1 JOB / WORKPLACE SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION – INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction, is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction has long been thought to have a significant effect on job performance and has also been strongly, positively correlated to organizational commitment (Brown and Peterson, 1993). On the other hand, workplace dissatisfaction is when an employee does not feel content with their work. This can be due to various professional and personal reasons such as lack of advancement, poor management, limited work-life balance, and more.

Working adults spend nearly 70% of their waking time on job-related tasks, hence it is understandable that the dynamics, tensions and strains of the workplace have been identified as a major contributor to adult physical and mental health. Today the workplace is evolving to what it has never been before. Rapid digitization is changing the nature of many jobs. Given the technological advances, employees are expected to be available 24x7 and stay connected to work much beyond the stipulated hours. In addition, with the availability of low-cost contract employees over the high-cost permanent workforce, the shadow of downsizing, job insecurity and being easily replaceable is looming large, forcing many individuals to take on more than they can deliver or handle. All of these aspects of modern- day jobs and workplaces are contributing to a “live to work” culture where stress and being busy is glorified; but which could precipitate into loss of work-life balance and even burnout.

Dissatisfaction with the workplace is relevant to every aspect of an organisation – be it employee, managers, clients and even the organizational climate and structure as a whole. Job dissatisfaction is defined as an unpleasant or cold and hostile climate within the workplace which can cause disengagement and decline in performance, neglect of assigned work, increased absenteeism and even lead to losses in the organisations turnovers.

1.1.1 The Consequences of Job Dissatisfaction

- a. The Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect (EVLN, 1970) was first developed by Hirschman and extended in 1982 by Rusbult, Gunn, and Zembrodt and Farrell in 1983. According to this model, employees' respond to dissatisfaction with the workplace along two dimensions: active vs. passive and constructive vs. destructive. This can take any of the four forms detailed below:



Fig 1: The Exit – Voice – Loyalty – Neglect Model (From Dowding and John,2012).

- **Exit.** It includes any attempt to distance one's self from a situation which is not satisfying. This could translate into moving to a different organisation or seeking a transfer to another department.
- **Voice.** This implies voicing your concerns and providing solutions to improve the circumstances. Sometimes filing a grievance for redressal or approaching a union for support can be taken as a constructive response to make your views known to the organisation.
- **Loyalty.** This implies passively waiting for the conditions to improve. This is where the

dissatisfied employee waits and hopes for improvement and trusts that the organisation will do the right thing in the interest of all stakeholders.

- **Neglect.** This includes decline in interest and effort. It is often seen in decline in quality of work produced, taking more leave, lack of discipline and punctuality. It could be ignoring or withdrawing from the happenings at the work place.
- b. Henne and Locke's (1985) model suggests that individuals respond emotionally to being dissatisfied or unhappy at the job. During this state of arousal, people will devise a substitute strategy based on the individual estimation of his/her own strengths and the situational variables. The alternative plan can be behavioural (action oriented) or psychological.

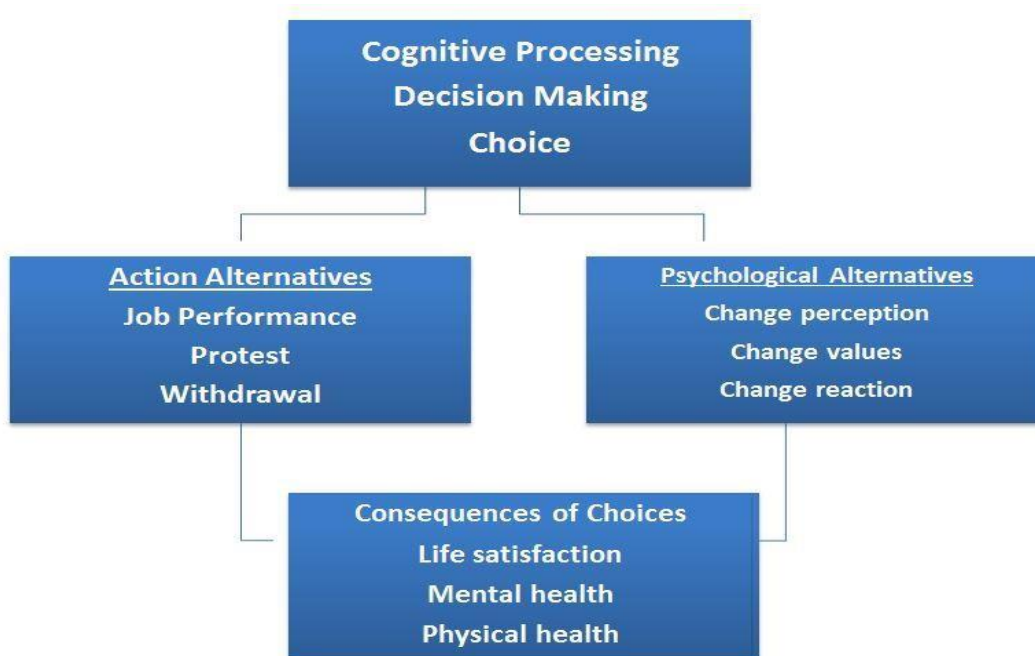


Fig 2. Model of Job Dissatisfaction (Henne and Locke, 1985)

1. Action Alternatives

- **Performance:** Individuals try to use divergent thought process to come up invent novel solutions to the various issues they face within an organisation.
- **Protest:** A person dissatisfied at the workplace can resort to protest. One form of protest is unionization. People tend to join unions for a number of reasons, including support if there is a problem at work or to improve pay and work conditions (Wadditgton and Whitston, 1997).
- **Withdrawal:** This could reflect in either non-attendance at work, neglect of assignments,

looking for alternative jobs/work and even ultimately leaving the job.

2. Psychological Alternatives

- **Change perception** – An individual can choose to focus on the positive aspects of their life and work and not concentrate so much mind space or energy towards the dissatisfying aspects of the workplace. E.g., At least I have a secure job, so what if my boss is being nasty.
- **Change values** – This is an application of Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory (1957). Inconsistency between organisational values and personal values can cause dissonance. So, people tend to reduce or eliminate the dissonance by introjecting or internalizing the conflicting values of the organisation to restore consonance and reduce psychological tension.
- **Change reaction** – These manifests as an avoidance reaction wherein a person who is discontented at work may evade those aspects of the job or simply push their discontentment under the carpet. It is a reaction where the individual refuses to face the situation.
- **Tolerance** – A person who is dissatisfied at work may rationalize that all other aspects of life are comfortable so they should not focus on the unpleasant work front, rather should tolerate it.

3. Consequences of Choices

- **Life Satisfaction** – The feelings and beliefs from one aspect of life tend to spill-over into other aspects of life. Work is a one such facet which can impact other facets of life e.g., family, child's education, home mortgage, medical treatment.
- **Mental Health** – Locke (1976) suggests that cumulative and chronic stresses, tensions, and strains at the workplace can contribute to mental health difficulties and even burnout.
- **Physical Health** – Research over the past decades has consistently demonstrated the impact of chronic stress on physical health. It can be seen in lifestyle problems like blood pressure, ulcers, acidity, heart disease amongst others.

1.1.2 Theories of Job Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction

- a. **Herzberg's theory:** Frederick Herzberg who is a forerunner in the field of organisational motivation, conducted research wherein he questioned personnel in various organisations as

to what contributed to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction at the work place. The two questions he asked in his research were:

- Think of a time when you felt especially good about your job. Why did you feel that way?
- Think of a time when you felt especially bad about your job. Why did you feel that way?

Based on the results of these interviews, Herzberg propounded the “Two Factor theory”. These two factors were identified as motivation and hygiene.

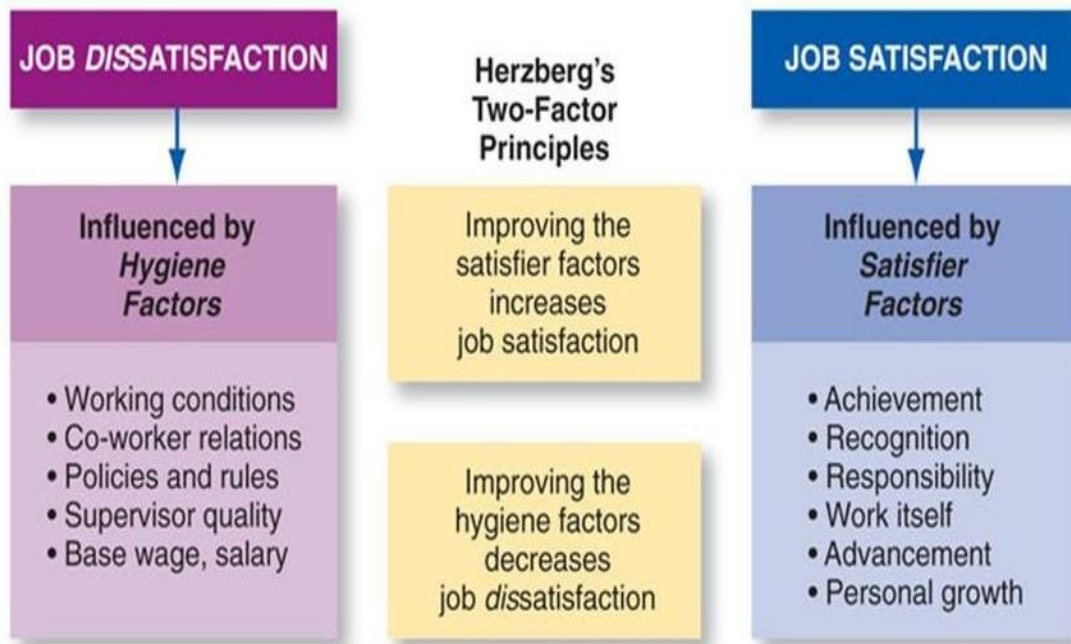


Fig 3. Herzberg Two Factor theory

According to the theory, Herzberg proposed that hygiene issues like working conditions, company policies, relationships with co-workers, quality of the superior and other such issues which are found in the work environment; will not contribute to job satisfaction. However, they are relevant to reducing dissatisfaction with work. For example, power cuts, poor relations with co-workers and those in superior positions, low wages, and lack of job security are potential factors for dissatisfaction and low engagement with work. These factors do not contribute to work place satisfaction. Motivators, such as opportunities for success, recognition of achievement, quality of the work, accountability and opportunities for promotions; have the potential to enhance satisfaction with the job as well as promote engagement. According to Herzberg, the organisation needs to address hygiene factors to alleviate frustration and discontent amongst employees and only then will motivators serve to promote occupational fulfilment which leads to positive outcomes for individuals and organisations.

- b. Locke's Value Theory:** Edwin A Locke (1969) proposed that job satisfaction occurs where the benefits received for a job match the expectations of the individual for that job. When an individual values what they receive, it leads to a sense of satisfaction. If the outcomes are not valued or desired, it leads to a sense of disappointment. The incongruity between wants or hopes from the job, and what one receives, accounts for discontentment amongst employees. Further, Locke stated that the value which an individual places on the work or a facet of work will moderate the satisfaction / dissatisfaction level when expectations are met / not met. This is particularly true for outcomes / benefits of high value (e.g salary, opportunity to grow).
- c. Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction:** This theory proposes that an employee believes that his/her effort will lead to acceptable performance, and on the basis of this performance, he/she will receive the desired benefit which further satisfy the individual goals.

Vroom (1982) generated a three- variable equation for scientifically determining job satisfaction –

Motivation = E x I x V

- **Expectancy (E)** – This is a measure of a person's confidence in being able to deliver the expected outcomes. Expectancy serves as a link between effort and performance on a task.
- **Instrumentality (I)** – It refers to the extent to which an individual believes that the organisation will deliver the promised benefits.
- **Valence (V)** - It is the value that a person attaches to the compensation / benefits that he/she receives. These benefits could be extrinsic (money, promotion, time off) or intrinsic (sense of achievement).

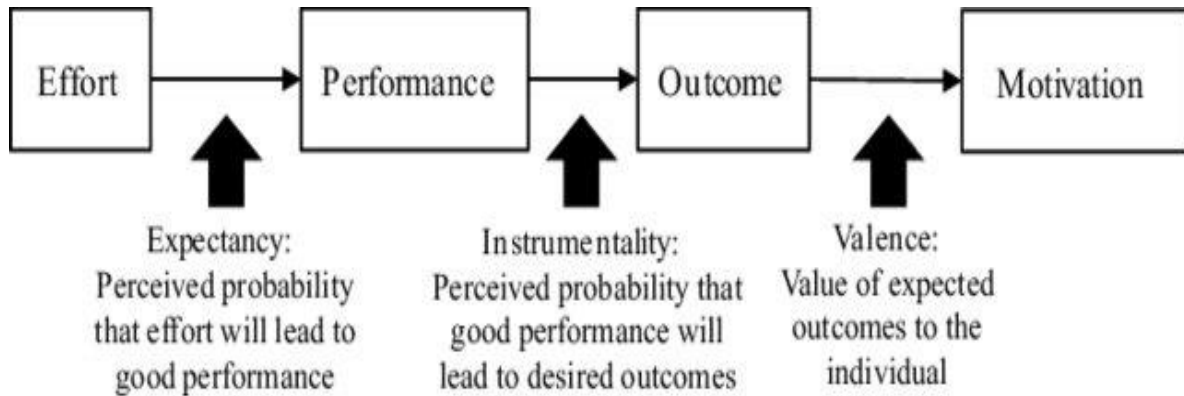


Fig 4: Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory

(Adapted from <http://faculty.css.edu/dswenson/web/OB/VIetheory.html>)

Vroom concluded that an employee's belief about expectance, instrumentality and valence, interact psychologically and hence create a motivational force. This serves to enhance pleasure and minimize pain.

d. Situational Theories: Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman (1992) proposed that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is a product of both situational characteristics and situational occurrences. The researchers concluded that a combination of situational characteristics and situational occurrences is a stronger predictor of overall job satisfaction than each aspect on its own.

Situational characteristics are those which are not in the immediate control of the employee but have the potential to constrain or facilitate satisfaction level e.g., salary and wages, conditions of work, perception about role, nature of supervision, growth opportunities, and company policies. Individuals tend to evaluate situational characteristics before they accept a job.

The situational occurrences are things that occur after taking a job that may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative. Positive occurrences might include extra vacation time for good performance, or placing a coffee machine in the common area; while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment, or tension related to colleague or supervisor.

1.2 STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

Within the work context, Ganster and Rosen (2013) labelled stress as “the process by which workplace psychological experiences and demands (stressors) produce both short term (strains) and long-term changes in mental and physical health”.

Occupational stress occurs as response to those aspects of the workplace environment which threaten the physical and / or psychological safety and security of a person.

According to Beehr and Newman (1978), “Job stress is a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning”.

Prolonged stress can lead to burnout which is defined as a “psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job”. Burnout ensues when an individual is unable to cope with the demands which are placed on him/her. Characteristic features of burnout include overtiredness, scepticism, loss of interest and detachment, being inept at work or relationships, and a personal lack of accomplishment (Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001).

1.2.1 FACTORS AFFECTING EXPERIENCE OF STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

a. Individual Factors: Three primary factors which determine the individual experience of stress/strain at work:

- **Perception:** Stress occurs when individuals perceive that they do not have resources to deal with some threat. This might include inadequate personnel of a task, time deadlines, financial support or lack of decision-making experience. Stress reactions are not whether you actually have the resources (ability, money, time) but whether you perceive that you don't, and hence feel pressured (Pham, Taylor, and Seemam, 2001).
- **Past Experience:** Familiarity with persons or situations serves as a resource to cope with a stressor. Having dealt with similar circumstances previously, some persons are able to deal with incumbent stressors in more competent fashion while those who have not dealt with such circumstances can experience stress and related psychological fall out.
- **Individual differences:** Individual differences in motivations, attitudes and abilities influence how they experience work stress. Self-esteem and locus of control are some of the personality traits related to stress. E.g., Certain aspects of Type A personality – anger, hostility and aggression are strongly related to stress reactions. Type B personalities, on the other hand, tend to be easier going and relaxed.

b. Group Factors: Factors within the work-group which determine the experience of stress for an individual include:

- **Lack of Group cohesiveness:** When an employee has strained or tense relationships with co-workers or supervisor within the team where a task is assigned, the resulting lack of cohesiveness can be detrimental to task completion, team motivation, and individual perseverance, leading to stress and anxiety.

- **Social Support:** The perception that other persons at the workplace are cooperative and their inputs can be sought if required and the general environment of the organisation is one where team work is valued, can boost a person’s confidence hence allowing that person to better cope with whatever challenges come along. Conversely, the presence of competing or cut-throat colleagues places the individual on tenterhooks and unease thus reducing their capacity to deal with trials of the work place.
- **Interpersonal and intergroup conflict:** A conflict arises when two (or more) people (or groups) perceive their values as being incompatible. Minor disputes or issues can flare up into conflicts if not resolved at the right time. Conflict can hinder communication and obstruct problem solving and has potential to provoke anger, fear, and distress.

1.2.2 Sources of Work Stress (Model by Cooper and Marshall, 1976)

Cooper and Marshall’s (1976) model of job stress has put forth five broad sources of stress which are relevant within an organization / workplace.

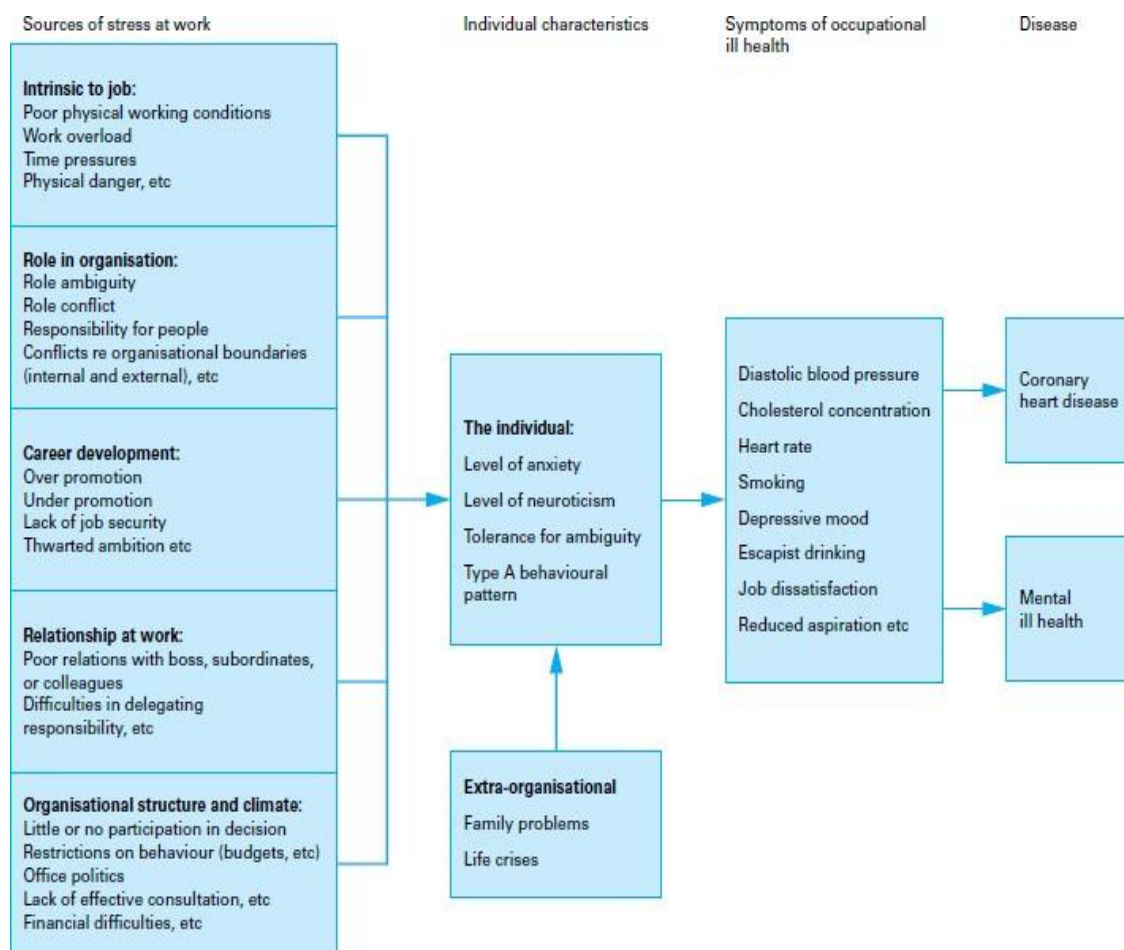


Fig 3: A model of stress at work (Cooper and Marshall, 1976)

- a. **Factors intrinsic to the job:** This includes those factors that increase the difficulty and complexity of the duties that workers or companies must perform. In addition, this category also describes the factors that make a workload too heavy for the employee to handle.
- b. **Role within the organization:** This factor reflects role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity arises when the duties and expectations placed on the employee are unclear. Role conflict occurs when there are conflicting demands placed on the employee.
- c. **Career development:** This includes variables concerned with opportunity for growth on the job e.g., advancement, job security and salary hike.
- d. **Relationships at work:** This factor describes the interpersonal interactions that occur between various stakeholders in the organisation, e.g., manager/supervisor, subordinate, colleagues, customers etc.
- e. **Structure of the organization:** This factor includes the company policies, degree of autonomy, decision making opportunities, work -life balance, politics within the organisation, communication patterns etc.

1.2.3 CAUSES OF WORKPLACE STRESS THAT IMPACT EMPLOYEE EXPERIENCE

- (a) **Workload:** In the fast-changing world today, task overload is much glorified and its fashionable to say “I have so much work, I am so busy”. However, chronic work overload without enough resources can exacerbate work stress as demands from the role exceed the capacity of an employee to meet all of them. Many stressful jobs may be described as perpetually being in a condition of role overload. Interestingly, having too little work may also create stress.
- (b) **Organisational stressors:** This includes administrative policies and strategies, Organisational structure and design, and Organisational processes. Organisations have changed dramatically in the past decade to meet environmental challenges like globalization, explosion of digitalization, diversity etc, hence creating a fluid and unstable situation on the work front where constant change can lead to stress.
- (c) **Working Conditions:** This includes stress inducing factors in the work environment like temperature, noise, lighting, pollution. Job performance deteriorates, sometimes markedly when environmental stressors (such a bad lighting, noises or unpleasant temperatures) are present. Further, the effects of these environmental stressors are cumulative over time and

they interact with other sources of stress.

- (d) **Role Conflict and Ambiguity:** Differing expectations of or demands on a person's role at work produce role conflict; i.e. When an individual is the target of conflicting demands or expectations from different groups of people. Role ambiguity describes the situation in which the employee is uncertain about assigned job duties and responsibilities. This ambiguity can be attributed to lack of skills or distorted communication.
- (e) **Career development:** Stressors related to growth within the workplace include increments, promotions, advancement, security of job, role diversity etc.
- (f) **Interpersonal relations in the organisation:** Interpersonal relationships at work, cohesive team, opportunities to engage in healthy interactions with seniors, juniors and peers at the work place are crucial to satisfaction with the work life and achievement of personal and organisational goals. When there is conflict, politics, and general lack of interaction or communication within an organisation, it can be a source of stress.
- (g) **Conflict between work and other roles:** Any individual plays a multitude of roles, and work is only one them. The various roles require us to juggle the responsibilities that come with the roles in terms of time and effort. Sometimes, competing, incompatible or conflicting role demands pull the individual in different directions and cause stress. E.g., An employee's needs to spend time with his children may conflict with the extra hours they must work at office to complete a project. So, the role demands as a family man and employee are in conflict.
- (h) **Extra-Organisational stressors:** Job stress is not limited to things that happen inside the organisation. Extra-Organisational stressors include things such as those occurring in the macrosystem e.g., the culture, state of economy, technological advancement, war or epidemics, even the pattern transitions over the life course including marriage, divorce, relocation.

1.2.4 How to Reduce Workplace Dissatisfaction?

Syptak, Marsland, and Ulmer (1999), organisations can attempt to improve satisfaction of the employees through various mechanisms. Few of the mechanisms are listed below:

- a. **Workplace Policies** – Employees report higher satisfaction when organisational policies are clearly stated and fairly implemented. When the management is transparent with the employees and ensures no bias on their part, there is a marked improvement in engagement

and attitude of the workers.

- b. Salary/Benefits** – It is important that the benefits which employees draw from their association with the organisation are at par with the efforts that they put into accomplishing the assigned tasks. Wages, salaries, compensation and perks are feedback to employees that their work is of value and hence these should be par with the other organisations in the market.
- c. Interpersonal/Social Relations** – Team and general workplace cohesion is important to increase satisfaction, improve outcomes and promote productivity on the job. This translates into a feeling of having social support within the organisation as well as contributes indirectly to turnovers and success for the company since teamwork is a very important aspect of organization productivity and achievement.
- d. Working Conditions** - Upgrading facilities and equipment and ensuring employees have adequate personal workspace, regulated temperatures, noise control amongst other such features, can decrease dissatisfaction.
- e. Achievement** – It is vital to provide employees opportunity for achievement and success. When a worker/employee are suitably placed to utilize his/her skills and talents, it offers an opportunity for personal growth and learning, hence may enhance satisfaction.
- f. Recognition** – When an employee is recognized for their contribution, it confirms to them that their work is of value, and it spurs their engagement and motivation, thereby increasing satisfaction. Recognition boosts the morale of the worker and he/she perceive the workplace as a more inclusive place. Appreciation even helps to engender trust in the system.
- g. Autonomy** – When an employee is given latitude to shape their work and space, allows for more satisfaction, happiness and engagement. This does not mean that the employee works alone or in isolation. Instead, it is about empowering employees to have control over their work.
- h. Advancement** – Career growth advancement helps ensure job satisfaction. Taking on new roles and responsibilities prevents stagnation and hence alleviates dissatisfaction in an employee.
- i. Job Security** - The assurance that their job is secure will most likely increase job satisfaction, especially in times of economic uncertainty.
- j. Work-life Balance Practices**- In the 21st century, where jobs, workplaces, families, modes

of entertainment, are all in a state of flux and evolving, it is important that one is able to dedicate adequate resources in terms of time and energy to all facets of one's life. Policies that cater to common personal and family needs are crucial to job satisfaction.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- Q1. What are some sources of work-related stress?
- Q2. Evaluate the theoretical perspectives on job satisfaction / dissatisfaction.
- Q3. Highlight the consequences of stress.
- Q4. Discuss the nature of workplace dissatisfaction.
- Q5. How can organisations alleviate workplace dissatisfaction?

1.3 SUMMARY

In the 21st century digital era, the working adults spend a large chunk of their time on work related activities. It is hence vital that employers and organisations strive to reduce dissatisfaction and promote satisfaction at the work place. This can be done by improving working conditions, having employee friendly company policies, promoting interpersonal relationships, quality of the supervisor. In addition, opportunities for career advancement, recognition of achievement, quality of the work, accountability; have the potential to enhance satisfaction with the job as well as promote engagement.

Work / Occupational stress occurs as response to those aspects of the workplace environment which threaten the physical and / or psychological safety and security of a person. This stress could be attributed to organisational factors like organisational policies, work environment, lack of recognition for contribution, restrictive opportunities for advancement. Other factors which can contribute to stress include work overload, role conflict and ambiguity, and relationships at work. Organisations and employers should strive to alleviate work place stress by implementing policies in fair manner, providing opportunities for growth, compensation and benefits that is at par with the costs and effort involved in a role, promoting a team culture, interpersonal relationships and a work-life balance.

1.4 KEYWORDS

(a) Job satisfaction	A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.
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(b) Work place dissatisfaction	When an employee does not feel content with their work. This could be due to various reasons such as lack of advancement, poor management, limited work-life balance.
(c) Stress at workplace	Condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning.
(d) Work Overload	When an individual is expected to deliver too much in a short period of time.
(e) Role Conflict	The individual is the target of conflicting demands or expectations from different groups of people.
(f) Role Ambiguity	The situation in which the employee is uncertain about assigned job duties and responsibilities.
(g) Burnout	It is a psychological syndrome in response to chronic stressors on the job. This ensues when an individual is unable to cope with the demands which are placed on him/her.

1.5 **QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE**

- Q1. Highlight the consequences of stress.
- Q2. Discuss the nature of workplace dissatisfaction.
- Q3. How can organisations alleviate workplace dissatisfaction?

1.6 **SUGGESTED READINGS**

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BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT – 2: IMPACT OF STRESS ON PERFORMANCE

STRUCTURE

2.0 OBJECTIVES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

2.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT (STRESS)

2.3 WORK-RELATED CAUSES OF STRESS

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**2.5.1 REASONS BEHIND DISRUPTED TASK PERFORMANCE DUE TO
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2.7.2 FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR BURNOUT

2.7.3 SYMPTOMS OF BURNOUT

2.8 MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY (MBI)

2.9 CONCLUSION

2.10 FURTHER READINGS

2.11 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After a careful reading of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe stress and burnout

- Differentiate between stress and burnout
- Analyse the impact of stress on task performance
- Discuss burnout in relation to work-setting'

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Just as rights and duties and responsibility and power go hand in hand and are inseparable sides of the same coin, in the same way, life offers stress and coping (relaxation) as inextricable. Amongst crowding, pollution, insecurity, unemployment, violence, anxiety etc. stress is also an integral part of our lives. Life and situations place their demands on human- beings and when the person feels resourceless to fulfill the demands of life and its situations, he/she gets taken over by stress.

2.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT

Stress is a state of tension that is created when a person responds to the demands and pressures that come from work, family and other external sources as well as those that are internally generated from self-imposed demands, obligations and self-criticism.

According to Hans Selye (1956), “any external event or internal drive which threatensto upset the organismic equilibrium” is stress.

He has defined stress on the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it.

The General Adaptation Syndrome: Hans Selye and his associates proposed the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) in 1951. GAS has been a popular concept in stress theory and research for many years. GAS is the three-stage process that describes the physiological changes the body goes through when under stress:

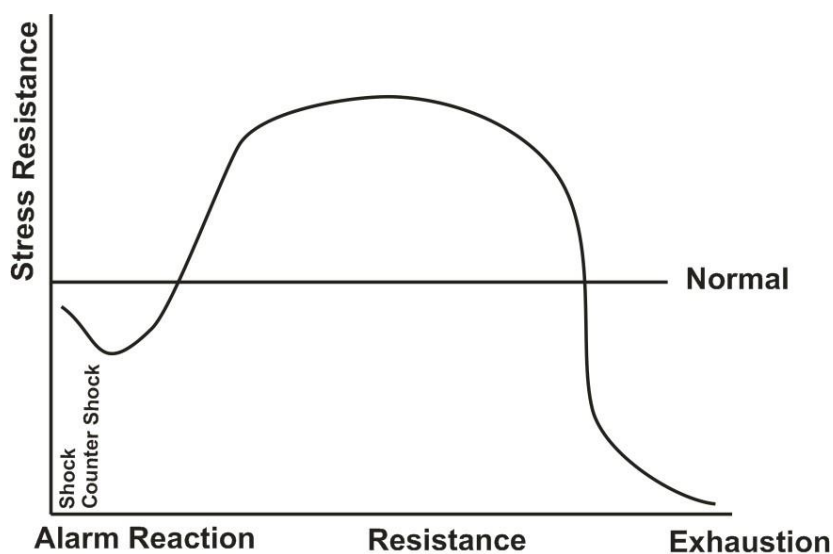
- 1. Alarm Reaction Stage:** When the environmental demands overpower the person and the individual is no longer able to meet the demands, he/she will show a fight-or-flight response in the alarm reaction stage. It is a physiological response to stress. The heart rate increases, the adrenal gland releases cortisol (a stress hormone), blood pressure increases and respiration becomes faster. When confronted with any threat toour safety or well-being, an immediate and vigorous alarm reaction is experienced.
- 2. Resistance Stage:** The initial reaction of alarm is soon replaced by a second stage known as resistance as after the fight-or-flight response, the body begins to repair itself. it releases a lower amount of cortisol and the heart rate, respiration and blood pressure begin to

normalise. But the body is still on high alert. If the stress is overcome, the body continues to repair itself and all the bodily responses reach a pre-stress state.

However, if the stressful situation continues to prevail and the stress doesn't get resolved, the body remains on high alert and the sympathetic nervous systems and endocrine glands remain overactive. A prolonged period of resistance may lead to the third stage of GAS i.e., the exhaustion stage. Irritability, frustration and poor concentration are the signs of resistance stage.

3. Exhaustion Stage: This stage is the result of depleted bodily resources as a result of prolonged or chronic stress leading to severe biological damage. The person no longer has the strength to fight stress and the situation is perceived as hopeless. Fatigue, burnout, depression, anxiety is some of the signs of exhaustion stage.

The figure drawn below (computer drawn) represents the above-mentioned stages graphically:



The General Adaptation Syndrome

WORK-RELATED CAUSES OF STRESS

1. Occupational Demands: Some jobs are just more stressful than the others. Imagine the duty of frontline health workers at the times of pandemic. The greater the extent to which or particular job requires decision making, constant monitoring of devices or materials, repeated exchange of information, unpleasant physical conditions and performing unstructured tasks, the more stressful the job tends to be.

2. **Stress from competing demands** – When people experience **role-conflict** while managing office, home, academic and social demands, it leads to higher stress levels.
3. **Stress from Uncertainty: Role ambiguity** also leads to stress. Role ambiguity occurs when people are uncertain about several aspects of their jobs e.g., their responsibility, expectations from them etc.
4. **Overload and Underload:** When there is a **quantitative overload** i.e., the situations in which individuals are asked to do more work than they can complete in a specific period of time, stress levels increase. Also, when there is a **qualitative overload** i.e., when the employees believe that they lack the required skills or abilities to perform a given job, stress levels increase. Both types of overload are unpleasant and research findings suggest that both can lead to high levels of stress.

In the same way, when there is **quantitative underload** i.e., there is boredom due to too little work and **qualitative underload** i.e., lack of mental stimulation, stress levels rise in both these situations too.

5. **Lack of Social Support** – When individuals believe and perceive that they have family, friends and support of others at work, their ability to resist the effects of stress seems to increase. Social support is an important buffer against the effects of stress.

2.3 STRESS DUE TO STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS

As suggested by the findings of several studies by Lazarus and his colleagues (1984), daily hassles are an important cause of stress e.g. having too many things to do at once, household shopping, concerns about money etc. DeLongis et al (1982) convey that household hassles, time pressure hassles, loneliness, fear of confrontation, environmental hassles and financial responsibility constitute a significant chunk of stress.

Holmes and Masuda (1974), on the basis of interaction with patients at a university medical centre revealed various significant events causing major stress and subsequent illness. The events were death in the family, divorce, marital separation, personal injury or illness, job loss, retirement, trouble with in-laws, trouble with boss to name a few.

2.4 IMPACT OF STRESS ON PERFORMANCE

The traditional viewpoint on the relationship between stress and performance is considered curvilinear, which means rise in stress from zero to moderate level is believed to be motivating and reinforcing leading to improved performance. But beyond a particular point,

rise in stress is considered as an interference in performance. This clearly conveys that high or very high levels of stress are detrimental to the performance (Greenberg and Baron, 2000).

Later, a growing body of research reflects the idea that stress, whether low or high, exerts mainly negative effects on task performance. Therefore, relatively low levels of stress can also disturb and disrupt task performance.

Motowidlo, Packard and Manning (1986) asked a large group of nurses to describe their own levels of work-related stress. Ratings of their actual job performance were then obtained from supervisors or co-workers. Results indicated that the higher the nurses' feelings of stress, the lower their job performance. In other words, there was no evidence for initial increments in performance as the curvilinear hypothesis suggests.

Many researchers argue that stress at workplace has an impact on performance in one way or the other. Dean (2002) view work related stress as a leading cause for low productivity in the workplace. DCS Gaumail (2003) believes stress affects the organizational outcomes such as decrease in performance, increase in absenteeism and dissatisfaction. In the same breadth, Desseller (2000) concurred that the consequences of organizational stress are far-reaching leading to reduction in the quality and quantity of job performance. According to Frost (2003) hardworking and valuable employees who experience negative experiences in the workplace, have their hopes dashed, their goals derailed and or their confidence undermined. He asserts that organization should endeavour to identify emotional pain, when it occurs and act to intervene, potentially lethal situations in the work place, can be reversed.

These findings and those of several other studies indicate that in many real-life settings, performance may be reduced even by low or moderate levels of stress.

2.4.1 REASONS BEHIND DISRUPTED TASK PERFORMANCE DUE TO STRESS

1. The task performance may suffer due to stress as the individual experiencing it may focus more on the unpleasant emotions and feelings that stress involves rather than the task in hand.
2. The individual has been exposed to prolonged and repeated stress levels, which may be mild also. Such prolonged and repeated exposure is detrimental to health and thus affects task performance negatively.
3. As mentioned earlier also that a large acumen of research indicates that as arousal increases, task performance may at first rise, but at some point, it begins to fall. This

precise point is referred to as inflection point i.e. the point at which the direction of the function reverse. If the task in hand is of complex nature, then the levels of arousal are even lower.

However, this is not the scenario in absolute terms. There are **exceptions** to the fact that stress interferes with task performances.

These exceptions are as follows:

1. There's a phrase, "rise to the occasion" and there are individuals, who exhibit exceptional performance even at the times of high stress. It is believed that their expertise in the task being performed makes their inflection point very high and rather than a threat, the task is perceived as a challenge. Being highly skilled at a task may make a person cognitively appraise a potentially stressful situation as quite manageable.
2. Individual differences always exist. They exist in relation to impact of stress on task performance also. Some individuals thrive on stress as they actively seek arousal and may improve and show exceptional performance. In contrast, there are people, who avoid arousal and find stress quite upsetting and it may interfere with their task performance.

2.5 FURTHER READINGS

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2.6 INTRODUCTION: CONCEPT and DEFINITION

The number of people, who experience intolerable stress, physical as well as emotional exhaustion, apathy and sense of meaninglessness is on the rise. This has brought down the individual's sense of well-being and self-evaluation, which in turn influences work performance as well as the quality of their interpersonal relationship within and outside the family system. The term 'burnout', was first used by H.D. Freudenberg (1974), a clinical psychologist, who was working in a drug clinic with young volunteers on exhibited stress responses of staff members. Perhaps, the word, burnout has been taken from the metaphor of a log or a candle burning out slowly and when the burning log or candle ends, only ashes are

left (Sharma, 1997).

BURNOUT has been variedly defined as 'to fail', 'wear out' or become 'exhausted' by making excessive demand on energy, strength or resources. On the basis of clinical observations and case-studies, Freudenberger and Richelson (1980) described burnout as a state of chronic fatigue, depression and frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life or relationship that failed to produce expected rewards and ultimately led to lessened job involvement as well as lowered job accomplishment (Freudenberger, 1974, 1980).

Paine (1982) defines Burnout Stress Syndrome (BOSS) as a consequence of high levels of job stress, frustration and inadequate coping skills, having major personal, organisational and social costs.

BOSS may lead to 4 types of consequences:

1. Depletion of energy resources.
2. Lowered Resistance to illness.
3. Increased Dissatisfaction and Pessimism.
4. Increased Absenteeism and Inefficiency at work.

Maslach and Jacobson (1986): Burnout is a tridimensional syndrome characterized by **emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment** that can occur among individuals who are in people related work of some kind. In the burnout syndrome, the emotional exhaustion component represents the basic individual **stress dimension** of burnout, depersonalization component represents the **interpersonal dimension** of burnout and the personal accomplishment component represents the **self-exhaustion dimensions** of burnout. (Maslach, 1998).

2.6.1 Difference between Burnout and Stress

Pines (1993) differentiated burnout from stress by pointing out that while many people may experience stress, only those who enter their professions with high ideals, zeal and motivation can experience burnout. Pines, Aronson and Kafry (1981) distinguished burnout from tedium by stating that though the two states are similar in symptomatology, they are different in origin. Tedium can be the result of any prolonged chronic pressures (mental, physical or emotional), whereas burnout is the result of consistent or repeated emotional pressure associated with intense involvement with people.

2.6.2 FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR BURNOUT

Many researchers have shifted their focus implying that burnout is not a problem of the people themselves but of social environments in which they work (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). As a result, the focus of research has shifted to the identification of bad situations rather than bad individuals (Maslach and Leiter, 1997).

Maslach and Leiter with consensus among other researchers have brought about **6 mismatch conditions** between the job and the person, to have the potential to cause burnout. These conditions are as follows:

- 1. Work Overload** – In today's work world, work load of individuals is more intense, demands more time and is much more complex than ever before. Excessive work load, beyond the capacity of the individual, has a negative influence on energy, efficiency and productivity levels, which may lead to breakdown. Work overload leaves the individual exhausted emotionally, creatively as well as physically.
- 2. Lack of Control** – Central to being a successful professional as well as in the experience of job satisfaction, is the freedom to prioritise and make decisions and also having autonomy in selecting the relevant approaches to do one's work. According to Pines et al (1981), lack of control or autonomy in one's job may contribute to burnout, whereas increasing participation in the decision-making process enhances the control employees have over their work environment and this may be effective in reducing job-related strain (Jackson, 1983).
- 3. Reward Structure:** When employees do not get information and feedback on how well they are doing and what others think of their work, it may constitute or source of stress, which contributes to burnout.
- 4. Personal Relationships at work** – The situation is further aggravated by the lack of adequate and meaningful personal relationships at work. Researchers have stressed upon the importance of good relationships between the members of a work group as a central factor in individual and organizational health. Absence of this has been found to lead to inadequate communications between people and to psychological strain in the form of low job satisfaction and to the feelings of job-related threats to one's well- being (Kahn, Wolfe, Rosenthal, 1964; Cooper and Cartwright, 1994).
- 5. Absence of Fairness:** Fairness communicates respect and confirms people's self- worth. Lack of fairness contributes directly to burnout. Unfairness can occur when workload and

pay is distributed unfairly, when cheating occurs or when evaluations and promotions are handled inappropriately.

- 6. Value Conflict** – Another condition, which can be a potential cause for burnout is, when the requirements of the job do not match with people's personal principles (Maslach and Leiter, 1997).

In each of the 6 areas, if the nature of the job is not in harmony with the nature of the people, the result is increased exhaustion, cynicism and inefficiency (Maslach 1998).

On the other hand, when a better fit exists in the 6 areas, then engagement with work is the likely outcome. There is a general consensus amongst researchers that burnout prone individuals are empathetic, sensitive, dedicated, idealistic and people-oriented along with being anxious, obsessional, over-enthusiastic and susceptible to overidentification with others.

2.7.2 SYMPTOMS OF BURNOUT

- 1. Physiological Symptoms:** Fatigue, physical depletion, irritability, headache, gastrointestinal disturbances, back pain, weight change, change in the sleep pattern.
- 2. Behavioural Symptoms** – Loss of enthusiasm, coming late to work, accomplishing little despite long hours, quickness to frustration and anger, becoming increasingly rigid, difficulties in making decisions, closing out new input, increased dependence on drugs, increased withdrawal from colleagues, irritation with co-workers.
- 3. Psychological Symptoms** – Depression, emptiness, negative self-concept, pessimism, guilt, self-blame for not accomplishing more.
- 4. Spiritual symptoms** – Loss of faith, loss of meaning, loss of purpose, feelings of estrangement, despair, changes in values, changes in religious beliefs and affiliations.
- 5. Clinical Symptoms** – Cynicism towards clients, day-dreaming during sessions, hostility towards clients, quickness to diagnose, quickness to medicate, blaming clients.

2.7 MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY (MBI)

MBI, a very popular inventory given by **Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson and**

R.L. Schwab in 1986 attempts to assess the psychological condition of an individual which is caused by chronic interpersonal stressors on the job. MBI assesses 3 dimensions of the burnout syndrome:

1. Emotional Exhaustion

2. Depersonalization and

3. Personal Accomplishment

- A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the emotional and depersonalization subscales and in low scores on the Personal Accomplishment subscale.
- An average degree of burnout is reflected in average scores on the three subscales.
- A low degree of burnout is reflected in low scores on the Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization subscales and in high scores on the Personal Accomplishments subscale.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

Q1. How can the physiological symptoms of a person help you in differentiating whether he/she is going through stress or burnout?

Q2. Suppose you are considering a new job. What factors will you examine closely to determine how stressful the new position might be?

Q3. Imagine that a person is exposed to high levels of stress over a prolonged period of time. What effect might this have on his/her health?

Q4. What steps can companies take to reduce stress among their employees?

2.8 CONCLUSION

To sum up, it can be said that the employees are the most valuable resource of every institution. Without competent employees, no institution can succeed to outrun its competitors. Stress has a significant influence on task performance. If the impact of stress goes up beyond the level of tolerance, it may harmfully affect physical and mental health of a person (employees). Many researchers have identified the disruptive effect of different stressors on task performance (Maglio and Campbell, 2000) and by the interruption on tasks with annoyance and anxiety (Bailey, Konstan and Carlis, 2001). Bashir and Ranay (2010) enlist many antecedents of stress such as overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility for people, lack of feedback and keeping up with rapid technological changes.

The organisations and institutes need to be very mindful of finding ways and techniques to help their employees overcome stress.

Human resources are the precious assets of any organization. Stress that has reached the stage of burnout is enough to cause irreversible changes to physical, mental, social and organizational life of the individual. A long-term goal of not letting a person succumb to stress in the form of burnout needs to be on the list of organizational and government policy-making.

Its awareness at organizational, family, social and personal level will go a long way.

2.9 FURTHER READINGS

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2.10 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1. Define Stress and its impact on performance.

Q2. Explain the concept of Burnout in detail.

Q3. Discuss different theories of Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction.

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**UNIT-3: EFFECTIVE SKILLS AT WORKPLACE: INTERPERSONAL SKILLS,
DECISION MAKING**

STRUCTURE

3.0 OBJECTIVES

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3.2 NECESSITY OF EFFECTIVE SKILLS

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3.4 THEORY OF SKILL

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3.6 DECISION MAKING: INTRODUCTION, CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

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3.6.2 TYPES OF DM

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3.6.4 FACTORS AFFECTING DM

3.6.5 TYPES OF COGNITIVE BIAS IN DM

3.6.6 GROUP CONFLICT AS A BARRIER TO DM

3.6.7 STRATEGIES OF DM

3.6.8 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AND DECISION MAKING

3.7 CONCLUSION

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

3.9 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After a careful reading of this unit, you will be able to:

- Interpret the concept of Skills, Interpersonal Relationships and Decision Making in your own words
- Analyse the theoretical rationale behind the concepts
- Importance of the concept in organisations
- Interpret various types and strategies related to the given concept

EFFECTIVE SKILLS AT WORKPLACE

3.1 INTRODUCTION: SKILLS

Skill can be defined as an ability and capacity acquired through systematic, deliberate, and continuous effort to carry out complex activities or a task or a job involving ideas, things and people. Young people also need to develop their personal skills and a set of thinking and learning skills. These skills and attitudes are fundamental in improving young people's employability skills as well as their learning. Employability means having the skills needed to perform well at work. Employability is a set of attributes, skills and knowledge that all labour market participants should possess to ensure that they have the capability of being effective in the workplace – to the benefit of themselves, their employer and the wider economy. According to Cotton (2000), the employability skills of the undergraduates were tested based on the possession of basic skills, higher-order thinking skills, and affective skills. The ability comes from one's knowledge, aptitude, and practice. In other words, it can be said knowledge is what is gained, whereas skill is what is executed. Skills are broadly divided into general and specific. Further skills can be categorized as—labour skills, life skills, employability skills, job skills, technical skills, people skills, social skills, aptitude skills and soft skills. Employability skills are seen as important at all levels of an increasingly complex labour market, with its more dominant service industry, and stress on employee flexibility and application of learning in new contexts (Newton and Hurstfield, 2005).

3.2 NECESSITY OF EFFECTIVE SKILLS

In today's competitive world, a degree is not at all enough to get employment, as it no longer

provides assurance of employability unlike decades ago when enrolling in almost any degree program ensured a choice of employment offers in the graduating year. Mastery of content areas exclusively by graduates will not absolutely respond to requirements of employer for which they need transferable skills to develop their job openings (Fallows and Steven 2000; Warn and Tranter 2001; Cox and King 2006). Numerous reviews have confirmed the need for the suitable skills required for the current knowledge age and global economy. Employers give special attention to employability skills more than specific occupational skills or technical knowledge. It is widely accepted that a gap still exists where the level of employability skills of graduates and entry level work requirements do not meet. Competence of employees on the employability skills is an important element affecting their jobs. It is necessary that employees have to master in the use of their skills to respond to the present- day needs and demands of the workplaces. Employability skill is a non-technical ability and is a part of the work skills, which is as important as technical skill and should be acquired by everybody in the industrial field. Industrial employer agrees that employability skill is important to be acquired by their employees to be outstanding in their field. (Ramlee 2002).

3.3 REVIEW OF VARIOUS SKILLS

1. Job Skills

Job skill is a group of important skills instilled in each individual in order to produce productive workforce. This is parallel with individuals who have strong characteristics such as a high sense of self, innovative, productive, skilful, competitive, a strong sense of determination, and creative in facing the challenges of the nation as well as globalisation in the 21st century.

- a. Good Attitude:** Resistance is usually created because of certain blind spots and employee attitudes with the technical aspects of new ideas. Management should take concrete steps to deal constructively with these employee attitudes. An organization must develop a new vision and a new faith in the workforce before it can approach the organizational change process. The doors are open for the good attitude employee in improving the organization (Akanshi and Gupta 2016).
- b. Group Discussion:** Group Discussion is a process, and for the satisfactory outcome of the process, participants should follow a procedure, which is referred to as code of conduct. One should be careful and meticulous while doing the Discussion (Mandal 2008).

2. Aptitude Skills

Indeed, the concept of aptitude was initially introduced to help explain the enormous variation

in learning rates for different tasks exhibited by individuals who seemed similar in other respects. (Bingham 1937) Understanding which characteristics of individuals are likely to function as aptitudes begin with a careful examination of the demands and affordances of target tasks and the contexts in which they must be performed. This is what we mean when we say that defining the situation is part of defining the aptitude (Snow and Lohman 1984). Following are a few of the aptitude skills:

(a) Analytical Skills: Analytical skill is the ability to visualize, articulate, and solve both complex and uncomplicated problems and concepts and make decisions that are sensible and based on available information. Such skills include demonstration of the ability to apply logical thinking of gathering and analyzing information, designing and testing solutions to problems, and formulating plans. As explained by Richards Heuer Jr. (1999), “Thinking analytically is a skill like carpentry or driving a car. It can be taught, it can be learnt, and it can be improved with practice. But like many other skills, such as riding a bike, it cannot be learnt by sitting in a classroom and being told how to do it. Analysts learn by doing.

(b) Decision Making: Participative efficacy (collective) is the extent to which group members believe that their group has the ability and skills to successfully participate in decision making. In theory, participative decision making’s effects on performance may stem from how people use it instrumentally to create situations that are more favourable to their effectiveness (Mitchell, 1973).

3. Soft Skills

Soft skills refer to a personal skill that is usually interpersonal, nonspecialized, and difficult to quantify, such as leadership or responsibility. These skills are not only associated with a manager’s ability to interact with their peers, subordinates and superiors, but also with decision making. Soft skills are a set of skills identified in various literatures such as learning, flexibility, interpersonal, communication, courtesy, integrity, positive attitude, team work, work ethic, etc. Unlike hard skills, which are about a person’s skill set ability to perform a certain type of task or activity, soft skills are interpersonal and broadly applicable. Soft skills are often described by using terms often associated with personality traits. (Parsons TL, 2008) Numerous works have been published on the subject of developing soft skills to university graduates. The interest seems to extend in virtually all specifications, such as engineering, financial studies, health care, etc.

- a) **Body Language:** Management expects their employees to pay attention to the verbal and non-verbal habits. Once you are able to determine the style of management, and the communication habits of the colleagues and supervisors, then you will be able to figure out what is expected of the employee throughout the workday (Harmony 2011).
- b) **Communication Skills:** Clement and Murugavel (2015) has pointed out that there is a big gap between the various methodologies of teaching the language and the confidence levels of the students. This scenario affects the employment opportunities of thousands of students in India. In addition, it is revealed that there is a training need for the communication skills to improve employability skill. All the four major elements of communication – Listening, Reading, Writing, and Speaking (LRWS) should be given attention.
- c) **Interpersonal Skills:** Based on the findings of Anjani and Meenakshi (2015), employers do not expect a candidate who has recently come out of the college to be the ‘finished product’, but they do expect candidates to be at least with some basic qualities – enthusiasm, literate, numerate and able to turn up on time for the workplace. The importance of interpersonal skills plays a major role in interacting with the colleagues, which will increase the learning curve of the candidate.
- d) **Presentation Skills:** Minimum requirements for a graduate of a tertiary institution should be ample proficiency in spoken and written language, a certain amount of self-esteem that will be reflected in conversation skills and body language, adequate discussion skills are of major importance, good presentation skills in order to be able to market oneself and one’s ideas (Bernd 2008).

4. Technical Skills

Job knowledge tests are used in situations where applicants must already possess a body of learned information prior to being hired. They are particularly useful for jobs requiring specialized or technical knowledge that can only be acquired over an extended period of time. Technical and Vocational Educational Department should provide a curriculum, which includes employment element skills which are needed by employers.

- a) **Subject knowledge:** The analysis indicated that where subject knowledge was concerned, trainees focused on individual pupil development or assessment for learning or organizational aspects rather than considering the range and depth of subject and pedagogical knowledge they themselves needed to learn and develop and how to go about

this (Evans et al. 2008).

- b) Technical knowledge:** Job knowledge tests are used in situations where applicants must already possess a body of learned information prior to being hired. Examples of job knowledge tests include tests of basic accounting principles, computer programming, financial management, etc (Dye et al. 1993).

3.4 THEORY OF SKILL

The Seven Skill Groups by Carnevale et al (1990)

A framework by Carnevale et al. (1990) suggests that employee skills can be divided into seven skill groups. The following skills are the ones that the employers pay attention to when hiring new employees. These skills are the ones, employers wish to see in all hired employees even before they start working and therefore can be called “employability skills”. According to Carnevale et al. (1990), the most important skill employers want from employees is the ability to learn. “**Learning to learn**” is the skill that makes it possible for employees to learn other important skills. If employees have the ability to learn, it saves time and training costs and also makes them more adaptable to changes occurring within the company caused by changes in the economy or other reasons. Additionally, if the employee can handle the **basic skills**; reading, writing, and computation well, it again saves the company time and money. For example, even if an employee knows how to write a report but does not manage the skill well enough, their work needs constant correction and re-doing, which of course is not either cost-effective or time-effective for the company. Since employees are said to be the most valuable asset for a company, these basic skills need to be handled well to obtain the maximum benefit an employee can give to an organization. Since this framework was created in 1990’s, the role of these skills, especially computation, has changed.

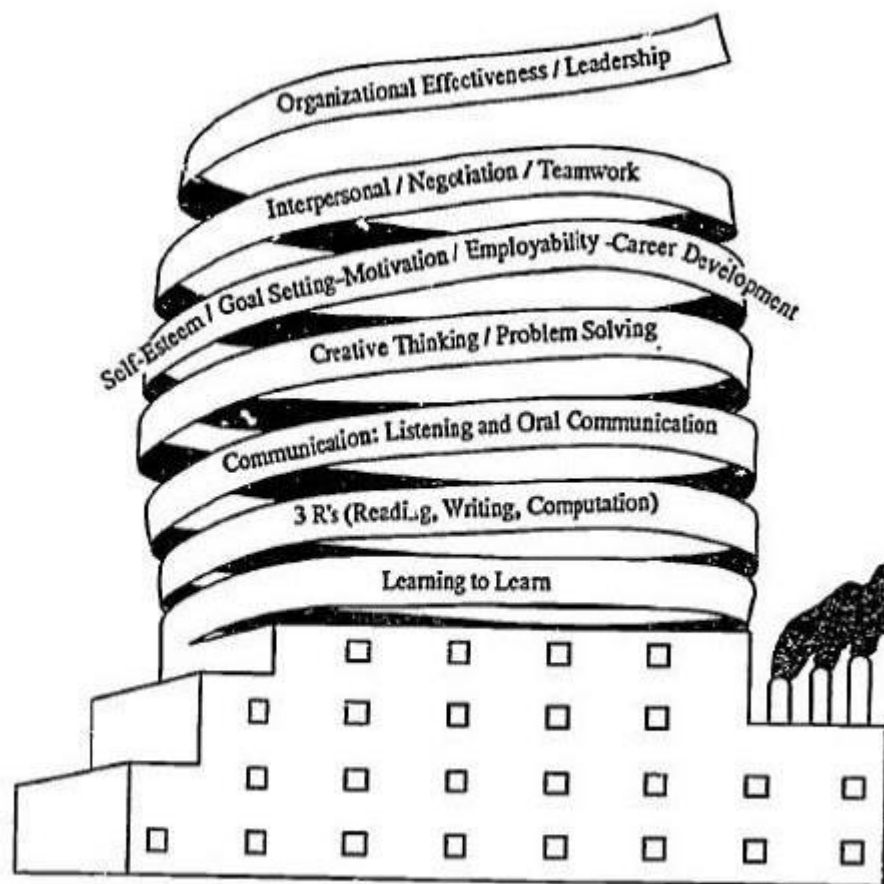


Figure 1: The Seven Skill Groups (Carnevale et al. 1990)

Even if the skill is seen differently in 2014, it is in fact nowadays even more important for employees than in 1990. The third group of

skills mentioned by Carnevale et al (1990) is **communication skills** including listening and oral communication. If employees' oral communication is weak, it makes understanding more difficult since they are not able to ask the right questions, they need the answers to in order to understand better. It also increases the risk of misunderstandings among colleagues, which can easily lead to mistakes. The same goes with listening skills; if employees are not able to effectively listen and memorize information told to them, the likelihood of mistakes and time-consuming repetition grows. These skills are also vital when an organization is going through a change and new tasks or guidance is given to employees. Additionally, these communication skills are the key for an employee's personal development at work. When it comes to customer-service jobs, communication skills are the key to good results and customer satisfaction. Since in the business world nowadays the key element in customer service is actually selling a long relationship with the company instead of one item or service, communication skills of employees in these situations play a huge role. Another important set

of employee skills included in this framework is **creative thinking** and **problem solving**. They are the key to enhanced productivity. As Carnevale et al. state: “Problem-solving skills include the ability to recognize and define problems, invent and implement solutions, and track and evaluate results. Creative thinking requires the ability to understand problem-solving techniques but also to transcend logical and sequential thinking and make the leap to innovation.” Therefore, it can be said that creative problem solving is the skill that strives a company towards its strategic goals even when circumstances and the surrounding economy change. Problem recognition, creative solutions and effective evaluation all stem from individual’s creative thinking and problem-solving skills, which employers highly value. **Personal management skills** are also important for employees because they include factors like self-esteem, motivation, goal setting, employability and career development skills. These skills affect almost all actions taken in a workplace. Even if an employee would hold many other important employee skills, without personal management they could not be utilized as effectively as possible. Employees are not able to work up to their full potential if they do not have the skill of personal management and therefore it is crucial to develop it constantly. Finally, as stated by Carnevale et al. (1990), **negotiation and teamwork skills** are crucial to employees. In the past few decades, the use of working teams has increased considerably. Productivity levels of companies have risen through team work and it has also been noticed that when a company is facing changes, team work is what keeps productivity up and also helps individual employees to adjust to changes via the support of their colleagues. Teamwork skills also enhance productivity in the sense that it allows employees to work together smoothly by decreasing the risk of disturbance caused by social friction. Negotiation skills, in turn, are the key to effective teamwork and thereby are linked with that skill. Negotiation skills are also linked to the problem-solving process as they allow quicker decisions and keep the wheels turning. (Source of the image: Google images)

3.5 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION

Interpersonal relationship is a key to leadership success. It is defined as a network of relationship that exists in an organization, nurtured by a leader through the use of interpersonal qualities and skills to achieve the organizational goals. No doubt **interpersonal relationship is acquired by a leader with the help of interpersonal skills**. The leaders in the educational setting who have interpersonal skills can stimulate conditions that foster strong relationship with teachers and students, creating trust among subordinates to contribute their best for achieving organizational goals. They have to develop a network of relationship in the school

to accomplish its objectives, the leaders who cannot meet others; build working relationships carry heavy handicaps. The interpersonal qualities cement relationship stronger and healthier, which comprises of warmth, genuineness, empathy and unconditional positive regard **Rogers (1967)**. These personal qualities are necessary if leaders are to use interpersonal skills effectively. They form the bedrock of all effective human relationship.

DEFINITION OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

- Interpersonal relationships refer to the reciprocal social and emotional interactions between two or more individuals in an environment.
- Interpersonal relationship is defined as a close association between individuals who share common interests and goals.

3.5.1 TYPES OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

- 1. Friendship:** Theories of friendship emphasize the concept as a freely chosen association where individuals develop a common ground of thinking and behaving when they enter into the relationship by including mutual love, trust, respect and unconditional acceptance for each other. Friendship is a relationship with no formalities and the individuals enjoy each other's presence.
- 2. Family and Kinship:** Family communication patterns establish roles and identify and enable personal and social growth of individuals. Family relationships can get distorted if there is an unresolved conflict between members.
- 3. Professional Relationship:** Individual working for the same organization are said to share a professional relationship and are called colleagues. Colleagues may or may not like each other.
- 4. Love:** An informal intimate relationship characterized by passion, intimacy, trust and respect is called love. Individuals in a romantic relationship are deeply attached to each other and share a special bond.
- 5. Marriage:** Marriage is a formalized intimate relationship or a long-term relationship where two individuals decide to enter into wedlock and stay together life-long after knowing each other well.
- 6. Casual Relationships:** In these relationships, the individuals usually develop a relationship that exclusively lacks mutual love and consists of sexual behaviour only that does not extend beyond one night. These individuals may be known as sexual partners in a

wider sense of friends with benefits who consider sexual intercourse only in their relationship.

- 7. Brotherhood and Sisterhood:** Individuals united for a common cause or a common interest (may involve formal membership in clubs, organization, associations, societies, etc.) may be termed as a brotherhood or a sisterhood. In this relationship, individuals are committed to doing good deeds for fellow members and people.
- 8. Acquaintances:** An acquaintance is a relationship where someone is simply known to someone by introduction or by a few interactions. There is an absence of close relationships and the individuals lack in-depth personal information about other. This could also be the beginning of a future close relationship.
- 9. Platonic Relationship:** A relationship between two individuals without feelings of sexual desire for each other is called a platonic relationship. In such a relationship, a man and a woman are just friends and do not mix love with friendship. Platonic relationships might end in a romantic relationship with partners developing feelings of love for each other.

3.5.2 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP

Social Exchange Theory was proposed by **George Casper Homans** in the year 1958. According to Social Exchange Theory “give and take” forms the basis of almost all relationships though their proportions might vary as per the intensity of the relationship. In a relationship, every individual has expectations from his/her partner. A relationship without expectations is meaningless. According to Social Exchange theory, feelings and emotions ought to be reciprocated for a successful and long-lasting relationship. Relationships can never be one sided. An individual invests his time and energy in relationships only when he gets something out of it. There are relationships where an individual receives less than he gives. This leads to situations where individual starts comparing his relationship with others.

Comparisons sometimes can be really dangerous as it stops individuals from putting their best in relationships. Don't always think that you would have a better relationship with someone else. Understand your partner and do as much as you can for him/her. Don't always expect the other person to do things first. Take initiative on your own and value partner.

3.5.3 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS IN ORGANISATIONS

Good interpersonal relations can go a long way in easing out tension and facilitating a confidence building measure among the people at work.

- Good interpersonal relations help establish a cordial relationship between the management and its employees.
- It encourages mutual regard and recognition vertically and laterally.
- It facilitates employees' involvement in the affairs of the organisation leading to better productivity.
- It facilitates effective organisational communication.
- It helps improve teamwork and team spirit in the organisation.
- It helps improve employee morale and job satisfaction.
- It facilitates an environment of close coordination.
- It helps bring about socialisation of organisation.
- It helps develop interpersonal skills, achieve executive skills and attitudinal improvement.
- It helps in the behavioural modification of the people in organisation.

3.5.4 IMPORTANCE OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS IN A WORKPLACE

No individual can work alone. Human beings, unlike machines, cannot work without occasionally needing someone with whom to share their thoughts and feelings. We are social creatures by nature, and so we are prone to be more anxious and stressed in an isolated environment. With the right kind of interpersonal relationships, employees can even end up being more productive than they would be if they worked alone because of the synergy that comes with teamwork.

3.5.5 HOW TO IMPROVE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS IN ORGANIZATIONS

If you have ever missed a meeting because you did not get the memo, or, perhaps worse, prepared the wrong set of slides for a presentation thanks to misinformation in an email, you know the havoc that poor communication can wreak in an organization. One of the best antidotes for poor communication in your organization is to create strong relationships. Focus on improving interpersonal relationships among your employees and you will soon notice a more positive work environment, clearer communication and increased levels of productivity.

Step 1

Distribute a set of **email etiquette guidelines** to all employees. According to the career experts at MindTools.com, a good email accurately reflects the subject line and clearly outlines the call to action required of the recipient. Encourage employees to communicate as clearly and concisely as possible to avoid confusion. Ask them to include the original message in each reply email for ease of reference and to avoid the "Caps Lock" key, which can give the appearance of shouting. Keep employees accountable by reminding them that no office emails are ever really private and that they must show respect for their colleagues in all email correspondence. When an employee senses respect for him in the email messages he receives, he is more likely to form a stronger relationship with the person behind the "Send" button.

Step 2

Schedule **team-building events** on a regular basis. You can hire a team-building consultant to conduct an annual workshop for your employees on your premises or at an off-site location or you can include a quick team-building game before or after a weekly meeting. Try something as light as an ice-breaker game or something more complicated like holding a group discussion to solve a hypothetical workplace scenario. Effective team building should allow participants to learn how their colleagues' minds work, how they communicate and how their personalities influence their work styles. Give team members self-assessment questionnaires after problem-solving activities to help them learn even more about what helps their communication and what hinders it.

Step 3

Streamline your business meetings. If you need a model to emulate, Bloomberg Business week recommends following Google executive Marissa Mayer's advice to stick to an agenda and watch the clock closely. By adhering to agenda items only, you minimize many risks. Assign someone to take notes and distribute those notes afterwards to help keep everyone at the same level of communication and to help those who missed the meeting feel included in the plans.

Step 4

Create a conflict management plan. While you may not be able to prevent conflict at work, you can quickly resolve it with the right plan, which includes using self-assessment tools and teaching team members how and when to confront or avoid confrontation, and when to force a position or when to compromise.

Step 5

Create an open-door policy. Even if work demands and schedule availability prohibit you from having communication lines open all day, every day, you can still benefit from an open-door policy. Schedule a certain time -- even if only for 30 minutes -- during each day when your employees can come in to discuss work conflicts and ask your advice for problem solving. Truly listen to their frustrations and take necessary actions immediately to let them know you appreciate and support their work.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- Q1. “Hone your Skills” – Why is it said so? Why is it important to be Skillful? Discuss in light of theory of Skill by Carnevale.
- Q2. How do interpersonal skills and organisational effectiveness go hand in hand?
- Q3. Can you identify three problems in organisations related to interpersonal skills (rather interpersonal barriers)? How can you depend on interpersonal skills (yes, again) to overcome these problems?

DECISION MAKING

3.6 INTRODUCTION, CONCEPT and DEFINITION

You are constantly in the process of examining your possibilities and options, comparing them and choosing a course of action. Decision making is the process of making choices by identifying a decision, gathering information, and assessing alternative solutions. Using a step-by-step decision-making process can help you make more deliberate, thoughtful decisions by organizing relevant information and defining alternatives. This approach increases the chances that you will choose the most satisfying alternative possible.

DECISION MAKING: CONCEPT and DEFINITION

A decision is a choice made between two or more available alternatives. Decision making is the process of choosing the best alternative for reaching objectives. (Samuel C. Certo, 2003).

Decision making can be defined as a process of choosing between alternatives to achieve a goal. It is the process by which an individual chooses one alternative from several to achieve a desired objective. (Manmohan Prasad, 2003)

3.6.1 EIGHT STEPS OF DECISION MAKING (The Traditional Analytical Model of Decision Making)

According to the traditional, analytical model of decision making, the making of decisions is a process that involves eight steps. The first step is identifying a problem, which is acknowledging the existence of the problem, where the problem is being identified. The second one is called defining objectives. Any available solution to the problem should be evaluated relative to the objective (Greenberg, 2011.) Another step is called making a predecision, which is basically making a decision about how to make a decision. Managers usually rely on their intuition or empirical information for the guidance needed when making predecisions. The next step is called generating alternatives, which is described as a stage when possible, solutions to the problem are identified. When individuals are trying to come up with the solution, they usually rely on previous approaches that may provide ready-made answers (Greenberg, 2011.) Evaluating alternative solutions is another step in the traditional, analytical model. Since not all possibilities may be equally reasonable, the individual may investigate alternatives that maybe more effective and feasible. Making a choice is another step that is taken after several alternatives have been evaluated. The following step is implementing the decision, which is carrying out the decision that was made during the making a choice step. The final step is following up, which is getting the feedback about how effective the attempted solution is. If the solution works, then the problem is solved.

Step 1: Identify the Problem

You realize that you need to make a decision. Try to clearly define the nature of the decision you must make. This first step is very important.

Step 2: Define Objectives

Collect some pertinent information before you make your decision: what information is needed, the best sources of information, and how to get it, how to increase the cash flow. This step involves both internal and external “work.” Some information is internal: you’ll seek it through a process of self-assessment. Other information is external: you’ll find it online, in books, from other people, and from other sources.

Step 3: Make a Pre decision

A predecision is a decision about how to make a decision. It should be based on research that tells about the nature of the decisions made under different circumstances. It should be done by assessing the type of problem in question and other aspects of the situation.

Step 4: Generate Alternatives

As you collect information, you will probably identify several possible paths of action, or alternatives. You can also use your imagination and additional information to construct new alternatives. In this step, you will list all possible and desirable alternatives.

Step 5: Evaluate Alternatives

Draw on your information and emotions to imagine what it would be like if you carried out each of the alternatives to the end. Evaluate whether the need identified in Step 1 would be met or resolved through the use of each alternative. As you go through this difficult internal process, you'll begin to favour certain alternatives: those that seem to have a higher potential for reaching your goal. Finally, place the alternatives in a priority order, based upon your own value system.

Step 6: Make a Choice

Once you have weighed all the evidence, you are ready to select the alternative that seems to be best one for you. You may even choose a combination of alternatives. Your choice in Step 5 may very likely be the same or similar to the alternative you placed at the top of your list at the end of Step 4.

Step 7: Implement Action

You're now ready to take some positive action by beginning to implement the alternative you chose in Step 5.

Step 8: Follow-Up (Review your decision and its consequences)

In this final step, consider the results of your decision and evaluate whether or not it has resolved the need you identified in Step 1. If the decision has *not* met the identified need, you may want to repeat certain steps of the process to make a new decision. For example, you might want to gather more detailed or somewhat different information or explore additional alternatives.

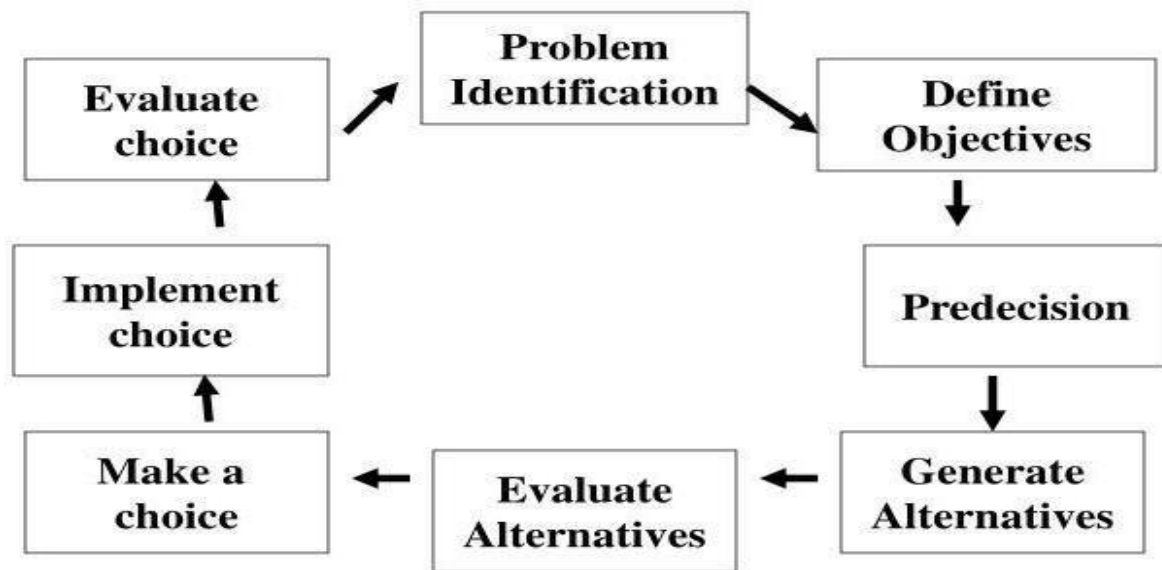


Image Source: Google images

3.6.1 Types of Decisions

Most discussions of decision making assume that only senior executives make decisions or that only senior executives' decisions matter. This is a dangerous mistake. Not all decisions have major consequences or even require a lot of thought. For example, before you come to class, you make simple and habitual decisions such as what to wear, what to eat, and which route to take as you go to and from home and school. You probably do not spend much time on these mundane decisions. These types of straightforward decisions are termed **programmed decisions**, or decisions that occur frequently enough that we develop an automated response to them. The automated response we use to make these decisions is called the **decision rule**. For example, many restaurants face customer complaints as a routine part of doing business. Because complaints are a recurring problem, responding to them may become a programmed decision. The restaurant might enact a policy stating that

every time they receive a valid customer complaint, the customer should receive a free food, which represents a decision rule.

On the other hand, unique and important decisions require conscious thinking, information gathering, and careful consideration of alternatives. These are called **nonprogrammed decisions**. For example, in 2005 McDonald's Corporation became aware of the need to respond to growing customer concerns regarding the unhealthy aspects (high in fat and calories) of the food they sell. This is a nonprogrammed decision, because for several decades, customers of fast-food restaurants were more concerned with the taste and price of the food, rather than its

healthiness. In response to this problem, McDonald’s decided to offer healthier alternatives such as the choice to substitute French fries in Happy Meals with apple slices and in 2007 they banned the use of trans fat at their restaurants.

A crisis situation also constitutes a nonprogrammed decision for companies. For example, the leadership of Nutrorim was facing a tough decision. They had recently introduced a new product, ChargeUp with Lipitrene, an improved version of their popular sports drink powder, ChargeUp. At some point, a phone call came from a state health department to inform them of 11 cases of gastrointestinal distress that might be related to their product, which led to a decision to recall ChargeUp. The decision was made without an investigation of the information. While this decision was conservative, it was made without a process that weighed the information. Two weeks later it became clear that the reported health problems were unrelated to Nutrorim’s product. In fact, all the cases were traced back to a contaminated health club juice bar. However, the damage to the brand and to the balance sheets was already done. This unfortunate decision caused Nutrorim to rethink the way decisions were made when under pressure. The company now gathers information to make informed choices even when time is of the essence (Garvin, 2006).

Decisions can be classified into three categories based on the level at which they occur. **Strategic decisions** set the course of an organization. **Tactical decisions** are decisions about how things will get done. Finally, **operational decisions** refer to decisions that employees make each day to make the organization run. For example, think about the restaurant that routinely offers a free food when a customer complaint is received. The owner of the restaurant made a strategic decision to have great customer service. The manager of the restaurant implemented the free dessert policy as a way to handle customer complaints, which is a tactical decision. Finally, the servers at the restaurant are making individual decisions each day by evaluating whether each customer complaint received is legitimate and warrants a free dessert.

Examples of Decisions Commonly Made Within Organizations

Level of Decision	Examples of Decision	Who Typically Makes Decisions
Strategic Decisions	Should we merge with another company? Should we pursue a new product line? Should we downsize our organization?	Top Management Teams, CEOs, and Boards of Directors

Tactical Decisions	<p>What should we do to help facilitate employees from the two companies working together?</p> <p>How should we market the new product line?</p> <p>Who should be let go when we downsize?</p>	Managers
Operational Decisions	<p>How often should I communicate with my new coworkers?</p> <p>What should I say to customers about our new product?</p> <p>How will I balance my new work demands?</p>	Employees throughout the organization

Further, we are going to discuss different decision-making models designed to understand and evaluate the effectiveness of nonprogrammed decisions. We will cover four decision-making approaches, starting with the rational decision-making model, moving to the bounded rationality decision-making model, the intuitive decision-making model, and ending with the creative decision-making model.

3.6.2 THEORIES OF DECISION MAKING

- **The Rational Theory**

The rational decision-making model describes a series of steps that decision makers should consider if their goal is to maximize the quality of their outcomes. In other words, if you want to make sure that you make the best choice, going through the formal steps of the rational decision-making model may make sense. Of course, the outcome of this decision will influence the next decision made. That is where step 8 comes in. For example, if you purchase a car and have nothing but problems with it, you will be less likely to consider the same make and model when purchasing a car the next time.

The rational manager view assumes a rational and completely informed decision-maker (“economic man”) as described by neoclassical microeconomic theory around the middle of the previous century. The process of rational decision-making comprises a number of steps, such as those given by Simon (1977):

- Intelligence: finding occasions for making a decision;
- Design: inventing, developing and analysing possible courses of action;
- Choice: selecting a particular course of action from those available; and
- Review: assessing past choices.

In classical or perfect rationality, methods of decision analysis are used to attach numerical values or utilities to each of the alternatives during the “choice” phase. The alternative with the highest utility (or maximum subjective expected utility) is selected. When using the rational model in this fashion, it is assumed that managers:

- know of all possible alternatives
- know the consequences of implementing each alternative
- have a well organised set of preferences for these consequences and
- have the computational ability to compare consequences and to determine which is preferred.

Referring to traditional analytical model of decision making, while decision makers can get off track during any of these steps, research shows that searching for alternatives in the fourth step can be the most challenging and often leads to failure. In fact, one researcher found that no alternative generation occurred in 85% of the decisions he studied (Nutt, 1994).

Conversely, successful managers know what they want at the outset of the decision-making process, set objectives for others to respond to, carry out an unrestricted search for solutions, get key people to participate, and avoid using their power to push their perspective (Nutt, 1998).

The rational decision-making model has important lessons for decision makers. First, when making a decision, you may want to make sure that you establish your decision criteria before you search for alternatives. This would prevent you from liking one option too much and setting your criteria accordingly. For example, let’s say you started browsing cars online before you generated your decision criteria. You may come across a car that you feel reflects your sense of style and you develop an emotional bond with the car. Then, because of your love for the particular car, you may say to yourself that the fuel economy of the car and the innovative braking system are the most important criteria. After purchasing it, you may realize that the car is too small for your friends to ride in the back seat, which was something you should have thought about. Setting criteria before you search for alternatives may prevent you from making such mistakes. Another advantage of the rational model is that it urges decision makers to generate all alternatives instead of only a few. By generating a large number of alternatives that cover a wide range of possibilities, you are unlikely to make a more effective decision that does not require sacrificing one criterion for the sake of another.

Despite all its benefits, you may have noticed that this decision-making model involves a

number of unrealistic assumptions as well. It assumes that people completely understand the decision to be made, that they know all their available choices, that they have no perceptual biases, and that they want to make optimal decisions. Nobel Prize winning economist Herbert Simon observed that while the rational decision-making model may be a helpful device in aiding decision makers when working through problems, it doesn't represent how decisions are frequently made within organizations. In fact, Simon argued that it didn't even come close.

- **The Model of Bounded Rationality**

The “**satisficing**,” process-oriented view is based primarily on Simon's (1979) work on bounded rationality, admitting that the rational manager does not always have complete information, and that optimal choices are not always required. According to Simon (as quoted by Chase et al. (1998)), “human rational behaviour is shaped by a scissors whose two blades are the structure of task environments and the computational capabilities of the actor.” These scissors cut the problem space into a much smaller area that is feasible to search. The bounded rationality model of decision making recognizes the limitations of our decision-making processes. According to this model, individuals knowingly limit their options to a manageable set and choose the first acceptable alternative without conducting an exhaustive search for alternatives. An important part of the bounded rationality approach is the tendency to *satisfice* (a term coined by Herbert Simon from *satisfy* and *suffice*), which refers to accepting the first alternative that meets your minimum criteria. For example, many college graduates do not conduct a national or international search for potential job openings. Instead, they focus their search on a limited geographic area, and they tend to accept the first offer in their chosen area, even if it may not be the ideal job situation. Satisficing is similar to rational decision making. The main difference is that rather than choosing the best option and maximizing the potential outcome, the decision maker saves cognitive time and effort by accepting the first alternative that meets the minimum threshold. Bounded rationality is characterised by the activities of searching and satisficing. Alternatives are searched for and evaluated sequentially. If an alternative satisfies certain implicitly or explicitly stated minimum criteria, it is said to “satisfice” and the search is terminated. The process of searching might be made easier by the identification of regularities in the task environment.

Although Simon has been highly acclaimed for the theory of bounded rationality, it still describes rational behaviour. For this reason, a number of researchers, such as Huber (1981) and Das and Teng (1999), do not distinguish between perfect and bounded rationality in their

classification of decision-making models.

- **Intuitive Decision-Making Model**

The intuitive decision-making model has emerged as an alternative to other decision-making processes. This model refers to arriving at decisions without conscious reasoning. A total of 89% of managers surveyed admitted to using intuition to make decisions at least sometimes and 59% said they used intuition often (Burke and Miller, 1999). Managers make decisions under challenging circumstances, including time pressures, constraints, a great deal of uncertainty, changing conditions, and highly visible and high-stakes outcomes. Thus, it makes sense that they would not have the time to use the rational decision-making model. Yet when CEOs, financial analysts, and health care workers are asked about the critical decisions

they make, seldom do they attribute success to luck. To an outside observer, it may seem like they are making guesses as to the course of action to take, but it turns out that experts systematically make decisions using a different model than was earlier suspected. Research on life-or-death decisions made by fire chiefs, pilots, and nurses suggests that experts do not choose among a list of well thought out alternatives. They don't decide between two or three options and choose the best one. Instead, they consider only one option at a time. The intuitive decision-making model argues that in a given situation, experts making decisions scan the environment for cues to recognize patterns (Breen, 2000; Klein, 2003; Salas and Klein, 2001). Once a pattern is recognized, they can play a potential course of action through to its outcome based on their prior experience. Thanks to training, experience, and knowledge, these decision makers have an idea of how well a given solution may work. If they run through the mental model and find that the solution will not work, they alter the solution before setting it into action. If it still is not deemed a workable solution, it is discarded as an option, and a new idea is tested until a workable solution is found. Once a viable course of action is identified, the decision maker puts the solution into motion. The key point is that only one choice is considered at a time. Novices are not able to make effective decisions this way, because they do not have enough prior experience to draw upon.

- **Creative Decision-Making Model**

In addition to the rational decision making, bounded rationality, and intuitive decision-making models, creative decision making is a vital part of being an effective decision maker. Creativity is the generation of new, imaginative ideas. With the intense competition among companies, individuals and organizations are driven to be creative in decisions ranging from

cutting costs to generating new ways of doing business. While creativity is the first step in the innovation process, creativity and innovation are not the same thing. Innovation begins with creative ideas, but it also involves realistic planning and follow-through.

The **five steps** to creative decision making are similar to the previous decision-making models in some key ways. All the models include problem identification, which is the step in which the need for problem solving becomes apparent. If you do not recognize that you have a problem, it is impossible to solve it. Immersion is the step in which the decision maker consciously thinks about the problem and gathers information. A key to success in creative decision making is having or acquiring expertise in the area being studied. Then, incubation occurs. During incubation, the individual sets the problem aside and does not think about it for a while. At this time, the brain is actually working on the problem unconsciously. Then comes illumination, or the insight moment when the solution to the problem becomes apparent to the person, sometimes when it is least expected. This sudden insight is the “eureka” moment, similar to what happened to the ancient Greek inventor Archimedes, who found a solution to the problem he was working on while taking a bath. Finally, the verification and application stage happens when the decision maker consciously verifies the feasibility of the solution and implements the decision.

The Creative Decision-Making Process

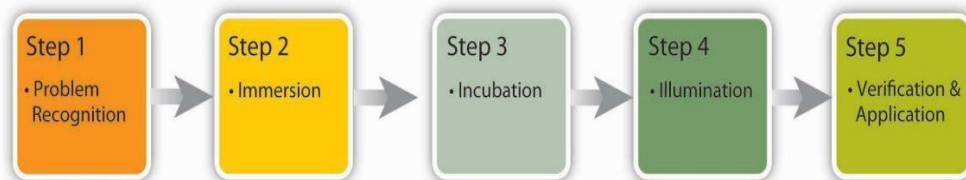


Image Source: Google images

Researchers focus on three factors to evaluate the level of creativity in the decision-making process. Fluency refers to the number of ideas a person is able to generate. Flexibility refers to how different the ideas are from one another. If you are able to generate several distinct solutions to a problem, your decision-making process is high on flexibility. Originality refers to how unique a person’s ideas are.

Dimensions of Creativity

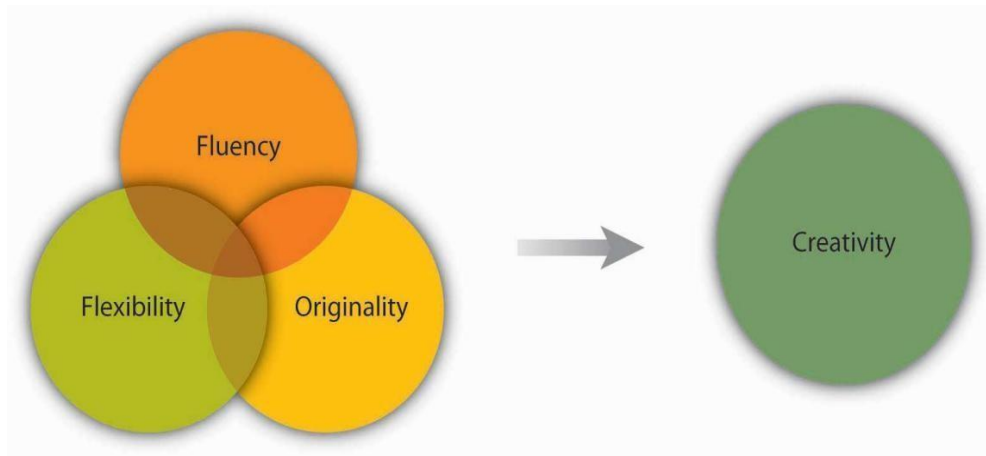


Image Source: Google images

The Models at a Glance

Decision Making Model	Use This Model When:
Rational	Information on alternatives can be gathered and quantified. The decision is important. You are trying to maximize your outcome.
Bounded Rationality	The minimum criteria are clear. You do not have or you are not willing to invest much time to make the decision. You are not trying to maximize your outcome.
Intuitive	Goals are unclear. There is time pressure and analysis paralysis would be costly. You have experience with the problem.
Creative	Solutions to the problem are not clear. New solutions need to be generated. You have time to immerse yourself in the issues.

3.6.3 Factors Affecting Decision-Making:

There are two kinds of factors to be considered in decision-making in favour of any alternative:

These may be classified as:

- i. Tangible and
- ii. Intangible Factors.

i. Tangible factors:

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Among the tangible factors relevant to decision-making the important ones are:

- (a) Sales
- (b) Cost
- (c) Purchases
- (d) Production
- (e) Inventory
- (f) Financial
- (g) Personnel and
- (h) Logistics

The effect of any decision on one or more of the tangible factors can be measured and therefore it is easy to consider the pros and cons of every decision. Decisions based on these factors are likely to be more rational and freer from bias and feelings of the decision-maker.

ii. Intangible Factors:

Among the intangible factors which may influence decision-making in favour of any alternative, the important ones are the effects of any particular decision:

- (a) Prestige of the enterprise
- (b) Consumer behaviour
- (c) Employee morale and so on.

Accurate information and data about these factors are not easy to obtain. Therefore, intuition and value-judgment of the decision-maker will assume a significant role in the choice of a particular alternative.

3.6.4 Types of Cognitive Bias

Biases in how we think can be major obstacles in any decision-making process. Biases distort and disrupt objective contemplation of an issue by introducing influences into the decision-making process that are separate from the decision itself. We are usually unaware of the biases

that can affect our judgment. The most common cognitive biases are confirmation, anchoring, halo effect, and overconfidence.

1. **Confirmation bias:** This bias occurs when decision makers seek out evidence that confirms their previously held beliefs, while discounting or diminishing the impact of evidence in support of differing conclusions.
2. **Anchoring:** This is the overreliance on an initial single piece of information or experience to make subsequent judgments. Once an anchor is set, other judgments are made by adjusting away from that anchor, which can limit one's ability to accurately interpret new, potentially relevant information.
3. **Halo effect:** This is an observer's overall impression of a person, company, brand, or product, and it influences the observer's feelings and thoughts about that entity's overall character or properties. It is the perception, for example, that if someone does well in a certain area, then they will automatically perform well at something else regardless of whether those tasks are related.
4. **Overconfidence bias:** This bias occurs when a person overestimates the reliability of their judgments. This can include the certainty one feels in her own ability, performance, level of control, or chance of success.

3.6.5 Group Conflict as a Barrier to Decision Making

Group dynamics, which involves the influence of social behaviour, is the primary determining factor in the success of group outcomes.

Delegating key decision making to groups, teams, or committees occurs often within organizations. Decisions made by groups can be better informed by broader perspectives and different sources of information and expertise than those made by an individual decision maker. Along with these advantages, however, interpersonal and group dynamics presents dilemmas that can make it more difficult for groups to make effective choices.

Group cohesion, or positive feelings between individuals and productive working relationships, contributes to effective group decision making. In cohesive groups information is more easily shared, norms of trust mean it is easier to challenge ideas, and common values help focus decisions around shared goals. Encouraging constructive disagreements and even conflict can result in more-creative ideas or more solutions that are easier to implement.

- **Groupthink**

One of the greatest inhibitors of effective group decision making is groupthink. Groupthink is a psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people in which the desire for harmony or conformity results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome. By isolating themselves from outside influences and actively suppressing dissenting viewpoints in the interest of minimizing conflict, group members reach a consensus decision without critical evaluation of alternative viewpoints.

Loyalty to the group requires individuals to avoid raising controversial issues or alternative solutions, and there is a loss of individual creativity, uniqueness, and independent thinking. The dysfunctional group dynamics of the in-group produces an illusion of invulnerability (an inflated certainty that the right decision has been made). Thus the in-group significantly overrates its own decision-making abilities and significantly underrates the abilities of its opponents (the out-group). Furthermore, groupthink can produce dehumanizing actions against the out-group.

Psychologist Irving Janus, the leading theorist of groupthink, identified ways of preventing it:

- Leaders should assign each member the role of “critical evaluator.” This allows each member to freely air objections and doubts.
- Leaders should not express an opinion when assigning a task to a group.
- Leaders should absent themselves from many of the group meetings to avoid excessively influencing the outcome.
- The organization should set up several independent groups working on the same problem.
- All effective alternatives should be examined.
- Each member should discuss the group’s ideas with trusted people outside of the group.
- The group should invite outside experts into meetings. Group members should be allowed to discuss with and question the outside experts.
- At least one group member should be assigned the role of devil’s advocate. This should be a different person for each meeting.

3.6.6 STRATEGIES OF DECISION MAKING

a) **Optimizing:** This is the strategy of choosing the best option among the identified alternatives. The effectiveness of this strategy relies on importance of the problem, time

limit, availability of resources, cost of other alternatives and the psychology of the decision maker. Often, there is a better decision than the decision made. It is better to place limitations to alternatives as it might not be possible to sample all alternatives for a case with large sample space.

- b) **Satisficing:** This strategy considers the first satisfactory alternative rather than the best. The word satisficing was derived from two words Satisfy and sufficient. Once, these two conditions are in place, then it is considered as the best option. This is mostly used in many small and quick decisions like where to park, what to where and what to eat.
- c) **Maximax:** This is maximising the maximums. In this strategy, evaluation is done and the alternative with the maximum profit is chosen as the best option. This is usually referred to as a decision of the optimist, as favourable outcome is expected and high potentials are the area of concern. This is usually used when risk is most acceptable and failure can be tolerated.
- d) **Maximin:** Also known as the minimum. This strategy is considered to be that of a pessimist as it considers the worst possible outcome of all alternatives and the one with the highest minimum is chosen. This type of strategy is used when failure is expensive and can't be tolerated.

3.6.7 ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND DECISION-MAKING

Organizational structure is the established pattern of relationship among components or parts of the organization. It prescribes the relationships among various positions and activities. Individuals hold the positions in the organizations and hence the structure is the relationship among people in the organizations. The structure of the organization has differentiation and integration as the two main considerations: differentiation dealing with the cognitive and emotional orientation while integration is related to quality of the state of collaboration that is required to achieve unity of effort by the environment. The environment influences the extent of differentiation but a high level of integration is a pre-requisite for better decision making. The structure of the organization varies depending on the objectives and requirements of the organization and this makes coordinating the decision-making constituent as a vital element, since the goal of any organizational structure is to enhance the abilities of its constituents for gainful activity. The type of decisions made by managers depends on their managerial level in the firm. Upper-level managers invariably concentrate on longer -range decisions that are concerned with establishing the firm's direction and ratifying actions selected to pursue it.

Middle level managers usually make mid-range decisions that integrate the direction set by top level managers with the realities of the firm's work processes. Operating level managers make shorter run decisions that are focussed on adjusting work processes to deal successfully with rapidly changing conditions that are taking place both inside and outside the firm. Regardless of their organizational positions all managers share the goal of making decisions that consistently move the firm toward achievement of its mission and a host of objectives flowing from it. Organisational structure may undergo change depending on the need of the needs. The usage of technology in organizations has contributed significantly to the organizational change. A company's reaction to environmental pressure is exhibited through its organizational structure.

3.7 CONCLUSION

Interpersonal skills are the life skills we use every day to communicate and interact with other people, both individually and in groups. People who have worked on developing strong interpersonal skills are usually more successful in both their professional and personal lives. Interpersonal skills are the life skills we use every day to communicate and interact with other people, both individually and in groups. People who have worked on developing strong interpersonal skills are usually more successful in both their professional and personal lives. Employers often seek to hire staff with 'strong interpersonal skills' - they want people who will work well in a team and be able to communicate effectively with colleagues, customers and clients. Problem solving and decision-making are important skills for business and life. Problem-solving often involves decision-making, and decision-making is especially important for management and leadership. There are processes and techniques to improve decision-making and the quality of decisions. Decision-making is more natural to certain personalities, so these people should focus more on improving the quality of their decisions. People that are less natural decision-makers are often able to make quality assessments, but then need to be more decisive in acting upon the assessments made.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- Q1. What do you see as the main difference between a successful and an unsuccessful decision? How much does luck versus skill have to do with it? How much time needs to pass to know if a decision is successful or not?
- Q2. Research has shown that over half of the decisions made within organizations fail. Does this surprise you? Why or why not?
- Q3. Have you used the rational decision-making model to make a decision? What was the

context? How well did the model work?

Q4. Share an example of a decision in which you used satisficing. Were you happy with the outcome? Why or why not? When would you be most likely to engage in satisficing?

Q5. Do you think intuition is respected as a decision-making style? Do you think it should be? Why or why not?

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

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3.9 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1. Discuss in detail the effective skills of workplace.

Q2. Write the factors that have impact on decision-making.

Q3. Does the organisational structure affect decision making? If yes, how?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT-4: LEADERSHIP QUALITIES, TEAMWORK, WORK-RELATED VALUES AND ATTITUDES

STRUCTURE

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4.7.1 JOB SATISFACTION

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4.7.3 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.7.4 THEORY OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.7.5 LEVELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.8 CONCLUSION

4.9 FURTHER READINGS

4.10 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After a careful reading of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe Leadership, Teamwork and Work-related Values and Attitudes
- Analyse the theoretical rationale behind the concepts
- Identify and interpret the interrelationships amongst the concepts
- Correlate various research findings in each concept

LEADERSHIP QUALITIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION, DEFINITION AND CONCEPT

Leadership has an immense impact on how the employees perform and grow, to lead positive organisational outcomes. For ages, Leadership has been a subject of much debate and deliberation and how the different styles of leadership evoke different responses from followers. In corporate context, the dynamics of these two entities ‘the leader’ and ‘the led’ play a key role in shaping the destiny of the organisation. An organization is run by people, and out of that group of people, there is one leader, who leads the organization. The most important factor in determining organizational success is effective leadership. Leadership is a key ingredient in corporate effectiveness. This view is by no means restricted to organizations, leadership also plays a central role in politics, sports and many other human activities. According to Bass and Avolio (1997), a single specific definition of leadership is a very complex task as literature and studies on this topic are varied and there is no one definition which is widely and universally accepted. Some definitions describe leadership as an act of influence, some as a process and yet others have looked at a person’s traits and qualities.

Leadership can be defined as the process whereby one individual influences other group member towards the attainment of common and defined group goals or organizational goals.

Neletal. (2004) define leadership as the process whereby one individual influences other to willingly and enthusiastically direct their efforts and abilities towards attaining defined group or organisational goals. Cole (2005) defines Leadership as a dynamic process

whereby one man influences others to contribute voluntarily to the realization and attainment of the goals, objectives, aspirations and values of the group. The essence of Leadership is to help a group or an organisation to attain sustainable development and growth.

Leadership is primarily a process involving influence – one in which a leader changes the actions or attitudes of several group members or subordinates. In general, leadership refers to the use of non-coercive influence techniques. This characteristic distinguishes a leader from a dictator. Leadership rests on positive feelings between leaders and their subordinates. Subordinates accept influence from leaders because they respect, like or admire them and not simply because they hold positions of formal authority (Cialdini, 1988).

The above definition also suggests that leadership involves the exercise of influence for a purpose i.e., to attain defined group or organizational goals. Leadership is a two-way street. Although leaders do indeed influence the subordinates in various ways but leaders are also influenced by their subordinates.

4.1.1 LEADERS vs. MANAGERS

In the words of Kotter, the primary function of a leader is to create the essential purpose or mission of the organization and the strategy for attaining it. By contrast, the job of the manager is to implement that vision. He or she is the means of achieving the end, which is the vision created by the leader. The confusion between these two terms rests in the fact that the distinction between establishing a mission and implementing is often blurred in practice. This is because many leaders, such as top corporate executives, are frequently called on not only to create a vision but also to help implement it. Similarly, managers are often required to lead those who are subordinate to them while at the same time, carrying out their leader's mission.

4.1.2 THEORIES BASED ON LEADER TRAITS AND BEHAVIORS

Early efforts to identify key traits that set leaders apart from other people (**the great person theory**) generally failed. However, recent evidence suggests that leaders do, in fact, differ from followers in certain respects. They are higher in leadership motivation, drive, honesty, self-confidence, and several other traits. In addition, successful leaders appear to be high in flexibility- the ability to adapt their style to the followers' needs and to the requirements of specific situations.

Leaders differ greatly in their style or approach to leadership. One key dimension involves the extent to which leaders are **directive** or **permissive** toward subordinates. Another dimension involves the extent to which they are **participative** or **autocratic** in their decision making. Leaders also vary along two other key dimensions: concern with, and efforts to attain, successful task performance (**initiating structure**) and concern with maintaining favourable personal relations with subordinates (**consideration**). Research shows that although these basic dimensions appear to be universal, many of the specific behaviors reflecting each one tends to be uniquely associated with the leader's culture.

4.1.3 THEORIES BASED ON LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS

Three approaches to leadership focus on the relationships between leaders and their followers. Graen's **leader-member exchange (LMX) model** specifies that leaders favor members of some groups—referred to as in-groups—more than others—referred to as out-groups. As a result, in-groups perform better than out-groups. **The attributional approach** focuses on leaders' attributions of followers' performance—that is, its underlying causes. When leaders perceive that their subordinates' poor performance is caused by internal factors, they react by helping him or her to improve. However, when poor performance is attributed to external sources, leaders direct their attention toward changing aspects of the work environment believed to be responsible for the poor performance.

Some leaders—known as **transformational** or **charismatic** leaders—exert profound effects on the beliefs, perceptions, and actions of their followers. Such leaders have a special relationship with their followers, in which they can inspire exceptionally high levels of performance, loyalty, and enthusiasm. An important factor in the impressive influence of transformational leaders over others involves their proposal of an **emotion-provoking vision**. Other actions by transformational leaders involve **framing**—defining the purpose of their movement or organization in highly meaningful terms—and the **willingness to take risks** and engage in **unconventional actions** to reach stated goals. Although many leaders use their charisma for ethical purposes, others do not.

4.1.4 CONTINGENCY THEORIES OF LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Contingency theories of leadership assume that there is no one best style of leadership, and that the most effective style of leadership depends on the specific conditions or situations faced. For example, **Fiedler's LPC contingency theory** suggests that both a leader's characteristics and situational factors are crucial. Task-oriented leaders (termed high-

LPC leaders) are more effective than people-oriented leaders (termed low-LPC leaders) under conditions in which the leader has either high or low control over the group in question. In contrast, people-oriented leaders are more effective under conditions where the leader has moderate control.

The **situational leadership** theory proposed by Hersey and Blanchard suggests that the most effective style of leadership—delegating, participating, selling, or telling—depends on the extent to which followers require guidance and direction, and emotional support. Effective leaders are required to diagnose the situations they face and implement the appropriate behavioral style for that situation.

House's **path-goal theory** of leadership suggests that leaders' behavior will be accepted by subordinates and will enhance their motivation only to the extent that it helps them progress toward valued goals and provides guidance or clarification not already present in work settings.

The **substitutes for leadership approach** suggests that leaders are unnecessary in situations in which other factors can have just as much influence. For example, leaders are superfluous when (1) sub-ordinates have exceptionally high levels of knowledge and commitment, (2) jobs are highly structured and routine, and (3) the technology used strongly determines individuals' behavior.

Finally, Vroom and Yetton's **normative decision theory** focuses on decision making as a key determinant of leader effectiveness. According to this theory, different situations call for different styles of decision making (e.g., autocratic, consultative, participative) by leaders. Decisions about the most appropriate style of decision making for a given situation are made on the basis of answers to questions regarding the quality of the decision required and the degree to which it is important for followers to accept and be committed to the decisions made. Complex decision trees are used to guide managers to the most appropriate styles of leadership.

4.2 LEADERSHIP QUALITIES

Successful leaders in business often demonstrate the following attributes:

- An attitude of positivity, reliability and pro-activeness
- clear vision of business goals
- a firm commitment towards meeting defined goals
- an ability to effectively communicate their vision
- commitment to their team and to their organisation

- skilfulness in planning and developing strategies
- a focus on motivation and setting clear directions
- the adaptability to engage with the views and needs of team members
- an ability to inspire employees to meet goals
- commitment to the happiness and wellbeing of their team
- honesty and openness with their team

The following table reflects some major and important qualities of a good and successful leader:

Author	Qualities Identified
Toor and Ofori (2008)	Hopeful, confident, optimistic, transparent, resilient, ethical and future oriented.
Lencioni (2008)	Honesty, ability to delegate, communication, sense of humour, confidence and commitment.
Clark (2010)	Genuine, self-awareness, leverage, transition, and supportive.
Archer et al. (2010)	Communication, people skills and decision-making skills, self-discipline, influence, integrity and reputation, and attitude.
Sprous (2011)	Humility, empowering, collaborative and communicative and fearlessness.
Hossian (2015)	Honesty, vision, inspiration, communication, delegation, decision, courage, fairness, kindness, magnanimity, forward-looking, knowledge, competency, confidence, commitment, gentle, accountability, creativity, sense of humour, intuition, focus, assertiveness, optimism and balance.
Shah and Pathak (2015)	Confidence and honesty.

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TEAMWORK

4.4 INTRODUCTION, DEFINITION and CONCEPT

A group is more than simply a collection of people. Social scientists have formally defined a group as a collection of two or more interacting individuals with a stable pattern of relationships among them who share their common goals and perceive themselves as being a group. Formal groups are created by the organisation and are intentionally designed to direct members towards some important organizational goal. Informal groups develop naturally among an organization’s personnel without any direction from the management of the organization within which they operate. One key factor in the formation of informal groups is a common interest shared by its members.

A team may be defined as a group whose members have complimentary skills and are committed to a common purpose or set a performance goal for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.

Teamwork is defined by Scarnati (2001) “as a cooperative process that allows ordinary people to achieve extraordinary results”.

Harris and Harris (1996) also explain that a team has a common goal or purpose where team members can develop effective, mutual relationships to achieve team goals.

In order for organisations to improve on the performance, teamwork is very key across all the departments. According to research by Cheruvelil (2014) most organisations globally are struggling to enhance teamwork in their operations. According to Wilson, (2008) a team is described as a group of people working jointly to drive certain results thus desired results will be achieved when the right team selected. To improve the organizational performance the individual must succeed first to enable match well when it come the group’s performance. This means that the whole group will perform only well if the individual has to first succeed at his own level. Members in a team are expected to have certain qualities like intelligence, effective communication skills, problem analysis to be solved and willing to work with the other staff in

getting solved solution. (Conti et al., 2009) in argued that the overall company performance is as a result of teamwork but not on individual performance.

West (2012) described a team as a unit of two or more people working or interacting together towards the achievement of the organizational or the group objectives. Exchanging of information, generating improvement suggestions, coordinating teams, helps to form the main tasks where development of new ideas and solutions for existing problems can be addressed in the organization. The same also help the organizations in the development of new practices and policies which helps in continuous improvement. For teams to be very successful they must have unique behaviours where ideas are initiated, various options are given, information is sought and energized team members are put in place to perform the tasks through creating a very conducive working environment. In order to improve the performance, the teams should embrace social emotional behaviours which help to encourage and harmonize the teams, reduce tension among the team members, help in the follow up of the instructions that comes from the organizational top leadership. According to Manasa et al.(2009) teams are units that work continuously and are accountable for the production of goods and services in organizations.

4.4.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TEAMWORK

There are certain characteristics that a team must have in order to work effectively. These characteristics are interrelated:

- It is imperative that **group cohesion** is strong within the team. There is a positive relationship between group cohesion and performance.
- **Communication** is another vital characteristic for effective teamwork. Members must be able to effectively communicate with each other to overcome obstacles, resolve conflict, and avoid confusion. Communication increases cohesion.
- Communication is important within teams to clearly define the teams purpose so that there is a **common goal**. Having a common goal will increase cohesion because all members are striving for the same objective and will help each other achieve their goal.
- **Commitment** is another important characteristic for teams. It occurs when members are focused on achieving the team's common goal.
- **Accountability** is necessary to ensure milestones are reached and that all members are participating. Holding members accountable increases commitment within team relations.

4.4.2 LEADERSHIP AND TEAMWORK

Team can't function if they can't agree on who is to do what and ensure all members share the work load. Agreeing on the specifics of work and how they fit together to integrate individual skills require leadership and structure, either from management or from team members themselves. Several studies have been conducted on leadership behaviour and team effectiveness. Burns (1978) distinguished between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Bucic, Robinson and Ramburuth (2010) found that the leader does have an effect on the team, and also that the leader's leadership style (transformational, transactional or ambidextrous) is critical to team level learning and performance. Leadership qualities that influence goal achievement include the ability to create a clear vision, the ability to understand organizational culture, the ability to focus on performance development and the ability to encourage innovation (Gomez, 2017). Leadership styles effect both employee contentment as well as employee performance. Contented team members are more likely to seek ways to contribute professionally to the team goals. A transformational style of leadership backed by well-defined roles and responsibilities of team members is crucial for the success of a team. An effective leader will motivate, guide, inspire and challenge his team to achieve greater levels of success.

Team structure is also a crucial component affecting a team's success According to Mican and Rodger (2000), there are two main team structures that an organization forms to meet its objectives: functional teams and project teams. Functional teams are responsible for various function such as marketing and finance and they are defined as permanent members of the organization who are responsible for the execution and achievement of the vision of the organization and solving serious conflicts and struggles. Project teams, on the other hand, the set up to achieve certain specific objectives, are temporary in nature and the team members usually return to their occupational routines when the task is achieved.

The ability to work as part of a team is one of the most important skills in today's job market. Employers are looking for workers who can contribute their own ideas, but also want people who can work with others to create and develop projects and plans.

Teamwork involves building relationships and working with other people using a number of important **skills and habits**:

- Working cooperatively

- Contributing to groups with ideas, suggestions, and effort
- Communication (both giving and receiving)
- Sense of responsibility
- Healthy respect for different opinions, customs, and individual preferences
- Ability to participate in group decision-making

4.4.3 SHORTCOMINGS and ADVANTAGES OF TEAMWORK

Utilizing teamwork is sometimes unnecessary and can lead to teams not reaching their performance peak. Some of those disadvantages include:

- **Social Loafing:** This phenomenon appears when an individual working in a group places less effort than they can towards a task. This can create an inequality between the amount of work other individuals are placing within the team, therefore can create conflict and lead to lower levels of performance.
- **Behaviour Conflicts or Ingrained Individualism:** Employees in higher organizational levels have adapted to their positions at the top that require more individualism, and therefore have trouble engaging in collaborative work. This creates a more competitive environment with a lack of communication and higher levels of conflict. This disadvantage is mostly seen organizations that utilize teamwork in an extremely hierarchical environment.
- **Individual Tasks:** Certain tasks do not require teamwork, and are more appropriate for individual work. By placing a team to complete an 'individual task', there can be high levels of conflict between members which can damage the team's dynamic and weaken their overall performance.
- **Groupthink:** A psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people when conflict is avoided and the desire for cohesiveness is greater than the desire for the best decision. When a team is experiencing groupthink, alternative solutions will not be suggested due to fear of rejection or disagreement within the group. Group members will measure success based on the harmony of their group and not by the outcome of their decisions. One way to avoid or counteract groupthink is to have members of a group be from a diverse background and have different characteristics (Gender, age, nationality). Another way to counteract groupthink is to require each member to suggest a different

idea.

Working in teams has also the following **advantages**:

- **Problem solving:** A group of people can bring together various perspectives and combine views and opinions to rapidly and effectively solve an issue. Due to the team's culture, each team member has a responsibility to contribute equally and offer their unique perspective on a problem to arrive at the best possible solution. Overall, teamwork can lead to better decisions, products, or services. The effectiveness of teamwork depends on the following six components of collaboration among team members: communication, coordination, balance of member contributions, mutual support, effort, and cohesion.
- **Healthy competition:** A healthy competition in groups can be used to motivate individuals and help the team excel.
- **Developing relationships:** A team that continues to work together will eventually develop an increased level of bonding. This can help members avoid unnecessary conflicts since they have become well acquainted with each other through teamwork. By building strong relationships between members, team members' satisfaction with their team increases, therefore improving both teamwork and performance.
- **Individual qualities:** Every team member can offer their unique knowledge and ability to help improve other team members. Through teamwork the sharing of these qualities will allow team members to be more productive in the future.
- **Motivation:** Working collaboratively can lead to increased motivation levels within a team due to increasing accountability for individual performance. When groups are being compared, members tend to become more ambitious to perform better. Providing groups with a comparison standard increases their performance level thus encouraging members to work collaboratively.

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CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- Q1.** It has often been said that “leaders are born, not made”. Do you agree? If so, why? If not, why?
- Q2.** Under what conditions are people-oriented leaders more effective than task-oriented leaders?
- Q3.** What are the main leadership qualities of a leader, which are almost decisive of his success as a leader?
- Q4.** While composing a work-team in an organization, what potential pitfalls can be encountered?
- Q5.** How can people have a free ride (social loafing) in teams?

WORK-RELATED VALUES and ATTITUDES

Individuals come with individual differences to work. They have a variety of personalities, values, and attitudes. When they enter into organizations, their stable or transient characteristics affect their behaviour and performance. Even, companies prefer to hire people with the expectation that they have certain knowledge, skills, abilities, personalities, and values. **In organizational context, work values play an important role to enhance work attitudes and performance.**

Research states that there are two types of prominent work values in organization, which are **intrinsic and extrinsic values**. Both of these work values will influence work attitude, such as **organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement**. Numerous of the research literature indicates that there is a positive correlation between work values and the work-related attitudes among employees in organization. Positive work values among employees in organization are important in increasing organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement. Giving more attention on work values will help organization in developing the human resource management system that is able to attract, as well as enhance job satisfaction and job involvement among employees (Froese and Xiao, 2012). Additionally, supervisor’s and co-worker’s support in the organization could potentially increase work

values, increase commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement.

4.6 WORK RELATED VALUES: CONCEPT, DEFINITION and MEANING

Values represent basic convictions that “a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.” They contain a judgmental element in that they carry an individual’s ideas as to what is right, good, or desirable. Values have both content and intensity attributes. The content attribute says a code of conduct or end-state of existence is important. The intensity attribute specifies how important it is. When we rank an individual’s values in terms of their intensity, we obtain that person’s value system. **All of us have a hierarchy of values that forms our value system, and these influence our attitudes and behaviour.** Values tend to be relatively stable and enduring. Most of our values are formed in our early years—with input from parents, teachers, friends, and others. As children, we are told that certain behaviours or outcomes are always desirable or always undesirable. There are few grey areas. It is this absolute or “black-or-white” learning of values that more or less ensures their stability and endurance.

4.6.1 Rokeach Value Survey: Milton Rokeach created the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS), which consists of two sets of values, each containing 18 individual value items. One set, called **terminal values**, refers to desirable end-states of existence. These are goals that individuals would like to achieve during their lifetime. They include:

- A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
- An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
- A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
- Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
- Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)
- Happiness (contentedness)

The other set, called **instrumental values**, refers to preferable ways of behaving, or means for achieving the terminal values. They include:

- Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)
- Broad-minded (open-minded)
- Capable (competent, effective)
- Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
- Imaginative (daring, creative)
- Honest (sincere, truthful)

Several studies confirm that RVS values vary among groups. People in the same occupations or categories (corporate managers, union members, parents, students) tend to hold similar values.

4.6.2 IMPORTANCE OF VALUES IN ORGANISATIONS

Values play an important role in individual life as well as among employees in organization. According to Rokeach (1973), values are related to the human needs and desires towards any situation that takes place in their life. Values also involve the concepts and beliefs that will affect emotions and attitudes, any situation, and guiding the selection and assessment of human behaviour (Ucanok, 2008). In organizations, work values become an interesting topic among the researchers in order to investigate work-related behaviour among employees (Ying and Aaron, 2010) such as job satisfaction and job involvement. However, previous research regarding the factors that influence employee satisfaction have found that there are many other aspects of work that contribute to their satisfaction besides money. Work values become one of the important factors that have a great influence on the career choice and the fulfilment of values that are related to job satisfaction (Hegney, Plank, and Parker, 2006). In the words of Grieser and Stutzman (2019) - For a vehicle to do its job, it needs both an engine for power and a steering system so it can be guided. An organization is no different: its purpose is the engine that propels it forward, and its values are the steering system by which it is guided.

Purpose defines *why* you do what you do, and values define *how* you act in service of that purpose. Values are a key component of a healthy workplace culture because they clarify how your organization and its staff should behave. They provide the framework within which you can test decisions, accomplish tasks, and interact with others.

Values help organizations determine a range of acceptable behaviours, defining for leaders and employees alike which actions are encouraged and which are unacceptable. Values tell staff what is good for the organization and what is unhealthy. For example, in our own organization we have defined “receptivity to feedback” as a value that is core to our identity. Our collective clarity about this value allows us to more willingly cut ties with contractors or employees who have been unreceptive to feedback even if there are other things we like about them. As a result, we are surrounded by people who are not only easier to work with, but who are also committed to improvement and personal growth.

When organizations explicitly define their true values, they provide immediate clarity for decision making. They provide a reference point in the hiring processes, performance reviews,

and any disciplinary actions. An organization's values create helpful boundaries that show staff and clients where the organization will go and where it won't go.

4.6.3 INTRINSIC and EXTRINSIC VALUES

Intrinsic work values: Intrinsic (terminal) values refer to the degree to which an individual enhances their personal growth, use their external talent, enhances creativity, and improve quality of life during the courses of their work (Chin-Chih, 2006). Intrinsic work values also refer to the individual internal factor or self-actualization gained from working, contributing to society and having meaningful work (Parboteeah, Paik, and Cullen, 2009). Intrinsic work values directly express employee's openness to change their value that are related to the pursuit of autonomy, interest, growth, and creativity in work. Employees might also seek out challenging tasks that allow them to develop new skills and enhance values that satisfy their need and desire.

Extrinsic work values: Extrinsic (instrumental) values refer to the degree of excellence which an individual tries to obtain in social interaction, getting a harmonious social relationship, freedom and try to achieve a balance between services within the organizational systems. It also involves the importance of holistic environment to fulfil their sense of security and maintain their needs while they are working (Chin-Chih, 2006). Extrinsic work values are also similar to the instrumental values which are focusing on external outcomes pertaining to the job and include work benefit, work security and less demanding work (Parboteeah, et al., 2009). Employees in organizations try to satisfy their extrinsic values of work such as job security and income provided by organization with the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives.

Chin-Chih (2006) mentioned that intrinsic values consisted of three dimensions, which are self-growth tendency, self-realisation tendency and self-esteem tendency. Meanwhile, the extrinsic work values comprised of four dimensions, which are social interaction tendency, organizational security and economic benefits tendency, stability and anxiety-free tendency, and lastly, health and transport tendency.

A good part of people's **well-being** at work comes from their ability to act in ways that are congruent with their values. Many people are proficient at and enjoy their tasks, but they are ultimately dissatisfied because their personal values do not align with those of their employer. On the other hand, when an employee's values are in line with their organization's values, they may do tasks that aren't always enjoyable, but they can still be satisfied. Just as it is important

to be able to identify with an organization's purpose, it is also important to align with its values. Organizations that authentically define their values show employees how to align their behaviours with the things that matter to the organization. They also make it clear where individuals may be out of step with the organization, providing them with an impetus to leave. In either case, defining and communicating values create clarity for action.

4.7 WORK RELATED ATTITUDES

Attitudes are evaluative statements—either positive or negative—about objects, people, or events. They reflect how we feel about something. When I say, “I like my job,” I am expressing my attitude about work. Specific attitudes tend to predict specific behaviours, whereas general attitudes tend to predict general behaviours. For instance, asking an employee about her intention to stay with an organization for the next six months is likely to better predict the turnover for that person than asking her how satisfied she is with her job. On the other hand, overall job satisfaction would better predict a general behaviour, such as whether the employee is engaged in her work or motivated to contribute to her organization. In organizations, attitudes are important because they affect job behaviour. Employees may believe, for example, that supervisors, auditors, managers, and time and-motion engineers are all conspiring to make them work harder for the same or less money. This may then lead to a negative attitude toward management when an employee is asked to stay late and help on a special project. Employees may also be negatively affected by the attitudes of their co-workers or clients. How we behave at work often depends on how we feel about being there. Therefore, making sense of how people behave depends on understanding their work attitudes. An **attitude** refers to our opinions, beliefs, and feelings about aspects of our environment. We have attitudes toward the food we eat, people we meet, courses we take, and things we do. At work, two job attitudes have the greatest potential to influence how we behave. These are job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

4.7.1 JOB SATISFACTION

Choose a job you love, and you will never have to work a day in your life.

Confucius

Work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction have a dual interest to managers. On one hand, they represent important outcomes that managers may want to enhance. On the other hand, they are symptomatic of other potential problems such as low job satisfaction and employee's intention to quit. It is thus important for managers to

understand the causes and consequences of key work attitudes such as job satisfaction. (Hoppock, 1935), in his classic definition defines job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to truthfully say that they are satisfied with a job.

Job satisfaction essentially reflects the extent to which an individual likes his or her job. Job satisfaction is an **affective or emotional response** towards various facets of one's job, which means that a person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his or her job and dissatisfied with one or more other aspects. For example, an employee may be satisfied because of aspects like work, co-employee and supervisors but may be dissatisfied because of promotion and pay based on his or her values and attitudes (Skokie and McNally, 1969). It is important to understand these causes in order to find a solution to stop the decline of job satisfaction. Since values and attitudes are directly related to job satisfaction (Hom and Griffeth, 1995), the knowledge about job satisfaction can also assist managers in using a multifaceted approach towards increasing work attitudes. Managers can thus enhance employee satisfaction by structuring the work environment and its associated and recognition to reinforce employee's values and attitude.

Job satisfaction has been called a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work (Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, and Baddar, 2006).

Job satisfaction refers to the feelings people have toward their job. If the number of studies conducted on job satisfaction is an indicator, job satisfaction is probably the most important job attitude.

4.7.2 Ten Proven Ingredients for Job Satisfaction

We may already have an idea of ingredients that go into making work satisfying. Although it is subjective, [job satisfaction research](#) (Kumari, 2011) has showcased the following:

- 1. Communication:** Communication can be extremely important to retaining levels of satisfaction, on both a personal and professional level. It is exhibited in allowing employees to be open, collaborative, trustworthy, and even confrontational when needed.
- 2. Culture:** A company's culture determines job satisfaction as it provides values and guidance about topics ranging from organizational goals to appropriate levels of interaction between employees.

- 3. Security:** It's no surprise that once a culture is established in a workplace, satisfaction can then be enhanced by added feelings of security. Security may arise from knowing you work for a viable company with long-term goals, insinuating feelings of belonging to that company (Berg, Grant, and Johnson, 2010). This can be enhanced by having honest communication and transparency within a company.
- 4. Leadership:** Tied into increased motivation for employees, leadership, or influencing a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2006), can lead to job satisfaction by making sure communication and instruction of tasks is adequate and easily understood. In turn, when employees feel that leaders can guide them through tasks, their motivation and satisfaction increase.
- 5. Opportunities:** Employees can gain more satisfaction with their job when more challenging opportunities arise. This can lead to participation in interesting and diverse projects and get employees away from the monotony of a role.
- 6. Career development:** Employees can become more satisfied with their job when they know there is an individualized plan for them. Beyond the formal nature of appraisals, if there is a path in place for growth, this can encourage employees to stay happier for longer.
- 7. Working conditions:** Job satisfaction can be increased if a resilient workplace is a cooperative environment. This means a place with respect for diverse ideas and opinions, honest and constructive feedback, mentoring opportunities, and freedom from harassment.
- 8. Employee personality:** Most ingredients linked to job satisfaction may have roots in elements outside of the employees' control (such as leadership from managers and communication from company leaders), but what about the employees themselves? Can they control their own levels of satisfaction? Bakker, Tims, and Derks (2012) talk about just that. These researchers discuss how job satisfaction can be determined by how proactive the employee is at work. Does the employee proactively seek out a manager for feedback? Does the employee go the extra mile to achieve tasks within a company? Does the employee try to stick to company goals, lead meetings, and ask questions when unsure about how to complete a task? If yes, these employees are the ones who can show more satisfaction in the workplace. Proactiveness in the workplace can lead to positive job appraisals, which when fed back to the employee, can lead to satisfaction.
- 9. Pay and Benefits:** Organizational success and job satisfaction are also linked to

employees' perceptions of adequate pay and benefits (Edwards, 2008). While pay and benefits are not the only reason employees find satisfaction in their workplaces, research going back more than 30 years (e.g., Gerhart, 1987) shows that pay and benefits, at least according to how employees view themselves in their roles, has ranked high on lists of job satisfaction factors.

10. Rewards and Recognition: Beyond monetary gain and being paid fairly for the work they do, job satisfaction for employees means that promotional policies are unambiguous and in line with their expectations.

A key finding here (Kumari, 2011) is that satisfaction at a job is not exclusively linked to pay, but to the perceived fairness of how one is recognized at work for achievements.

4.7.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment is the emotional attachment people have toward the company they work for. A highly committed employee is the one, who accepts and believes in the company's values, is willing to put out effort to meet the company's goals, and has a strong desire to remain with the company. People who are committed to their company often refer to their company as "we" as opposed to "they" as in "in this company, we have great benefits." The way we refer to the company indicates the type of attachment and identification we have with the company.

There is a high degree of overlap between job satisfaction and organizational commitment because things that make us happy with our job often make us more committed to the company as well. Companies believe that these attitudes are worth tracking because they often are associated with outcomes that are important to the controlling role, such as performance, helping others, absenteeism, and turnover. Early studies on organisational commitment viewed the concept as a single dimension, based on an attitudinal perspective, embracing identification, involvement and loyalty (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974). According to Porter et al (1974), an attitudinal perspective refers to the psychological attachment or affective commitment formed by an employee in relation to his identification and involvement with the respective organisation. Another perspective on organisational commitment is the "exchanged-based definition" or "side-bet" theory (Becker, 1960; Alluto,

Hrebiniak and Alonso, 1973). This theory holds that individuals are committed to the organisation as far as they hold their positions, irrespective of the stressful conditions they experience. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) support the "side-bet" theory by describing

organisational commitment as a behaviour "relating to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with this problem". This behavioural aspect of organisational commitment is explained through calculative and normative commitments.

Meyer and Allen (1984) initially viewed organisational commitment as two dimensional namely, affective and continuance. Meyer and Allen (1984) defined the first dimension, namely affective commitment as "positive feelings of identification with, attachment to and involvement in the work organisation", and they defined the second dimension, namely continuance commitment as "the extent which employees feel committed to their organisation by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving". After further research, Allen and Meyer (1990) added a third dimension, namely normative commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) define normative commitment as "the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation". Consequently, the concept organisational commitment is described as a tri-dimensional concept, characterised by the affective, continuance and normative dimensions (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Common to the three dimensions of organisational commitment is the view that organisational commitment is a psychological state that characterises organisational members' relationship with the organisation and has

4.7.4 Theory of organizational commitment

A distinguished theory in organizational commitment is the Three-Component Model (TCM) (Meyer and Allen, 1997). According to this theory, there are three distinct components of organizational commitment:

Affective commitment: This is the emotional attachment an employee has towards the organization. This part of TCM says that an employee has a high level of active commitment, then the chances of an employee staying with the organization for long are high. Active commitment also means, an employee is not only happy but also engaged in the organizational activities like, participation in discussions and meetings, giving valuable inputs or suggestions that will help the organization, proactive work ethics, etc.

Continuance commitment: This is the level of commitment where an employee would think that leaving an organization would be costly. When an employee has a continuance in commitment level, they want to stay in the organization for a longer period of time because they feel they must stay because they have already invested enough energy and feel attached to the organization – attachment that is both mental and emotional. For example, a person over

a period of time tends to develop an attachment to his/her workplace and this may be one of the reasons why an employee wouldn't want to quit because they are emotionally invested.

Normative commitment: This is the level of commitment where an employee feels obligated to stay in the organization, where they feel, staying in the organization is the right thing to do. What are the factors that lead up to this type of commitment? Is it a moral obligation where they want to stay because someone else believes in them? Or is it that they feel that they have been treated fairly here and that they do not wish to take the chance of leaving the organization and finding themselves in between the devil and the deep sea? This is a situation where they believe they ought to stay.

4.7.5 Levels of Organisational Commitment Higher level of Organisational Commitment

A high level of organisational commitment is characterised by a strong acceptance of the organisation's values and willingness to exert efforts to remain with the organisation (Reichers, 1985). Miller (2003) states that "high organisational commitment means identifying with one's employing organisation". The "will to stay" suggests that the behavioural tendencies at this level relate closely with affective dimension of commitment, where individuals stay because they want to.

Moderate level of Organisational Commitment

The moderate level of organisational commitment is characterised by a reasonable acceptance of organisational goals and values as well as the willingness to exert effort to remain in the organisation (Reichers, 1985). This level can be viewed as a reasonable or average commitment, which implies partial commitment. The willingness to stay is an attribution of a moral commitment associated with the normative dimension of commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The individuals stay in the organisation because they should do so.

Lower level of Organisational Commitment

The low level of organisational commitment is characterised by a lack of neither acceptance of organisational goals and values nor the willingness to exert effort to remain with the organisation (Reichers, 1985). The employee who operates on this level must be disillusioned about the organisation. Such an employee may stay because he or she needs to stay as associated with the continuance dimension (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Given an option they will leave the organisation.

CHARACTERISTICS OF OVER-COMMITMENT AND UNDER-COMMITMENT

(Lowman, 1993)

Under-commitment
Fear of success
Fear of failure
Chronic and persistent procrastination
Negative cultural, familial and personality factors
Chronic and persistent underachievement
Over- commitment
Overly loyal employees
Job and occupational burnout
Obsessive-compulsive patterns at work
Neurotic compulsion to succeed
Extreme high level of energy

4.8 CONCLUSION

Leadership is an integral part of any organisation. A leader defines the direction of a team and communicates it to people, motivates, inspires and empowers them to contribute to achieving organisational success. The ingredients of effective leadership are complex and are widely agreed to depend on the specific leadership situation, considering the difficulty of tasks, the degree of a leader's authority and the maturity and capabilities of subordinates. Leadership skills can be learnt, though may often take time to learn, because they are multi-faceted, behavioural and context dependent. Becoming an effective leader is challenging to many new managers, but offers the rewards of successfully orientating peoples work to be most effective and achieving excellence in team performance. An understanding of the principles of strategic thinking, direction setting, communications and motivation provides a springboard for developing skills and an effective management style to suit your personality and leadership situations.

Teamwork has been a key factor in the progress, evolution, and survival of humanity. Research suggests that teamwork provides better results for organizations than individual work. Teamwork is considered one of the most effective work forms. Working in teams also benefit the individual on a personal level as it fulfils needs such as social interaction and affiliation. Regardless of the profuse research validating the effectiveness teamwork brings to organizations, many management personnel still do little to build teams.

Work values are employee's personal convictions about the outcomes he or she should expect

from work and how he or she should behave at work. Attitude, on the other hand, is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner towards a given subject. Work values and attitudes capture the range of thoughts and feelings that make up the experience of work. Because work values are more stable and long lasting, they can strongly affect work attitudes and hence employee's level of job satisfaction. In order for the employees to be satisfied with their job, their interpersonal, intra-personal, and individual organization values, all must be aligned to avoid many work-related conflicts. Attitudes towards work are not as long-lasting values, and hence can be changed by increasing pay, promotion or moving to another position. By aligning employee's values with that of organizations and by addressing the attitude problems of employees, management can increase the job satisfaction level. Satisfied employees are less likely to quit their job, or be absent from work, have less stress and will perform their job better.

4.9 FURTHER READINGS

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- Becker, H. S. (1960). "Notes on the Concept of Commitment". *American Journal of Sociology*. **66** (1): 32–40.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- Q1. Why might you find an employee who is highly dissatisfied with his or her job and the organization but simply remains on the job and does not take a new one in another organization?
- Q2. How is job satisfaction related to work performance?
- Q3. Can you be satisfied and committed to your job at the same time? How and Why?

4.10 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

- Q1. Is there any difference between leaders and managers? Discuss the theories based on leader traits and behaviors.
- Q2. Discuss the theory of Organisational Commitment.
- Q3. What are the levels of Organisational Commitment?

Q4.How is job satisfaction related to work performance?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT –5: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

STRUCTURE

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5.7 FURTHER READINGS

5.8 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After a careful reading of this unit, you will be able to:

- Interpret the nature of Organisational Communication and Interpersonal Behaviour
- Analyse levels of Self-awareness through Johari Window
- Analyse interpersonal behaviour through transactional analysis.
- improve interpersonal behaviour through transactional analysis
- Identify the power of grapevine and ways to control it in organisations

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The individual dimensions of organizational behavior viz. personality, perception, learning, motivation, attitudes and values and stress shape the individual behavior. But these dimensions are changed to a certain degree when the individual comes in contact with others in the organization where he interacts:

1. on one-to-one basis
2. on one to group basis
3. on group to one basis

4. on group-to-group basis.

In each type of interaction, the individual faces different types of situations. Therefore, how he affects the behavior of others and how his behavior is affected by others differ.

5.2 ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION: CONCEPT & DEFINITION

To define, it can be said that **communication** is the process by which a person, group or organization (the sender) transmits some type of information (the message) to another person, group or organization (the receiver).

The communication process begins when one party has an idea that wishes to transmit that idea to another party. It is the sender's mission to transform the idea into a form that can be sent to and understood by the receiver. This is what happens in the process of encoding i.e., translating an idea into a form such written or spoken language, that can be recognized by a receiver. After a message is **encoded**, it is ready to be transmitted over one or more channels of communication to reach the desired receiver through the path ways along which information travels. Once a message is received, the recipient must begin the process of **decoding** i.e., converting the message back into the sender's original ideas. This can involve many different sub processes, such as comprehending spoken and written words, interpreting facial expressions and the like. Finally, once the message has been decoded, the process can continue, with the receiver transmitting a new message back to the original sender. This part of the process is known as **feedback** i.e., knowledge about the impact of messages on receivers. Receiving feedback allows senders to determine whether their messages have been understood properly.

One key purpose of organisational communication is to direct action, that is, to get others to behave in a desired fashion. Communication in organisations often involves not only single efforts but also concerted action. Communication is the key to these attempts at coordination. There is also an **interpersonal facet of organizational communication**- a focus on social relations between people.

5.2.1 INTERPERSONAL COOPERATIVE BEHAVIOR

When the interaction between two persons is mutually gratifying, it is cooperative behavior. In this case, both persons are engaged in complementary transactions. Out of this interaction, both persons get satisfied over the objectives of mutual trust and respect, concern for each other's need, and interaction with complementary ego states. In organizational setting, such behaviors are functional and lead to the achievement of organizational objectives providing

satisfaction individuals at the sametime.

5.2.2 INTERPERSONAL CONFLICTING BEHAVIOUR

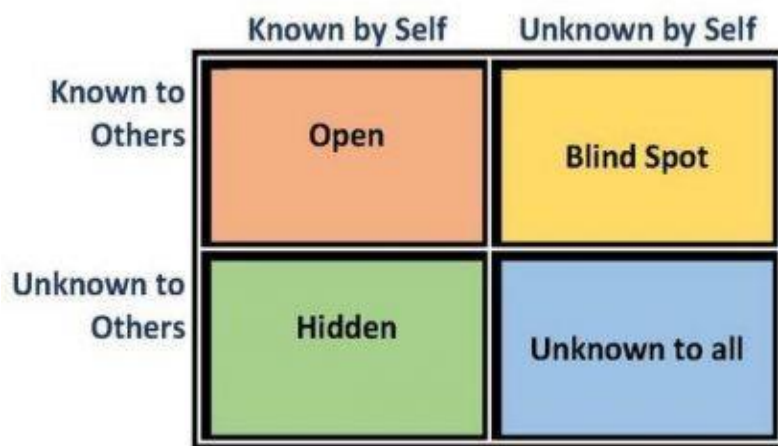
Out of interpersonal interaction, it is not necessary that only cooperative behaviour will result. Because of several reasons like personality differences, different value systems, interest conflict, role ambiguity and many times, communication gap also, interpersonal conflict may arise in the organization. This type of behavior may not be functional for the organization. Therefore, the managers should take effective steps to overcome such behaviours.

To analyze and improve organizational communication and interpersonal behavior, **Johari Window** and **Transactional Analysis** techniques have been developed. Its detailed discussion is presented here.

5.3 JOHARI WINDOW: LEVELS OF SELF AWARENESS

The dyadic relationship can be thought of as composed of interself. Self is the core of personality pattern which provides interaction. Such a concept is cognitive: it describes the self in terms of image, both conscious and unconscious. A central construct in the interself is the image of relationships—those aspects of the codes and means of the interperson known and shared by its participants. Other portions of these codes are hidden to the members and yet may be known to others. Joseph Luft and Harrington Ingham have developed a diagram that gives an idea of what one is conscious in one's social exchanges and what one is not. Their Johari window diagram (named combining the first few letters of their names) looks like this.

Image Source: Google images



This model is made up of four different quadrants that together represent total person in relation to others on the basis of awareness of behavior, feeling, and motivation. Each quadrant is defined as follows:

1. **The Open Self:** The open quadrant refers to the states about an individual such as behavior, feelings, and motives that he knows and is willing to share with others. Sometimes, in a relationship, the individual is straightforward, open and sharing. It is clear to both what he is doing, how he is feeling, and what his motives are.
2. **The Blind Self:** The blind quadrant refers to states about an individual known to others but not known to him. Other people know what is happening to him but he is not aware of it. Often such blind behavior is copied by the individual from significant people unconsciously right from childhood. Because such a behavior is copied unconsciously, people may not be aware about it. We may speak in certain way- with a tone of voice, a look on our face, a gesture that we are blind to, but other people are acutely aware of it.
3. **The Hidden Self:** The unknown quadrant refers to states about the individual known to him but not known to others. This is private and only the person concerned knows what is happening. The hidden self is within the vision of the individual but he does not want to share with others. People learn to hide many feelings and ideas right from their childhood.
4. **The Unknown Self:** The unknown quadrant refers to states that neither the individual nor other people know about him. The unknown self is mysterious. Many times, motives and feelings go very deep and no one, including the person concerned, knows about these. People often experience these parts of life in dreams or in deep-rooted fears or compulsions. These acts, feelings, and motives remain vague and unclear to people until they allow them to surface.

5.3.1 CHANGE IN AWARENESS WITH AWARENESS

The awareness about self is not static, rather, it changes continuously. As awareness changes, quadrant to which the psychological state is assigned also changes. Jungeward identified eleven principles of such change

1. A change in any one quadrant will affect all other quadrants.
2. It takes energy to hide, deny, or be blind to behaviour which is involved in interaction.
3. Threat tends to decrease awareness; mutual trust tends to increase awareness.
4. Forced awareness (exposure) is undesirable and usually ineffective.

5. Interpersonal learning means a change has taken place so that the quadrant 1 is larger, and one more of other quadrants has grown smaller.
6. Working with others is facilitated by a large enough area of free activity. It means more of the resources and skills of the persons involved can be applied to the task at hand.
7. The smaller the first quadrant, the poorer the communication.
8. There is universal curiosity about the unknown area, but this is held in check by custom, social training and diverse fears.
9. Sensitivity means appreciating the covert aspects of behaviour in quadrants 2, 3, and 4, and respecting the desire of others to keep them so.
10. Learning about group processes, as they are being experienced, helps to increase awareness (enlarging quadrant 1) for the group as a whole as well as individual members.
11. The value system of a group and its members may be observed in the way the group deals with unknowns in the life of the group itself.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- Q1. Using an example of an everyday communication in organization, describe how the communication process operates.**
- Q2. "Interpersonal interaction depends on the awareness of the self but people are not fully aware of themselves". Explain this statement with the help of Johari Window. How can this self-awareness be increased?*

5.4 TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

People spend a large portion of their time in organizations interacting with others. They provide the connective tissues that help to hold together the subparts of the organization. While there are exceptions, in general, these are pair relationships, which the people conduct themselves, that is, they are two person contacts. The dyadic relationship involves the social transactions between them and the Transactional Analysis is an attempt to understand and improve such transactions.

Transactional Analysis (TA) offers a model of personality and the dynamics of self and its relationship to others that makes possible a clear and meaningful discussion of behavior.

TA refers to a method of analyzing and understanding interpersonal behavior. When people interact, there is social transaction in which one person responds to another. The study of these transactions between people is called Transactional Analysis. TA was originally developed by Eric Berne for psychotherapy in 1950. He observed in his patients that often it was several different people were inside each person. He also observed that these various “selves” transmitted with people in different ways. Later, its application to ordinary interactions was popularized by Berne, Harris & Jongeward. TA involves analysis of awareness, structural analysis (ego states), analysis of transaction, script analysis and games analysis.

5.4.1 EGO STATES

Another aspect of self is the ego states of persons, an important aspect of TA. People interact with each other in terms of three psychological positions, or behaviour patterns, known as ego states. Thus, ego states are a person's way of thinking, feeling and behaving at any time. These ego states are: parent, adult and child. These have nothing to do with the chronological age of persons, rather they are related to the behavioural aspects of age. Thus, a person of any age may have these ego states in varying degrees. A healthy person is able to move from one ego state to another. Further, these three ego states are not concepts like Freud's id, ego, and super ego. They are based on real world behaviour.

5.4.1 a PARENT EGO

The parent ego state incorporates the attitudes and behaviours of all emotionally significant people who serve as parent figure when an individual was a child. The value and behaviour of these people are recorded in the mind of the individual and these become the basic values of the personality. Characteristics of a person acting with the parent ego include being overprotective, distant, dogmatic, indispensable and upright. Physical and verbal clues that someone is acting with the parent ego include the wagging finger to show displeasure, reference to laws and rules and reliance on ways that were successful in the past.

There can be two types of parent ego states: nurturing and critical. Nurturing parent ego states reflect nurturing behaviour not only towards children but also to other people in interaction. Similarly, critical parent ego state shows critical and evaluative behaviour in interaction with others. Each individual has his unique parent ego state which is likely to be a mixture of helpfulness and hurtfulness. Awareness of this ego gives more choice over what one does.

5.4.2 b ADULT EGO

Adult ego state is based upon reasoning, seeking, and providing information, Person interacting with adult ego views people as equal, worthy, and responsible human beings. It is based on rationality. The adult is characterized by logical thinking and reasoning. This ego state can be identified by verbal and physical signs which include thoughtful concentration and factual discussion. The process of adult ego state formation goes through one's own experience, and continuously updating parental injunction by verifying. Though certain values which are formed in the childhood are rarely erased, and individual at the later stage of the life may block his child and parent ego states and use his adult ego only based on his experience. He updates the parent data to determine what is valid and what is not. Similarly, he also updates child data to determine which feelings should be expressed. Thus, he keeps and controls emotional expressions appropriately.

5.4.2c CHILD EGO

Characteristics of child ego include creativity, conformity, depression, anxiety, dependence, fear and hate. Physical and verbal clues that person is acting in the child ego are silent compliance, attention seeking, temper tantrums, giggling, and coyness. The child ego is characterized by non- logical and immediate actions which result in immediate satisfaction. Child ego state reflects early childhood conditions and experience perceived by individual in their early years of life, that is, before the social birth of an individual say, up to the age of five years.

There are three parts of child ego: natural, adaptive, and rebellious. The natural child is affectionate and impulsive and does what comes naturally, However, he is also fearful, self-indulgent, self-centered and aggressive and may emerge in many unpleasant roles. The adaptive child is the trained one and he is likely to do what parents insist on, and sometimes learns to feel non-O.K. The rebellion child experiences anger, fear, and frustration.

Each person may respond to specific stimulus in quite distinct way from each ego state. Table 1 presents behavioral responses with each ego state.

Table 1: Behavioural responses with different ego states

Parent ego	Adult ego	Child ego
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Rules and laws Do's and Don'ts Truths How to Teaching Demonstrating	Tradition	Rationality Evaluation Figuring out Testing	Estimation Storing data Exploring	Seeing, hearing, touching Experiencing joy / frustration. Creating Wishing / fantasizing Feeling internally Impulsive Spontaneous
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While analyzing ego states of a person, following aspects are relevant:

1. In the course of interaction, a person is likely to display all three ego states though one egostate may be predominant.
2. One can observe the ego state of the person that is in control by observing not only the words used by the person but also his postures, gestures, and face expressions.
3. Each ego state has both positive and negative features- it can add to or subtract from a person's feeling of satisfaction.

5.4.2 LIFE SCRIPTS

When confronted with a situation, a person acts according to his script which is based on what he expects or how he views his life position. In a sense, man's behavior becomes quasi-programmed by the script which emerges out of life experience. In everyday language, a script is the text of a play, motion picture, or radio programme. In TA, a person's life is compared to a play and the script is the text of that play. A person's psychological script is a life plan, a drama which he writes and then feels compelled to live out. Thus, every person has a life script. Script analysis is an examination of transactions and interactions to determine the nature of one's life script. Berne has contributed most to the understanding of life script. To him,

"Script is a complete plan of living, offering both structures- structure of injunctions, prescriptions and permissions, and structure which makes one winner or loser in life"

5.4.3 LIFE POSITIONS

The individual's behaviour towards others is largely based on specific assumptions that are made early in life. Very early in the childhood, a person develops from experiences a dominant philosophy. Such philosophy is tied into their identity, sense of worth, and perceptions of other people. This tends to remain with the person for life time unless major

experiences occur to change it. Such positions are called life positions or psychological positions, and fall into four categories as shown in the following figure:

Image Source: Google images



1. **I am O.K. you are O.K.** This is a rationally chosen life position. It is made after the individual has a large number of O.K. experiences with others. People with this position about themselves and others can solve their problems constructively. They accept the significance of other people and feel that life is worth living. This is based on adult ego. When managers work from his position, they are likely to express a more consistent pattern of confidence. They display a much higher level of mutual give and take. They are able to express freely what they feel good about others because it offers little threat to them. They delegate authority and feel comfortable with a spread of authority.
2. **I am O.K. and you are not O.K.** This position is taken by people who feel victimized or persecuted. They blame others for their miseries. This is the case of aggrieved person with an attitude that whatever they do is right. This is a distrustful life position. It usually results when a person was too much ignored when he was a child. These are the people with rebellion child ego in this life position, the persons operate with parent ego. Managers operating with this position are likely to give critical and oppressive remarks. They tend to point out the flaws, the bad things, rarely giving any warm, genuinely carrying feelings. They lack trust or confidence in the intelligence, skills and talents of others. They do not believe delegation of authority and feel that decentralization is a threat.
3. **I am not O.K. you are O.K.** – This position is common to persons who feel powerlessness in comparison to others. It is based on one's feelings about oneself. Individuals who feel a clear distinction between themselves and the people around them who could do many things that the individuals could not do, hold this life position.

Persons with this life position always grumble for one thing or the other. Managers operating from this position tend to give and receive bad feelings. They often use their bad feelings as an excuse to act out against others, and when the whole thing comes full circle, they feel guilty for their acts and turn their badfeelings against themselves. They tend to vacillate in their behaviour and are often unpredictable and erratic.

4. **I am not O.K. you are not O.K.** This is a desperate life position. This position is taken by those people who lose interest in living. They feel that life is not worth living at all. In extreme cases, they commit suicide or homicide. This is the case of individuals who are neglected seriously by their parents. Managers operating from this position, are likely to get put down strokes from others. They do not make decisions in time, make stupid mistakes or otherwise provoke others to give them negative reactions. They lack personal potency, look to others for final decisions, and delegate inappropriately.

One of these positions dominates each person's life. The desirable position is one that provides an adult-adult transaction, that is, 'I am O.K. you are O.K.' It shows acceptance of self and others. The adults move into O.K.-O.K. position through psychological understanding and conscious choice. This position can be learned through education, understanding, positive and mature psychological experiences. The other three positions are less psychologically mature and less effective.

5.4.4 TRANSACTIONS

When people interact, they involve in a transaction with others. Thus, when a stimulus (verbal or non-verbal) from a person is being responded by another person, a transaction is said to occur. The transaction is routed from ego states. Depending on the ego states of persons involved in transactions, there may be three types of transaction – complementary, crossed and ulterior.

5.4.4 a COMPLEMENTARY TRANSACTIONS

A transaction is complementary when the stimulus and response patterns from one ego state to another are parallel. Thus, the message by a person gets the predicted response from another person. In all, there can be **nine complementary transactions**. These are adult-adult, parent-child, child-parent etc. The transaction is complementary because both are acting in the perceived and expected ego states. Usually in such a case, both persons are satisfied and communication is complete. Three complementary transactions are elaborated as follows:

1. **Adult-Adult Transactions:** The manager in the adult ego state tries to reason out issues,

clarifies and informs employees of issues, and has concern for facts and figures. His life position is 'I am O.K. and you are O.K.' This is an ideal transaction. Complementary transactions in these ego states are very effective because both persons are acting in a rational manner. Data is processed, decisions are made and both parties are working for the solutions. Satisfaction is achieved by both persons from the solution rather than one person (superior) having other person (subordinate) a dutiful employee or the subordinate only trying to please his superior. However, there are some inherent disadvantages to the adult-adult transactions. The elimination of the child ego can make the transactions dull due to the lack of stimulation that child can provide. Sometimes adult-adult level may prevent decisions being reached due to rational data-processing procedures and a deadline may emerge. In such a case, the superior may have to take the decision with his parent ego state. In general, however, this is the best type of transactions for organizational functioning.

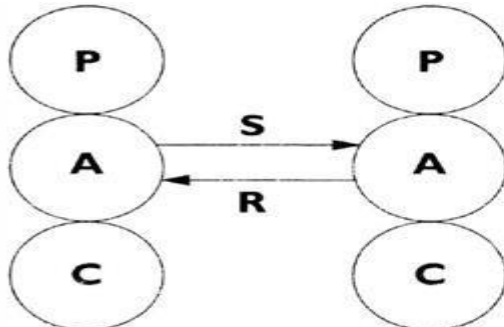
2. **Adult-parent Transactions:** In adult-parent transaction, while the manager attempts to use the information he has processed, the employee in the parent ego prefers to use set patterns and rules of the past. The employee tries to control and dominate the manager by using the parent ego. The transaction style can be effective only on a temporary basis. It can help a new manager understand the rules and guidance under which the employee operates. There are many problems in this transaction style. An employee in the parent ego may create hostile feelings towards managers with adult ego, particularly in the long run. The employee may create other problem when other employees are working with their child ego and recognizing his parent ego because he may have better interaction with other employees.
3. **Adult-Child Transactions:** Adult-child interaction can be effective when the manager is aware of the ego state of the employee. In such a case, the manager can allow the employee in the child ego to be creative. But there may be problem in this interaction when the employee acts irrationally because of his child ego. Another problem in this context maybe in the form of assumption of employee's ego who may be taken in adult ego but this assumption may not hold good. This creates a situation that may be frustrating to the manager and the employee.
4. **Parent-Parent Transactions:** The manager in the parent ego uses 'I am O.K. you are not O.K.' life position. He will be a source of admonitions, rewards, rules, criticisms, praise. The parent-parent transaction can be beneficial in cases whose employee joins forces with

the manager and supports him. There are certain disadvantages of this type of situation. This may lead to unnecessary competition between the manager and the employee because the latter will promote his own idea rather than those of the manager.

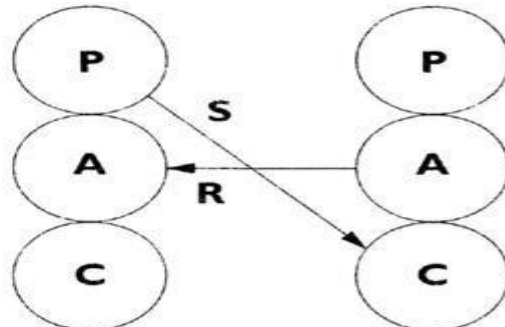
5. **Parent-Adult Transactions:** In this type of transaction, the manager may be frustrated because the employee will not perform as directed. At the same time, the employee may also feel frustration because of the manager's failures to act as adult. Due to frustration, such a relationship may not last long.
6. **Parent-Child Transactions:** This may be the ideal situation if the manager is interacting with parent ego and the employee is acting in his child ego. The employee finds this transaction advantageous in that it eliminates much responsibility and pressure. The child prevents much conflict and provides for ease operation. However, this situation may not be advantageous in the long run. This depends on the feeling that employees are not capable of doing anything. The employee suffers from this interaction because he has to surrender his adult ego.
7. **Child-Parent Transactions:** The manager in the child ego may contribute very little to the effectiveness of management. This is so that, though creativity is one of the characteristics of child, the role of a manager goes beyond this creativity. In the child-parent transaction, the employee controls the manager in the child ego. The parent will be strong on the child, and the manager will yield to the employee. The employee may hold threats of punishment to the manager in the form of ridicule, loss of popularity or even in demotion.
8. **Child-Adult Transactions:** In this transaction, the adult employee will control child manager. The employee may become discouraged particularly when the manager makes decisions on the basis of whims, fancies, and emotions which pose problems to employee who wants to interact on the basis of rationality. A major disadvantage of this transaction is that the organization may lose many good employees, particularly those who act on rational basis.
9. **Child-Child Transactions:** The manager interacting in child-child egos is not capable of leading his employee successfully and proves to be a liability to the organization. This transaction may not be lasting because the organization will review performance. Both manager and employee are acting on whim and fancy, consequently jeopardizing the organizational performance.

Although all these are possible complementary transactions in the organization because the line of communication is parallel, not all of these are ideal for the organization or for the people concerned. From this point of view, only adult-adult transactions are good. In some circumstances, as discussed earlier, parent-child complementary transactions may be good.

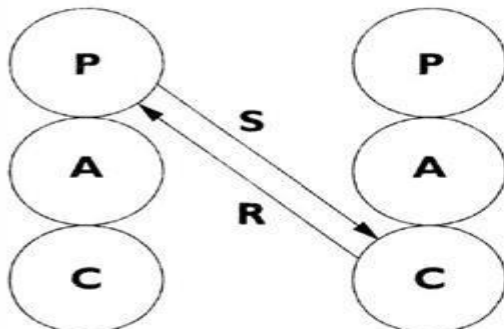
Image Source: Google images



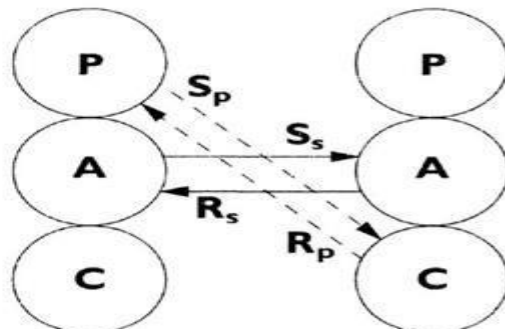
(a) Adult-Adult complementary transaction



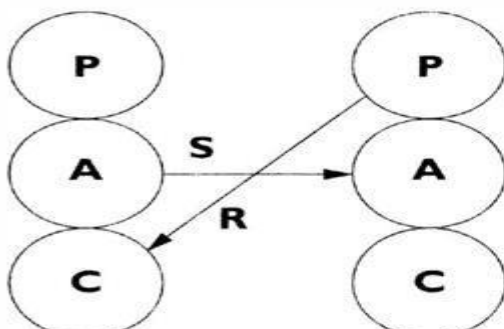
(d) P-C, A-A crossed transaction



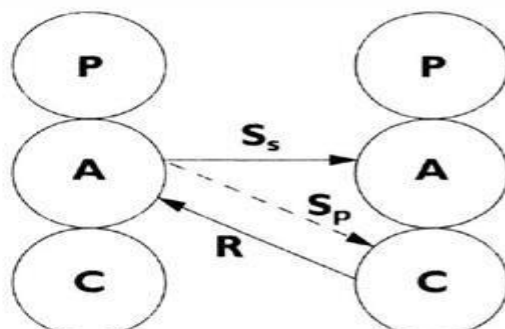
(b) P-C, C-P complementary transaction



(e) Duplex ulterior transaction: social level A-A, A-A; psychological level P-C, C-P



(c) A-A, P-C crossed transaction



(f) Angluar ulterior transaction

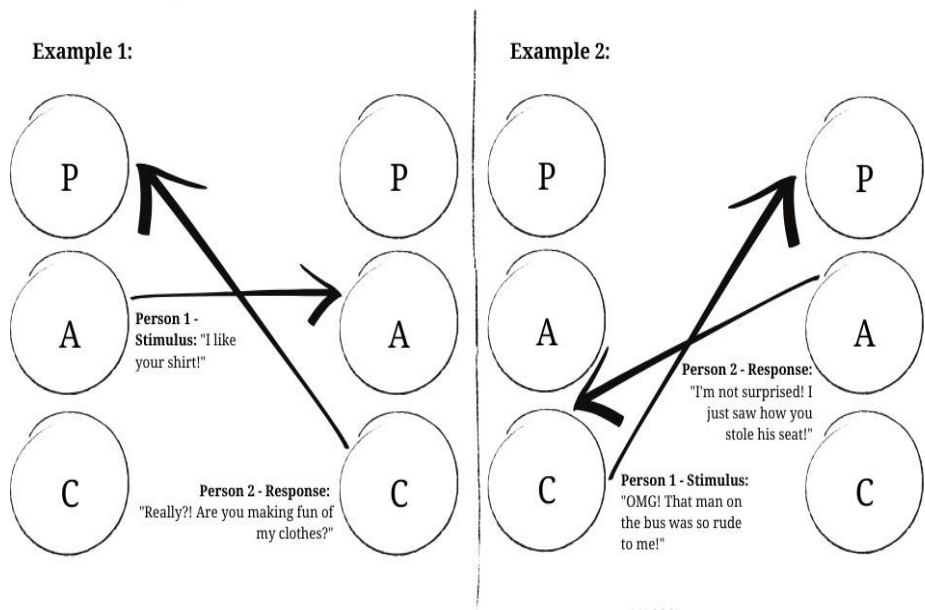
5.4.4b NON-COMPLEMENTARY TRANSACTIONS

Non-complementary or **crossed transactions** may occur when the stimulus-response lines are not parallel. This happens when the person who initiates transaction expecting a certain response does not get it.

The manager tries to deal with the employee on adult-to-adult basis but the employee responds on child to parent basis and the communication is blocked.

Crossed transaction is not a satisfactory one because the line of communication is blocked and the further transaction does not take place. In such a case, the manager might refuse to play parent-child game and may try again for an adult communication. Another alternative for the manager may be to move parent-child state in order to resume communication with the employee. Source of following image – Google.

Transactional Analysis: Crossed Transactions



Crossed transactions can happen quickly. A comment from one ego state can trigger a response from a different ego state. This explains why people 'take things the wrong way' or 'bite your head off'. The stimulus was directed at one ego state, another responded.

5.4.4 c ULTERIOR TRANSACTIONS

Ulterior transaction is the most complex because the communication has double meaning. When an ulterior message is sent, it is often disguised in a socially acceptable way. On the surface level, the communication has a clear adult message, whereas it carries a hidden message on the psychological level. Ulterior transaction, like blocked transactions, are undesirable.

5.4.5 STROKING

Stroking is an important aspect of transactional analysis (TA). It is defined as any act implying recognition of another's presence. The word stroking has originated from the studies of the needs that babies have for physical affection for complete psychological development. Now it applies to all types of recognition. People seek recognition in interaction with others. Lack of stroking has its consequence both on physiological and psychological well-being of the persons. The future of autonomy of a person depends upon the type of stroking he gets since his childhood. Jongeward and Seyer observe that 'People need strokes for their sense of survival and wellbeing on the job'. In fact, strokes are a basic unit of motivation. As a general guide:

1. The quantity and quality of strokes serves as either positive or negative motivation for employees
2. A good share of satisfaction we get from work depends on the strokes available from other people
3. We can get strokes from the activities of the work itself- specially if what we are doing really fits and we can take responsibility for it

For positive results on the job, it is crucial to give people positive strokes. If a person does not get proper strokes, he learns to manipulate the environment to get strokes. Even if he is not able to get stroking after manipulating, he settles for a state which gives negative strokes. This process may continue even after child grows older unless he updates his original experience and becomes aware of the reality.

There are two types of strikes—positive and negative. The stroke that makes one feel O.K. is a positive one. Words of recognition, affection, pat on the back are some of the examples of positive strokes. As against this, the strokes that make one feel as not O.K. is a negative one. Criticism, hating and scolding are the examples of negative strokes. However, people do not always seek positive strokes only. They may seek negative strokes also for such reasons as guilt or a low self-image. The negative stroke completes a social transaction for the people as they think it should be, that is, it provides social equilibrium from their point of view. For example, when a superior criticizes his subordinate for committing certain mistakes, the latter may feel relieved of his mistake since expected punishment has been received. However, negative strokes rarely change the undesirable behavior. The positive behavior can be secured by avoiding the punishing parent-to-child approach and initiating an adult-to-adult interaction.

Further giving and receiving of positive strokes can be learned and people can make efforts to give positive strokes.

5.4.6 PSYCHOLOGICAL GAMES

A psychological game is a set of transactions with three characteristics:

1. The transactions tend to be repeated;
- 2 They make sense on superficial or social level; and
3. One or more of the transactions is ulterior.

The set of transactions ends with a predictable payoff- a negative feeling. Payoffs usually reinforce a decision made in childhood about oneself or about others. They reflect feelings on non- OKness. When people play games, they do things like this: fail to come through for others, pass the buck, make mistakes, complain about and dote on their own sorrows and inadequacies, and catch others in the act. Psychological games can be a powerful force in preventing people and organisations from becoming winners.

Game players usually assume one or three basic roles: victim, persecutor, or rescuer. Persecutors are characterised by such people who make unrealistic rules. Enforce rules in cruel ways, and pick on little guys rather than people of their own size. Victims are people who provoke others to put them down, use them and hurt them, send them helpless messages, forget conveniently, and act confused. Rescuers are characterized by people who offer helpfulness to keep others dependent on them, do not really help others and may actually dislike helping, and work to maintain the victim role so they can continue to play rescuer. These three roles are not independent, rather the players of psychological games often switch back and forth in their roles. In many circumstances such characteristics may be real. For example. people may be really victimised personally or politically, or discriminated against on the job. In such a case they are real victims. However, psychological game denoted that people assume the role of game players, and differ from reality.

5.4.6.1 REASONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL GAMES

People usually learn their game patterns right since their childhood. They learn to believe certain things about themselves and about others, and act accordingly. As grown-ups they play games for a variety of reasons, important of them being as follows:

1. **To get strokes. People want positive strokes on their jobs:** However, when they are not able to get these from others, they try to set a situation where they satisfy their needs for

strokes.

2. **To strengthen psychological positions:** Games are generally played to strengthen people hold non-OK positions, they try to emphasize it through the games. Jongeward observes that most of us occasionally assume an I am not - OK position and arrange our worlds to confirm it. For people who think themselves as not - OK, kick me games provide a powerful way to reconfirm negative expectations.
3. **To avoid or control intimacy** – People who fear openness, accountability, and responsibility in relationships, play games as avoidance. This is so because games put distance between people. They can be used to control or block intimacy, keeping people away from open and honest encounters.

5.4.6.2 METHODS OF PREVENTING GAMES

Games are essentially two-way transactions. Thus, they can be broken on either side. However, an effective thwarting of someone's game is not possible without changing the psychological position of the person concerned. This is so because it is unrealistic to assume that the person is cured of game playing if suitable response is held. The person may be cured of playing the game only in that particular situation or with the person, and there is possibility that the person may play that game elsewhere. A therapeutic change is often necessary for permanent change. The knowledge of TA gives for more effective control over hurtful or harmful relationships on the job. Jongeward has suggested the following steps to overcome the psychological games.

1. Avoidance of the complementary hand;
2. Avoidance of acting roles involved in games, particularly victim roles;
3. Avoidance of putting other people down;
4. Avoidance of putting oneself down;
5. Giving and taking positive strokes as against negative strokes;
6. Investing more of life's time in activities and intimacy; and
7. Levelling the thinking with others.

5.4.7 BENEFITS AND USES OF TA

TA is an approach towards understanding human behaviour. Thus, it can be applied to any field of human interactions. This is more particularly related when people come for interaction, and that too in interpersonal relationships. Following are some of the specific areas where TA can be applied beneficiary.

5.4.7a DEVELOPING POSITIVE THINKING

TA is applied to bring positive actions from people because TA brings positive approach towards life and hence positive actions. TA brings a clear change from negative feelings, confusion, defeat, fear, frustration, loneliness, pessimism, and suppression – positive feelings – clear thinking, victory, achievement, courage, gratification, decision-making, friendship, optimism and fulfillment. Such a change from negative attitude to positive attitude is a source of psychic energy. Positive attitude makes people stronger and negative attitude makes them exhausting. Whole objective of TA training programme is directed towards positive thinking. Thus, its application can enhance the trust and credibility felt towards the organization which are essential for good employee relations. Some of the specific areas for developing positive thinking through TA are stroking positive reinforcement, inner dialogue as related to decision-making, active listening and time-structuring.

5.4.7b IMPROVES INTERPERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

TA improves interpersonal relationships by providing understanding of ego states of persons involved in interaction. It emphasizes complementary transactions which ensure complete communication and problem-solving approach. Since complementary transactions can be learned by individuals in the organization, people can improve interpersonal relations through TA. The effective managers may be able to analyse transactions with employees in the organization. TA provides them with a theoretical framework within which to examine interaction with the employees. The managers may be able to identify the ego states from which both parties are interacting. A better understanding of themselves and of other persons will make them more comfortable, confident and effective. The improved interpersonal relations will bring effectiveness to the organization.

POWER OF GRAPEVINE

5.5 INTRODUCTION, CONCEPT & DEFINITION

A rapid flow of informal information from one person to another, which results in further informal flow to the other people also is commonly referred to as the grapevine i.e., the pathways along which unofficial, informal information travels. It is in contrast to a formal organizational message, which might take several days to reach its desired audience, information traveling along the organizational grapevine tends to flow very rapidly, often within hours.

Informal information tends to be communicated orally. One interesting aspect about

oral messages is that oral messages are communicated faster than the written ones but may become increasingly inaccurate as they flow from person to person.

Informally socializing with our co-workers can help make work groups more cohesive and may also provide excellent opportunities for desired human contact keeping the work environment stimulating. Grapevines must be considered an inevitable fact in life in organizational set-ups (Greenberg and Baron, 2000).

Walton (1961) in his classic study found that 82 percent of the information communicated along a particular company's organizational grapevine on a single occasion was accurate.

The problem with interpreting the figure is that the inaccurate portions of some message may alter their overall meaning e.g., if a story is doing the rounds that someone got passed by for promotion over a lower-ranking employee, it may cause quite a bit of dissension in the workplace. However, suppose everything is true except that a person turned down the promotion because it involved relocating. This important fact completely alters the situation. This problem of inaccuracy is clearly responsible for giving the grapevine such a bad reputation. In extreme cases, information may be transmitted that is almost totally without any basis and usually unverifiable. Such messages are known as rumours. Typically, rumours are based on speculations, which is an overactive imagination and wishful thinking, rather than based on facts. Rumours race like wildfire through organisations because the information they present is so interesting and ambiguous.

The ambiguity leaves it open to additions and deletions and further additions as it passes orally from one person to the next. Before you know it, almost everyone in the organisation has heard the rumour and its inaccurate message becomes almost a 'fact'. The effects of the rumours can be profound. This is especially the case when organisations are the victims of the rumours e.g., about the possibility of corporate takeovers may not only influence the value of a company's stock, but also threaten its employees' feelings of job security.

Sometimes rumours about company products can be very costly e.g., a rumour about the use of worms in McDonald's hamburgers circulated in Chicago area in the late 1970s. Even though the rumour was completely untrue, sales dropped as much as 30 percent in some restaurants (Thibaut, Calder and Sternthal, 1981).

In June, 1993, stories appeared in the press stating that people across the United States found syringes in cans of Pepsi Cola. Although the stories proved to be completely without

fact, the hoax cost Pepsi plenty in terms of investigative and advertising expenses (Lesley and Zinn, 1993).

Grapevine Communication happens in every organization, no matter the company size or industry. Grapevine affects the employee experience significantly as well as the business performance and your ability to build trust with your employees.

5.5.1 Negative sides of Grapevine Communication in the workplace

1. Lack of trust in the workplace.
2. Partial or false information in the workplace.
3. Misunderstanding and misinformation in the workplace.
4. Information overload.
5. Lack of control.
6. Lack of cooperation among employees.

5.5.2 Ways to deal with Grapevine Communication

1. Always keep your employees informed and provide credible and easily accessible sources of important information.
2. Choose the right communication channels to build trust with your employees.
3. Eliminate information overload in the workplace.
4. Engage your employees in two-way daily conversations.
5. Spot your internal influences i.e., your employees that other people listen to and trust.
6. Implement the right communication technology.
7. Inform your employees in a timely manner.

5.6 CONCLUSION

Johari Window and **Transactional Analysis** techniques have been developed to analyze and improve organizational communication and interpersonal behavior. The awareness that Johari Window analysis brings can make a significant difference. TA can be utilized anywhere the people come to interact. Jongeward has suggested that transactional analysis is a practical and useful interrelationship model for organizations because:

1. It is easy to learn

2. It gives a positive communication tool that is practical and almost immediately usable
3. It helps to increase a person's on-the-job effectiveness because of better self-understanding and greater insight into personalities and transactions
4. It may help solve personal and family problems
5. It gives a common language for people working together to attempt to solve their own communication problem
6. It is a non-threatening approach to self-evaluation
7. It offers a method for analysing not only people but also organizational scripts

On the other hand, Grapevine is unavoidable and can be very unpleasant also. But the seniors and super-ordinates need to make all efforts to curb its spread as much as possible and create a trustworthy source of information.

5.7 Further Readings

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CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- Q1. What do you mean by ego states as used in transactional analysis? What are the different types of ego states and the behavioral responses that emerged from each ego state?
- Q2. What do you mean by life script and life positions? What are the different psychological forms of life as used in transactional analysis?

Q3. What are the different transactions that emerge out of interpersonal interaction? Discuss the situations under which each transaction is useful.

Q4. What are psychological games and why people play these games? Discuss the methods of overcoming the problems that emerge because of these games.

Q5. What is stroking? How does it affect the persons to engage in positive behaviour?

Q6. Your company is being victimised by a totally untrue rumour about a pending merger. What steps would you recommend taking to put the story to an end? Explain

Q7. Your company is being victimised by a totally untrue rumour about a pending merger. What steps would you recommend taking to put the story to an end? Explain.

5.8 Questions for Practice

Q1. Discuss Johari Window: Levels of Self-awareness.

Q2. What is Transactional Analysis? What are the different psychological forms of life as used in transactional analysis?

Q3. Discuss the concept and definitions of Organisational Behaviour.

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT --6 MENTAL STRENGTH AND FLEXIBILITY

STRUCTURE

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

6.2 RESILIENCE

6.2.1 DEFINITION

6.2.2 MODELS OF RESILIENCE

6.2.3 CYCLE OF RESILIENCE

6.2.4 COMPONENTS OF RESILIENCE

6.2.5 RESILIENCE AT WORK PLACE

6.3 OPTIMISM

6.3.1 DEFINITION

6.3.2 OPTIMISM AND HEALTH

6.3.3 OPTIMISM VERSUS PESSIMISM

6.3.4 CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF OPTIMISM

6.3.5 OPTIMISM AT WORK PLACE

6.4 SUMMARY

6.5 KEYWORDS

6.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

6.7 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the concept and importance of resilience.
- Explore the skills and strengths associated with resilience.
- Recognize the basic steps necessary to build resilience at the workplace.
- Understand optimistic thinking and how it affects professional outcomes.
- Explain the benefits of optimism and positive workplace.

6.2 RESILIENCE

The word ‘resilience’ comes from the Latin word ‘resiliens’ and it refers to elastic quality of a substance. The term ‘resilience’ is sometimes used interchangeably with other terms like hardiness, positive coping, adaptation, adjustment, and persistence. In the psychology literature resilience is used to describe the positive quality of a person’s response to stress and adversity (Rutter, 1987).

6.2.1 DEFINING RESILIENCE

According to Masten (2005): “Resilience as a phenomenon that is associated with positive consequences despite major threats to adaptation of development.”

According to Ryff and Singer (2003): “Resilience is maintenance, recovery or improvement in mental or physical health following challenge.”

6.2.3 MODELS OF RESILIENCE

There are three resilience models that describe the influence of stress on the quality of adaptation.

- a. **The compensatory model** conceptualizes resilience as a characteristic that neutralizes exposures to risk. There are four central characteristics of young adults who are considered resilient: an active approach toward solving problems, perceiving experiences in a positive manner even when they are facing stress, ability to attract attention of other persons, and a strong reliance on spirituality to uphold an optimistic life view. Kumpfer and Hopkins’s (1993) identified several compensatory factors such as optimism, empathy, insight, intellectual competence, self-esteem, direction, determination, and perseverance. Facing adversity helps individuals to develop those skill sets and competencies that help in managing and coping with challenges and crises.
- b. **The challenge model** posits that challenges and stresses increase the individual’s capacity to adapt and be ready to face new trials and hardships.

c. **The protective model** of resilience is derived from developmental literature and systems theory. It postulates that there is an interaction between risk and protection factors that moderate the effect of exposure to risk and decreases the likelihood of adverse consequences. The protective factors like healthy personality characteristics and problem-solving skills ensure a positive outcome even when one faces stressful and negative life events and circumstances. Several protective factors such as emotional management skills, intrapersonal skills, academic and job skills, reflectiveskills, self-esteem, planning, and life skills have been identified.

6.2.4 THE RESILIENCE CYCLE

A resilience cycle explains the phases through which individuals go through when facing stress. (Patterson and Kelleher, 2005). There are 4 phases: deteriorating phase, adapting phase, recovery phase, and growing phase. The resilience of the individual determines which phase of the cycle one is in. Fig 1 graphically depicts the phases of resilience.

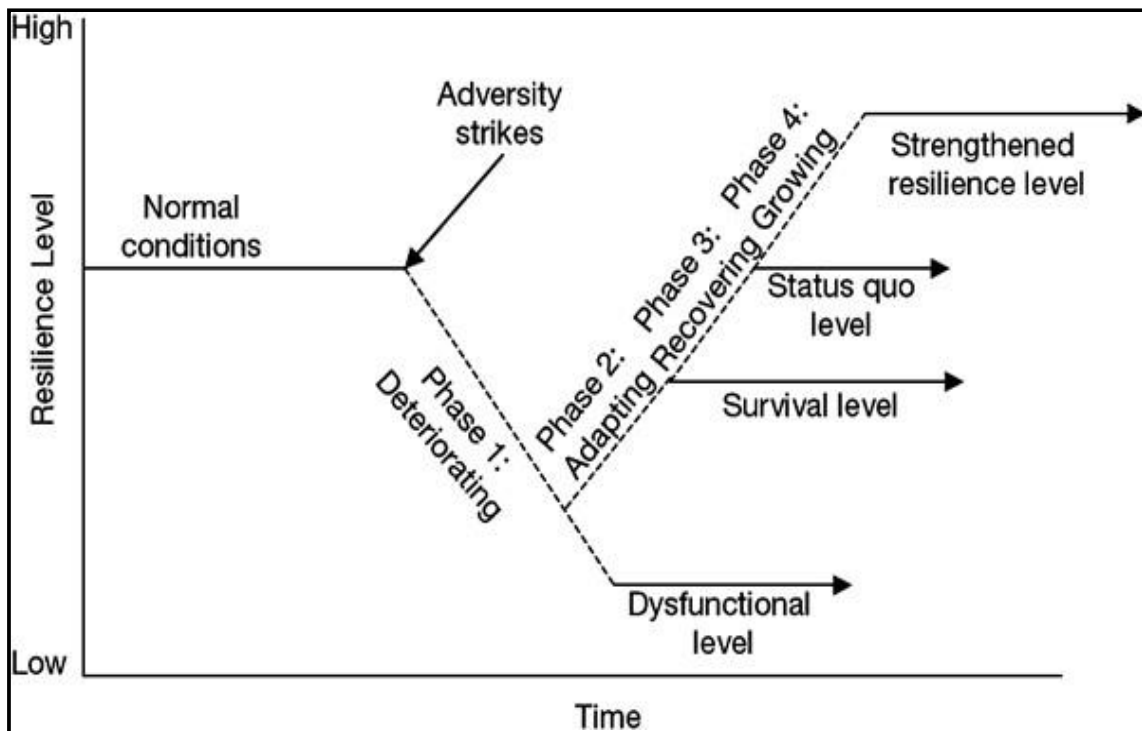


Fig 1: The resilience cycle (from Patterson & Kelleher, 2005)

a) **Deteriorating Phase:** Individuals who are unable to adapt and accept challenges will fall into a dysfunctional level and not be able to cope or survive the hardship are in the deteriorating phase. Some of the common emotions experienced in the phase are denial, grief, and anger. The person may feel he is the victim. This is an unhealthy phase

but most people do not remain in this phase for too long and generally come out of this stage and move on to the next stage of adaptation.

- b) **Adapting phase:** After the downward-inclined deteriorating phase, most employees bounce back and start to take some actions to start adapting to the new challenges, such as change of boss, new demands of the jobs, and change in work culture. This phase is an important transitional step that can take the person to a better phase of adaptation and is not a phase to stagnate at. Some employees may initially adapt but may not completely adapt and adjust fully and may therefore flounder at the survival level.
- c) **Recovery phase:** Some employees may reach the recovery phase and will be back to the maintenance level, also called the status quo phase. If one remains at this phase, one may continue to function adequately, but then one loses a crucial opportunity to experience the growth that the adversity provided the person to learn and enhance oneself.
- d) **Growing phase:** A small proportion of individuals, with good resilience, are found to thrive and reach the growing phase and move towards an upward trajectory. Some authors have labelled this phase as the thriving or the flourishing phase. This is exemplified when employees learn new skills, competencies, and surpass their prior level of functioning. This shows that the challenges the employees faced made them stronger and they were benefitted from the challenge. The concept of thriving is based on the premise that individuals are capable of transforming adverse experiences to gain benefit and derive wisdom and in doing so move towards more meaningful and productive lives.

6.2.4 COMPONENTS OF RESILIENCE

Resilience includes both internal and external components. Internal factors are personality factors and individual resources. These factors determine what meaning and interpretation a person assigns to the situation at hand. This may include the personality trait of hardiness, the coping strategies the person uses, use of personal and cognitive resources, positive self-esteem threat appraisal, and being in control of one's situation. The personality trait of hardiness has been found to mitigate the negative effects of stressful events. Ungar (2004) also includes factors like optimism, intellectual competence, and determination and perseverance as essential qualities. It is important to recognize, that one can increase resilience by developing strategies for reducing one's vulnerability to stress.

6.2.5 RESILIENCE AT WORK PLACE

Resilience is broadly defined as the ability to 'bounce back' when one comes across challenges,

frustrations, and adversity at the work place (Janas, 2002).

Resilience is one of the core constructs of positive organisational behaviour (Luthans, 2002), and has been defined as positive adaptation in the face of adversity (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). Generally, the concept of resilience has occupied an important place in several disciplines including psychology, psychiatry, developmental psychopathology, medicine, human development, and recently management, and leadership. In the field of management, resilience is considered as an attribute that includes strength, flexibility, and minimal dysfunctional behavior. Resilience is considered an important part of being an effective leader. Although resilience may be conceptualized as a trait it is also considered a skill and like all skills it can be learnt and increased. Several authors consider resilience as an active and dynamic process that evolves over time (Centre for Confidence and Wellbeing, 2006). In the work place environment, it is important that employers teach their employees to become more resilient at their work place and in their working environment. It is conceptualized that there is a direct relationship between the amount of stress that a leader faces in his profession and his capacity to be resilient when faced with traumatic and demanding events. Resilience is a multi-dimensional concept and includes several cluster of factors that incorporate behaviors, thoughts, actions, attitudes, and skills.

For example, Maddi and Khoshaba (2006) in their book entitled ‘Resilience at work: how to succeed no matter what life throws at you,’ discuss a case study where they studied employees of a large US telecommunications company during a time when the industry was being deregulated. Over 12 years the company went through diverse changes and many employees lost their jobs or faced personal life stressors. Despite these hardships, surprisingly many employees were found to have flourished. Interestingly, among those who retained their positions in the company several of them rose to top-ranking positions and among those who lost their jobs some started their own start-up companies or took important positions in other companies. The research highlighted that most people did not succumb to stress but showing remarkable ability to get back on track. Research has focussed on identifying the characteristics of employees that distinguish the resilient from the less resilient individuals.

a. Importance of Resilience in the work environment

The World Health Organization (WHO) considers stress as the “global health epidemic of the 21st century.” According to the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, one-fourth of all employees consider their jobs as the primary stressor in their lives. Occupational stress

affects personal and performance outcomes and thereby impacts communities, societies, and nations. This has personal, social, and economic repercussions. For example, depression, anxiety, burnout, and suicide are highly correlated with burnout at work. Burnout at work is used to describe a state whereby employees experience physical and emotional fatigue and exhaustion, depersonalization, and a sense of low personal accomplishment. Burnout can impair productivity, increase rates of absenteeism, labour turnover, and lead to physical and mental health problems among the work force.

b. Building Resilience among individuals and work teams

Workplaces in today's world is a place that is constantly changing and evolving as new technological changes makes old ways of working redundant. There is a constant pressure to adopt newer technologies, learn new skills, and work more efficiently. The constant pressure of meeting deadlines and increasing profits in an economy which shows signs of slowing down adds to the woes of workers in organizations. The modern-day work culture also desires that workers remain flexible and adaptive of change. In the study of resilient and mentally tough persons, Clough, Earle, & Sewell, (2002) identified four characteristics: **Commitment, Control, Confidence, and Challenge** (Fig 2). These characteristics have also been identified by Maddi & Kohsaba (2006) as associated with the individuals' ability to bounce back from the immense stress they faced in a radically changing workplace. These attitudes help the individuals to stay connected and committed to the people around them, help them to determine and influence the outcome of a challenge and hence remain in control and have a sense of power over the situation, and not give up in the face of adversity. Being able to view change and the related stress that any change evokes is as an inevitable part of any work situation and accepting this helps one to be flexible and adaptable.

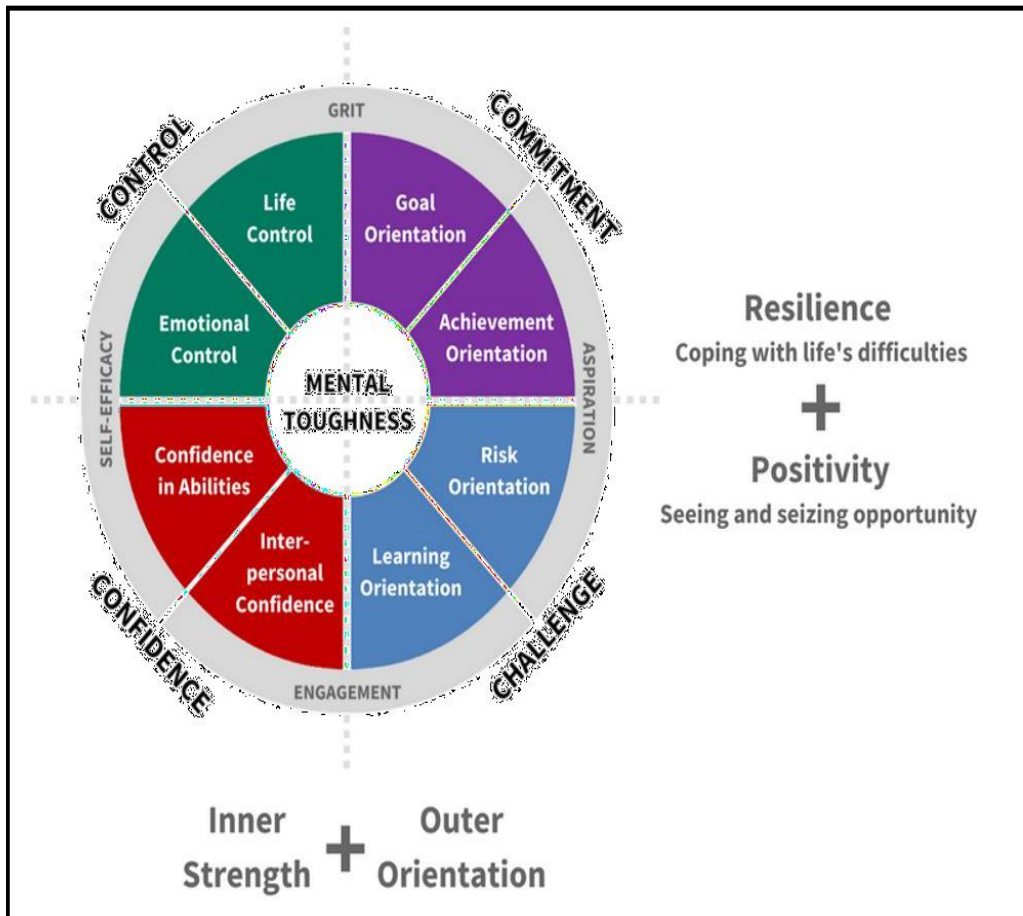


Fig 2: Components of Resilience (adapted from AQR International)

At the individual level, personal resilience can be increased by several strategies including practicing mindfulness, being positive, having access to a good support system, having positive relationships with co-workers and one's supervisor, having insight into one's emotions, harbouring a good self-image, developing mental agility, and being at times detached by taking regular breaks from work. Fig 3 presents the eight steps to become more resilient as given by the Centre for Creative leadership (2016).

- **Positivity:** It is important that employees have a positive attitude at work as it helps in adaptation and acceptance of change. Putting energy and having 'vigour' is linked with building personal resilience and wards off being burnt out and suffering from cognitive fatigue. Vigour is described by capacity to put in the maximum effort at work and building personal

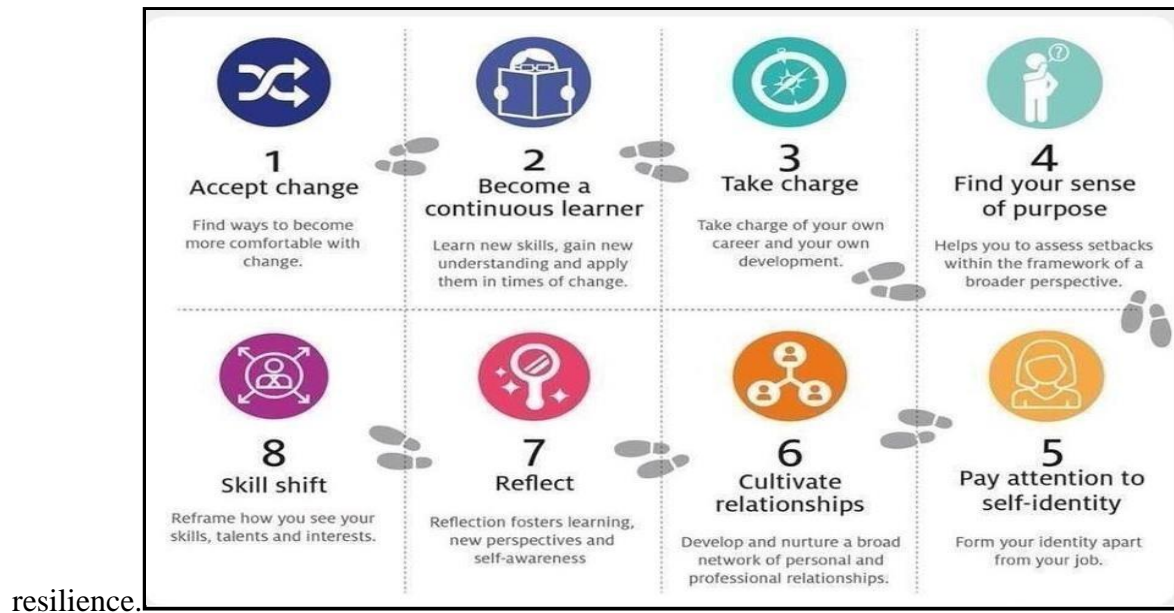


Fig 3: Eight steps to become more resilient (Centre for Creative leadership 2016)

- **Emotional Insight:** One can build personal resilience at work by strengthening emotional insight and having awareness about the range of emotions one experiences at the work place. Emotional insight is to some extent related to emotional intelligence (EQ). Understanding the emotions of one's co-workers as well and the impact their behavior and actions have on others is also a useful quality in coping. Psychologically resilient individuals are also emotionally intelligent.
- **Balance:** There is a need to maintain a healthy work-life balance to promote work resilience. All workers need time to relax, have time for family life and commitments, time for leisure, physical exercise, and other healthy activities. Being only work orientated, one may lose one's sense of balance, and it increases the chances of burning out manifold.
- **Finding a sense of purpose or embracing Spirituality:** Finding meaning in work, and thinking and accepting that the work one is doing is contributing towards a greater good and purpose can help against the effect of stress. Developing a sense of spirituality may lead employees to view even hardships as having some positive aspects and help in reducing the negative impact of stress.
- **Reflection:** Becoming more reflective is another way an individual can build resilience at work. In other words, being aware of one's emotions and emotional reactions can serve to buffer against the effect of stress. Being aware of possible 'triggers' to stress can also provide workers opportunities to prepare and garner resources so they are better able to adapt and adjust. One can only seek support if one is aware that certain events trigger a

stress response. Resilient workers monitor their own thoughts when they are under stress.

- **Seeking out social support:** Several authors have emphasized the need to build relationships at workplace to build resilience. It is beneficial to develop personal as well as professional networks that can guide and support during times of crisis situations. One should also increase one's support outside the work environment and build outside work social connections. These people can be available when support within the work environment becomes more difficult to access. The resilient employee is a team player who actively listens and is responsive to his co-workers. He seeks help and also gives help to his colleagues in situations of stress.
- **Paying attention to self-care and forging an identity:** Research findings indicate that resilient employees do not take their work too seriously. They pay attention to self-care and try to nurture themselves when facing a difficult work situation. Introducing an element of 'fun' at the workplace can help enhance positive emotions among employees.

c. **Training for Resilience in the Workplace**

Many corporate sectors and employers are increasingly recognizing the importance of developing resilience among employees at work and managing the levels of stress effectively to guarantee longevity of professional career, personal growth, and welfare of work organizations. A survey of over 100,000 employees across the globe found that employee depression, stress, and anxiety accounted for nearly 83% of all emotional health cases in Employee Assistance Programs in 2014. A global survey of Human Capital Trends conducted by Deloitte in 2014 found that 57% of participants opined that their organizations were not helping leaders to manage difficult schedules and that there was a need to address

these concerns. Indeed, several longitudinal surveys have documented rising levels of stress in the workplace and this directly impacts the mental and physical health of employees and productivity of the companies.

Resilience training may take several forms including online training, group-based training, one-to-one training and a combination of group-based and one-to-one training. The length of resilience in the workplace training varies widely, from a single day brief training to weekly sessions lasting several months. Resilience training generally focusses on teaching mindfulness, compartmentalizing cognitive load, taking detachment breaks, and focussing on controllable elements, and developing healthy relationships. Other training modules such as

the University of Pennsylvania program called the Pennsylvania Resilience Program (PRP) focuses on enhancing protective factors such as optimism, problem-solving, self-regulation, flexibility, compassion-based practices, and relationship building. Some aspects of resilience training are explained below:

- **Mindfulness training:** Mindfulness-based resilience training involves teaching of cognitive strategies that focus on being in the present moment, and realistic goal setting. These training programs are also called Mindfulness-based Cognitive Therapy and Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction. These programs have been found beneficial in improving accuracy of judgement, problem solving, cognitive flexibility, overall employee well-being, and organizational performance. Online mindfulness programs are practical and effective in decreasing employee stress and improving job performance and work engagement. Several books and mobile Apps offer structured approaches to mindfulness including: ‘Fully Present: The Art, Science and Practice of Mindfulness and Mindfulness: An Eight Week Plan for Finding Peace in a Frantic World’. Useful apps include: Headspace, Spire, Mental Workout, Calm etc.
- In one study resilience training to 29 full-time firefighters in a training program called “Resilience @ Work” (RAW) was delivered through the online platform. Besides being cost-effective, participants were found to have increased their resilience after the RAW training. **Compartmentalizing cognitive load:** Shawn Achor, author of book entitled: ‘The Happiness Advantage’; argues that employees have little control over the amount of information that they receive but they can definitely control the load of cognitive tasks by compartmentalizing different types of work activities that they do and avoid shifting rapidly from one task to another. He suggests creating dedicated times in the day to do specific works and not others also referred to as “serial monotasking”.
- **Focusing on Controllable Things and decentering stress:** “Decentering” stress is the process by which individuals observe the problem, reflect, brainstorm, create options, and take constructive steps to solve the problem, rather than worry and talk about it. Decentering stress permits the core resilience skill of “response flexibility.” It teaches people to reactivate their thinking centres of the brains rather than the emotional centres.
- **Taking detachment breaks to re-energize:** Employees are taught to relax and take short breaks during work like walking for 5 minutes, take a long lunch break, detaching oneself from their work desk, and doing something enjoyable for a short while. These practices help

to ward off burn-out. Relaxation strategies like yoga, meditation, and breathing exercises also help to create balance at work and provide relief from work related stress.

- **Positive Relationships at Work:** Employees are taught to avoid gossip, personal attacks on co-workers, and toxic workplace discussions and gossip. Constantly talking about inter personal problems and put-down of colleagues and boss only increase stress and anxiety. Maintaining cordial relationships and fostering positive engagement with co-workers goes a long way in enhancing resilience and promoting professional relationships.
- Four broad categories of outcomes such as mental health and subjective wellbeing outcomes, physical outcomes, psychosocial outcomes, and performance outcomes are measured to study the outcome of resilience training at work place. Studies have found that the training has a positive long-term impact on mental health and subjective wellbeing of employees (stress, depression, anxiety, and negative mood/affect/emotion) A review of 14 studies showed that
- majority (12 studies) document a beneficial effect of resilience training. Evidence further indicates that organizations that invest in their people tend to gain in the long run and the return of training manifests in the form of lower health care costs, higher productivity, lower absenteeism and decreased employee turnover.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Answer the following questions in 80-100 words:

- (i) Define Resilience.
- (ii) Discuss the nature of resilience in the context of the workplace.
- (iii) Can resilience be nurtured?
- (iv) Highlight the characteristics of Resilience.

6.3 OPTIMISM

Optimism is one of the central concepts in positive psychology, and is a complex one that embodies several constructs. It is considered a positive emotion as well as character strength.

6.3.1 DEFINING OPTIMISM

Carver and colleagues (2010) defined optimism as “an individual difference variable that reflects the extent to which people hold generalized favorable expectancies for their future.”

Martin Seligman, the father of positive psychology, defines optimism as reacting to problems with a sense of confidence and high personal ability.

It is important to understand that optimism is not an all or none phenomenon. It exists on a continuum and people can vary on optimism by degree. Also, optimism can also vary according to the situation at hand. To understand the construct, people at the higher end of the spectrum are referred to as optimists and individuals at the lower end as pessimists. Pessimists believe that bad events will be long lasting, are because of their fault, and undermines everything they do. The optimists, when they face difficult events, tend to think of misfortune as a temporary setback, not their fault but caused by bad luck, or caused by

others. Optimists perceive misfortune as a bad situation and a challenge to try harder next time so that they succeed.

6.3.2 OPTIMISM AND HEALTH

Evidence has indicated that optimism predicts a number of short-term and long-term physical health outcomes, including rehospitalisation after surgery, cardiovascular disease, incident stroke, and mortality. It is also related to a number of biological markers tied to disease endpoints, including ambulatory blood pressure, cortisol secretion, as well as levels of lipids and anti-oxidants. Scheier et al. (2020) in a meta-analytic analysis of data from 61 separate samples (N = 221,133) revealed a significant positive association with an aggregated measure of physical health outcomes associated with the absence of pessimism and the presence of optimism. In addition, recover faster from illness and traumatic events, less susceptible to depression, and show greater pain tolerance. Optimism is also known to affect a person's immune system. Optimism is an important trait in coping with difficult life events like a change in life events, natural and man-made disasters.

Research indicates that optimistic individuals have better social relationships, better academic performance, and show greater flexibility in their thinking. Optimistic individuals are more likely to enjoy new challenges and see new opportunities when faced with difficulties. They tend to persist more in the face of adversity and look for solutions to difficult problems rather than sit back and wallow in self-pity. Optimism is positively related to self-esteem, life satisfaction, subjective wellbeing, and even socio-economic status. Optimists have been found to be happier with their lives than pessimists. In the words of Seligman, "Life inflicts the same setbacks and tragedies on the optimist as on the pessimist, but the optimist weathers them better" (Seligman, 2006).

Optimists are more likely to accept the reality of difficult situations and try to reframe these difficult situations in the best possible manner, while pessimists are known to cope by denial, self-blame, anger, and abandoning the task. Peterson (2000) states that research shows that “optimism, however it is measured, is linked to desirable characteristics: happiness, perseverance, achievement, and health.”

6.3.3 OPTIMISM VERSUS PESSIMISM

Optimism is not one overriding concept; it is entirely possible to be optimistic in some areas of life and be relatively more pessimistic in others. Elaine Fox (2013) from University of Oxford looked at optimism and pessimism from a different angle and considers optimism as a stable personality trait. In her book “Rainy Brain Sunny Brain. The New Science of Optimism and Pessimism”, she names the brain circuitry that leads to optimism the “sunny brain,” and the circuitry that leads to pessimism as the “rainy brain.” The “sunny brain” includes those structures of the brain (nucleus accumbens) that are involved in processing motivation and reinforcement; and neurotransmitters like dopamine that are involved in wanting and pleasure. The optimists are therefore more motivated and persistent. According to Fox, optimism incorporates skills like acceptance, flexibility, coping, and feeling in control. Optimists feel that they have control over their future and their destinies and their actions matter in determining what happens in their life. Optimists are more likely to persist to get what you want from life. In contrast, the pessimists are more passive and less likely to act as they feel things are not likely to work out so there is little point in making any effort. Optimism is being engaged with a meaningful life, according to Fox, and the ability to accept the good along with the bad. On the other hand, the ‘rainy brain’ is linked to the amygdala, that responds to signals of danger and fears. Pessimists pay more attention to danger or negativity and feel that the world is full of dangers and threats and one has to constantly ward them off.

Indeed, positive psychology researchers have accumulated considerable evidence to show that positive emotions and positive activities such as expressing gratitude, acts of kindness, enjoying positive events, and practicing optimistic thinking can increase feelings of wellbeing, life satisfaction, and happiness.

6.3.4 CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF OPTIMISM

- a) **Dispositional Optimism** – Scheier and Carver (1985) theorized the “disposition” towards optimism in their studies, called “dispositional optimism”, considering it a trait of an equilibrated personality, in time and in various situations, that influences the way in which

individuals come to terms with present, past and future events in life. It is a global expectation that future will be largely good. Optimistic people continue to pursue valued

- b) goals and use more effective coping strategies, even in the face of hardship and difficulties. Optimistic people according to this view are viewed as more resilient to stress and use more functional and problem-focused coping strategies.
- c) **Optimistic Explanatory Style:** Martin Seligman views optimism, as an “**attributional style**”, characterized by the tendency to believe that negative events are external (I am not responsible for the event) , transient and specific (the event is self-limiting and will not influence other activities of life) factors e.g. prevailing circumstances. Optimists tend to believe that positive events are relatively more stable and frequent than negative ones. Seligman believes that optimism not only promotes individual well-being, but is also a powerful tool that can help an individual find one’s purpose in life. According to Seligman, “Optimism is invaluable for the meaningful life. With a firm belief in a positive future, you can throw yourself into the service of that which is larger than you are.”
- d) The **Social Cognition perspective** views optimism as the consequence of a cognitive underestimation of risk and leads to what is known as ‘optimism bias.’ The optimism bias is also referred to as “unrealistic optimism” and refers to a person conviction that positive events are more likely to occur than negative events. The optimism bias is defined as the difference between a person's expectation and the outcome that follows. If expectations are better than reality, the bias is optimistic; if reality is better than expected, the bias is pessimistic. This view point was proposed by the cognitive neuroscientist Tali Sharot (2012), author of the book ‘The Optimism Bias: A Tour of the Irrationally Positive Brain’. Sharot suggests that this bias can lead one towards risky behaviors and lead to making poor choices about one’s health. This bias is due to two mechanisms including lack of information and poor critical insight of one’s own cognitive skills.

6.3.5 OPTIMISM AT WORK PLACE

In the modern-day life, marked by multitude stresses and strains, pessimism is becoming increasingly common both in personal and professional life. However, research indicates that it is optimism that drives work places forward and not pessimism. Optimism is an important component of resilience. Optimism among workers contributes and adds immense value to the workplace. The experience of positive emotions, along with resilience, can open up a range of opportunities and possibilities, and increase the likelihood of problem solving rather than

giving up when encountering hurdles. Positive emotions like grit and optimism also act as a protective factor and ‘buffer’ against workplace stress. Workers with positive emotions are more likely to enable individuals to make positive appraisals of what otherwise may have been a stressful situation. Optimistic persons are more motivated and work harder in the face of hindrances, perceive setbacks as temporary, and feel upbeat and energized both physically and emotionally. Optimists use more problem-focused coping when faced with difficulties. Focusing on opportunities rather than on hurdles is a key aspect of resilience. A growing body of research indicates that being successful at work does not require talent and good grades but also depends on one’s attitude towards success and failure. The level of optimism determines to what extent one has initiative and persists when one encounters frustrations.

Optimism is linked to intrinsic motivation to work harder, persist during stressful and difficult times, and display more goal-focused behavior. In several studies, Seligman and colleagues (Seligman & Schulman, 1986; Seligman, 2011) reported that optimistic employees have greater success at work place as compared to employees who are less optimistic. Research indicates that organizations that have happy and optimistic employees are more likely to have increased productivity, more creativity, greater teamwork, lower turnover, satisfied customers, and higher profits. Optimism and employee happiness go hand in hand and this helps in building other aspects in the organization.

a. Improving Optimism at Work place

It is important to recognize that both optimism and pessimism are contagious. A team of optimistic workers in an organization will move towards more positivity in an exponential manner while a team of pessimistic workers will spiral the mood down of its team manifold.

i. **Tackling Cognitive Distortions:** Seligman in his book entitled ‘Learned Optimism’ suggests that we need to change our distorted thinking, also referred to as ‘cognitive distortions’. There are 3 cognitive distortions, also called the 3 P’s that help us to make sense of our experiences: **Personalization, Pervasiveness, and Permanence**. One needs to tackle these distortions if one wants to become more optimistic and less pessimistic at work or even as a person.

- **Personalization** means whether one attributes an event to external or internal factors. The pessimist person is more likely to blame self and attribute the bad event to internal factors and blame self. Optimists, on the other hand, are more likely to perceive that the cause of the problem is external and therefore can be fixed. This dichotomy is also referred

to as **internal vs. external attribution style**.

- **Pervasiveness** describes the extent to which we tend to generalize the negative event to other situations as well. One negative outcome may translate for a pessimistic person as an outcome which will be all pervasive and define other situations as well. One may feel that one may never ever succeed if one fails in one situation. This is also referred to as **catastrophizing**. A person who perceives failure as pervasive or all-encompassing is also more likely to believe that the failure defines him and will influence other aspects of life also.
- **Permanence** describes whether a negative event or situation is perceived as temporary or lasting. A pessimistic person is more likely to believe that a temporary glitch is unchangeable while an optimistic explanatory style would perceive the event as something

Optimistic Outlooks		
Perspective	Pessimistic outlook	Optimistic outlook
Personalisation	'It's my fault'	'It's not my fault'
Permanence	'This is the way it will always be now'	'This is just a temporary setback'
Pervasiveness	'My whole life is affected'	'I'm not going to let this affect anything else in my life'

which would change sooner rather than later.

Fig 5: Seligman's Cognitive Distortions and 'Learned optimism'.

A word of caution needs to be sounded here; optimism does not mean being unrealistic, optimistic individuals are aware of the pitfalls of being unrealistic. According to Elaine Fox, **optimistic realists**, are true optimists, as they know just thinking happy thoughts will not lead to any change, rather they believe positive persistent actions determine the course of one's life. Optimists do understand realism, but they believe in persisting and looking for solutions rather than giving up and saying that it is not within the realm of possibility. Seligman emphasizes the need to be **adaptively optimistic** and be aware of the downside of extreme or unrealistic optimism. Seligman proposes some pointers to adaptively optimistic, such as being grateful for one's blessings, being helpful towards others, and tackling negative thoughts and beliefs.

- ii. **Reframing negative to positive self-talk:** Science shows that optimism can be altered with simple and low-cost interventions such as asking people to write down what they think about

the best possible outcomes for their lives, such as careers, relationships, or friendships. Challenging people’s beliefs and asking them to consider another way of looking at things also has been found to be helpful. This technique is also referred to as "positive reframing." Encouraging persons to put on the positive lenses as much as possible helps them to cultivate a more automatic and optimistic frame of mind. For example, if people complain that the pandemic made them miss out on social life, travelling etc asking them to focus on what they may have gained while they stayed at home will help them to focus on other aspects such as family time, spending time relaxing, eating healthy etc.

Pessimists can learn to be optimistic by learning a new set of cognitive skills. In order to change and challenge one’s thinking one needs to improve the self-talk and reframe it in more optimistic ways.

Table 1: Reframing negative to positive self-talk

Negative self-talk	Reframing negative to positive assertions
These deadlines are impossible to meet.	on one thing at a time and take this task one step at a time.
If I cannot answer the questions tomorrow after my presentation, my colleagues will know I am not so intelligent.	prepared and I am sure that I will be able to answer the queries.
I will never succeed.	is challenging but focusing on one day at a time will ensure success.

Seligman uses the ABC Technique (borrowed from the behavioural literature) to change the explanatory styles of individuals. A does not cause C. B causes C. Seligman extends the model to include the remediation – D (Disputation) and the resulting E (Energization). Hence the ABCDE Model.

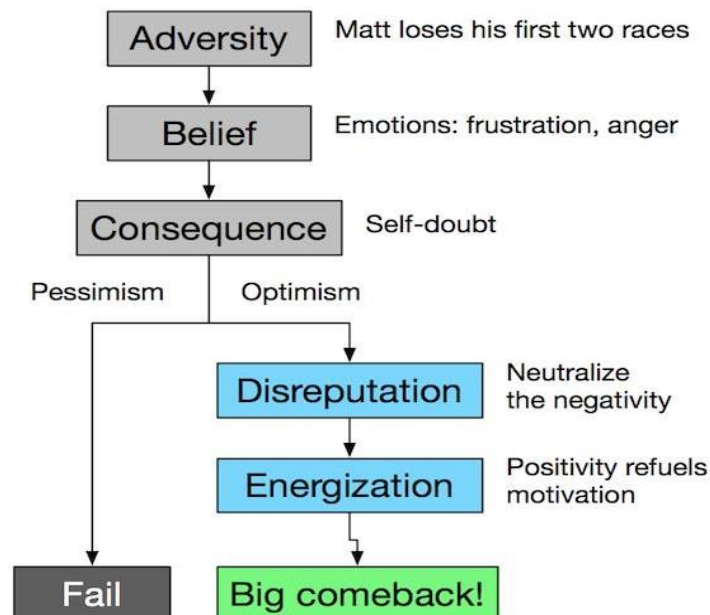
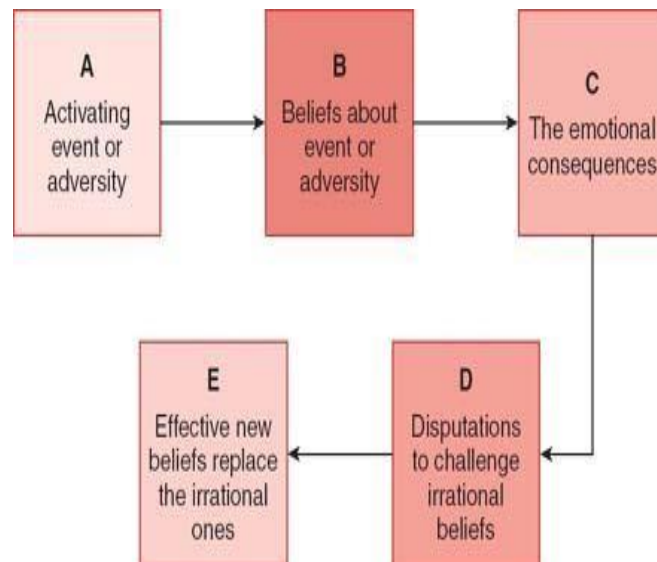


Fig 6: Seligman ABCDE Model

iii. **Social Contagion Theory:** Nicholas Christakis, a professor of medical sociology and medicine, emphasizes the contagion of emotions within social networks. His research shows that many emotions have an infectious impact, connecting to people who are optimistic and positive can increase the probability of feeling more positive and healthier emotions. Social contagion research suggests that individual decision making is shaped by collective, social processes. Hence collective optimism—the shared, positive expectations about future outcomes—is salient to key entrepreneurial outcomes in the workplace (Anglin, McKenny, & Short, 2018).

- iv. **Practicing mindfulness:** Mindfulness has been described as a state of awareness characterized by refined attentional skills and a non-evaluative attitude toward internal and external events. Accepting what one can and cannot control in a particular situation can greatly help in adapting and thriving. For example, if one does not get promoted one cannot control this fact but one can control learning new work skills and competencies that would help in getting the promotion next time. Mindfulness exerts its positive effect on work engagement by increasing positive affect, hope, and optimism, which on its own and in combination enhances work engagement. Well-being, on the other hand, is directly influenced by mindfulness, which exerts additional indirect influence via positive affect, hope, and optimism. Non-reactivity and non-judging have emerged in literature as significant mindfulness skills in the workplace.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Answer the following questions in 80 to 100 words:

- (i) What is Optimism?
- (ii) How does optimism contribute to physical health and mental strength?
- (iii) Discuss the viewpoints / conceptualizations of optimism?
- (iv) Why is optimism relevant to organisational functioning?
- (v) Highlight the techniques of nurturing optimism at the workplace?

6.4 SUMMARY

The American Psychological Association (2012) posits resilience as the process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats, or significant sources of stress—such as family and relationship problems, serious health problems, or workplace and financial stressors. As much as resilience involves “bouncing back” from these difficult experiences, it can also involve profound personal growth. Resilience can be fostered via maintaining perspective, accepting change, finding purpose and fostering wellness. At the workplace, Commitment, Control, Confidence, and Challenge – these 4 characteristics, help the individuals to stay connected and committed to the people around them, to determine and influence the outcome of a challenge and hence remain in control and have a sense of power over the situation, and not give up in the face of adversity.

Optimism is considered a positive emotion as well as a character strength. Optimism is an attitude reflecting a belief that the outcome of some specific endeavour, will be positive,

favourable, and desirable. Workplace optimism facilitates stronger relationships within the context of an encouraging work environment that is viewed positively by employees. Optimism among workers contributes and adds immense value to the workplace. The experience of positive emotions, along with resilience, can open up a range of opportunities and possibilities, and increase the likelihood of problem solving rather than giving up when encountering hurdles. Positive emotions like grit and optimism also act as a protective factor and ‘buffer’ against workplace stress.

6.5 KEYWORDS

Resilience	The process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy, threats, or significant sources of stress
Mindfulness	The ability to be fully present, aware of where we are and what we’re doing, and not overly reactive or overwhelmed by what’s going on around us
Optimism	An attitude reflecting a belief that the outcome of some specific endeavour, will be positive, favourable, and desirable
Cognitive Distortions	Habitual ways of thinking that are often inaccurate and negatively biased.
Reframing	Psychological technique that consists of identifying and then changing the way situations, experiences, events, ideas, and/or emotions are viewed.

6.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

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6.8 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

Q1 What is optimism? How does optimism contribute to physical health and mental strength?

Q2 Discuss in detail the components of resilience?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)
SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE
SEMESTER V
THE FOUNDATIONS OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

UNIT-7: SELF-EFFICACY, SELF-CONFIDENCE

STRUCTURE

7.0 OBJECTIVES

7.1 INTRODUCTION

7.1.1 ORIGIN OF THE CONCEPT OF SELF-EFFICACY

7.1.2 SOURCES OF SELF-EFFICACY

7.1.3 EXAMPLES OF HIGH SELF-EFFICACY

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7.1.6 SELF-EFFICACY THEORY

7.1.7 SELF-EFFICACY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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7.2 INTRODUCTION: CONCEPT & DEFINITION OF SELF-CONFIDENCE

7.2.1 MAJOR BARRIERS TO SELF CONFIDENCE

7.2.2 FIVE KEY ATTRIBUTES OF INDIVIDUALS WITH HIGH SELF-CONFIDENCE

7.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND SELF-CONFIDENCE

7.4 CONCLUSION

7.5 FURTHER READINGS

7.6 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After a careful reading of this unit, you will be able to:

- Interpret the concept of self-efficacy in your own words
- Analyse the theoretical rationale behind the concept
- Importance of the concept in organisations
- Interpret the concept of self-confidence in your own words
- Describe the relationship between both the concepts

SELF-EFFICACY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his/her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Self-efficacy can play a role in not only how you feel about yourself, but whether or not you successfully achieve your goals in life. Of all the thoughts that affect human functioning, and standing at the very core of social cognitive theory, are **self-efficacy** beliefs, "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances". Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. This is because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Much empirical evidence now supports Bandura's contention that self-efficacy beliefs touch virtually every aspect of people's lives—whether they think productively, self-debilitating, pessimistically or optimistically; how well they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of adversities; their vulnerability to stress and depression, and the life choices they make. Self-efficacy is also a critical determinant of self-regulation.

Of course, human functioning is influenced by many factors. The success or failure that people experience as they engage the myriad tasks that comprise their life naturally influence the many decisions they must make. Also, the knowledge and skills they possess will certainly play critical roles in what they choose to do and not do. Individuals interpret the results of their attainments, however, just as they make judgments about the quality of the knowledge and skills, they possess.

Bandura's (1997) key contentions as regards the role of self-efficacy beliefs in human functioning is that "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true". For this reason, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-efficacy perceptions help determine what

individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have. This helps explain why people's behaviours are sometimes disjoined from their actual capabilities and why their behaviour may differ widely even when they have similar knowledge and skills. For example, many talented people suffer frequent (and sometimes debilitating) bouts of self-doubt about capabilities they clearly possess, just as many individuals are confident about what they can accomplish despite possessing a modest repertoire of skills. Belief and reality are seldom perfectly matched, and individuals are typically guided by their beliefs when they engage the world. As a consequence, people's accomplishments are generally better predicted by their self-efficacy beliefs than by their previous attainments, knowledge, or skills. Of course, no amount of confidence or self-appreciation can produce success when requisite skills and knowledge are absent.

"If I have the belief that I can do it, I shall surely acquire the capacity to do it even if I may not have it at the beginning" - **Mahatma Gandhi**

According to Janjhua, Chaudhary, and Chauhan (2014) self-efficacy beliefs offer the foundation for human motivation, well-being, personal accomplishments, and affect the body's physiological responses to stress. In addition, stronger the self-efficacy belief, the bolder the people in handling the stressful situations associated with their roles. Meera and Jumana (2016) suggested that self-efficacy is **multidimensional construct** i.e., **domainspecific** or context dependent. This means that high sense of efficacy in a particular domain may not necessarily occur in similar level of another domain. Even within the same domain, there may be different levels of self-efficacy beliefs occurring in different contexts.

7.1.1 ORIGIN OF THE CONCEPT OF SELF-EFFICACY

Woodward (1982) highlighted that Bandura introduced a separate social learning theory basically independently from Rotter's theory. The major additions in Bandura's theory were imitation or observation as a method through which behaviour could be acquired and, afterward, the notion of self-efficacy was proposed. Bandura (1986) changed the name of his theory from social learning theory to social cognitive theory. This change reflected the broader scope of his theory and the main contribution of thought processes to motivation, action, and affect (Bandura, 1986). The most important theoretical improvement was Bandura's explicit difference between outcome expectancy and what he named **self-efficacy**. Bandura suggested that humans may believe that their own action would result in certain desired outcome i.e., having the high outcome expectancy and an internal locus of control, but at the same time,

may also believe them to be incapable of performing that action. This perceived incapacity was recognized as weak self-efficacy regarding the particular behaviour. On the other hand, if the belief that they are capable of performing a particular action will be high, then self-efficacy for the behaviour in question will be high. Finally, Bandura's social cognitive theory made a distinction between beliefs with respect to how the world works i.e., outcome expectancies, and beliefs about what they are capable of doing i.e., self-efficacy. Bandura's work showed that recognizing self-efficacy as a distinct and important determinant of behaviour avoids ambiguity and thus has obvious usefulness (DeVellis & DeVellis, 2001).

7.1.2 SOURCES OF SELF-EFFICACY

According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy:

Mastery Experiences based on Past Experiences: When a student has a successful experience in some of his work, the level of self-efficacy increases in him, on the other side when he has some bad experience, the level of self-efficacy decreases. Mastery experiences in which the students try and then get success became helpful for students to learn more skilful activities in life and get enjoyment in doing those.

Verbal Persuasion: Thirdly the people who are one's well-wishers like parents, guides, teachers, officers, coaches can help the students in achieving higher level of self-efficacy. One can be aware of the situation that more the difficulty in struggle, more is the result in one's favour.

Vicarious Experiences: Secondly self-efficacy can be achieved through the observation of some great people particularly when those people are one's icons, role models or ideals. And by following such people and taking the same path of struggle which was adopted by those successful people, one can experience self-efficacy.

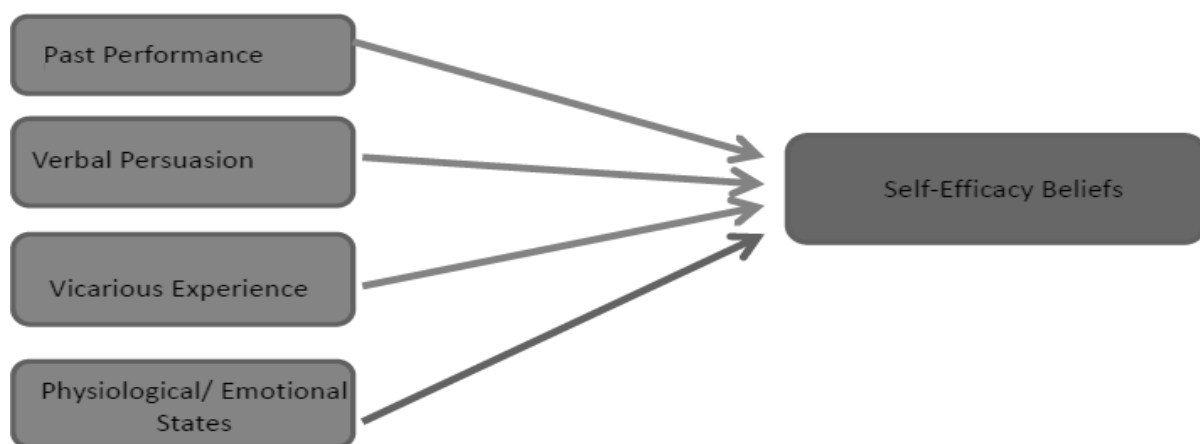


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Psychological/Emotional States: Regarding emotional psychological influence on self-efficacy, one can judge that the positive emotional state helps the students in scoring more than the students with poor emotional and psychological state. Positive emotions help in boosting the students' confidence and getting self-efficacious.

7.1.3 EXAMPLES OF HIGH SELF-EFFICACY

- A man who is struggling to manage his chronic illness but feels confident that he can get back on track and improve his health by working hard and following his doctor's recommendations.
- A student who feels confident that she will be able to learn the information and do well in a test.
- A woman who has just accepted a job position in a role she has never performed before but feels that she has the ability to learn and perform her job well..

7.1.4 EXAMPLES OF LOW SELF-EFFICACY

- People who are low in self-efficacy tend to see difficult tasks as threats they should avoid. Because of this, they also tend to avoid setting goals and have low levels of commitment to the ones they do make.
- When setbacks happen, some people tend to give up quickly. Because they don't have much confidence in their ability to achieve, they are more likely to experience feelings of failure and depression. Stressful situations can also be very hard to deal with and those with low self-efficacy are less resilient and less likely to bounce back.

7.1.5 IMPORTANCE OF SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy can play an important role in health psychology and how people manage their health, nutrition, and illness. For example, having a strong sense of self-efficacy can help people who are trying to quit smoking stick to their goals.

Maintaining a weight loss plan, managing chronic pain, giving up alcohol, sticking to an exercise schedule, and following an eating plan can all be influenced by a person's level of self-efficacy.

Bandura suggests that self-efficacy can benefit a person's sense of well-being in a number of ways. For instance, they remain optimistic and confident in their abilities, even when

things become difficult.

7.1.6 SELF-EFFICACY THEORY

Bandura (1986, 1997, 2001) developed a social cognitive theory that believes that human beings having some strength or capacity to exercise limited control over their lives. In addition, humans use their cognitive processes for self-regulation. He pointed out that human functioning is an outcome of the interaction of three elements, viz., person, person's behaviour, and the environment. Bandura (1986, 2001) named to this interactive triadic model as **reciprocal determinism**. The model of reciprocal determinism can be explained by a triangle with; person, person's behaviour, and environment which are shown on the three corners of the triangle and each element have some effect on the other two elements.

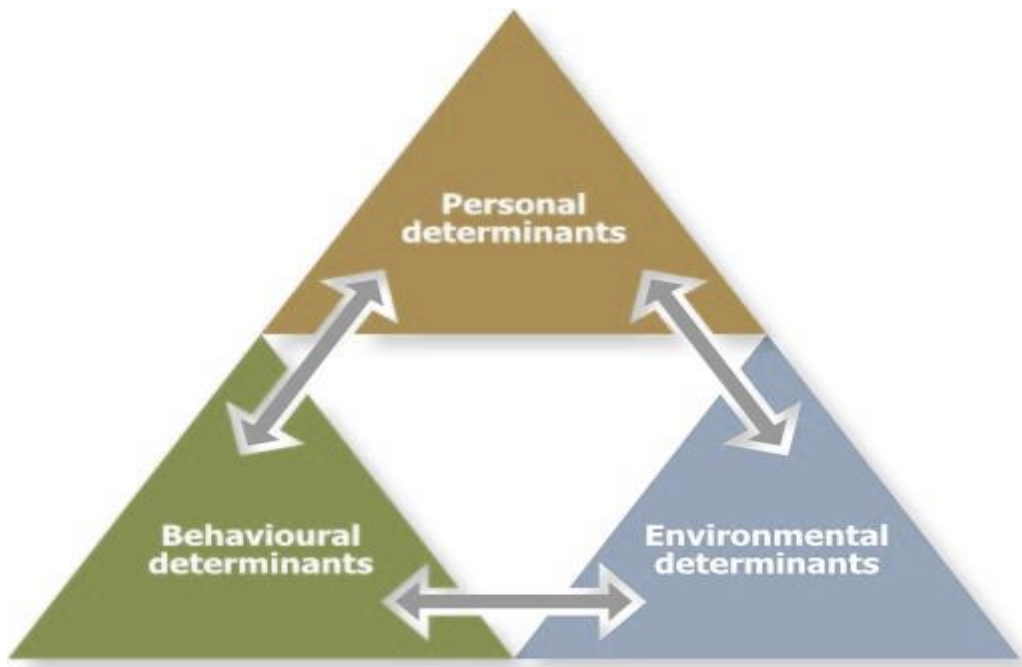


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Bandura (2001) identified self-efficacy as a significant factor of the person element and defined it as “people’s beliefs in their capability to exercise some measure of control over their own functioning and over environmental events.”

7.1.7 SELF-EFFICACY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Rathi and Rastogi (2009) conducted a study to explore the relationship of emotional intelligence, occupational self-efficacy, and organizational commitment. Results showed the significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy, whereas no significant relationship was observed between emotional intelligence and

organizational commitment. Further, no significant positive relationship was found between occupational self-efficacy and organizational commitment.

Akhtar, Ghayas, and Adil (2013) made an attempt to explore the self-efficacy and optimism as predictors of organizational commitment among bank employees. Results indicated that self-efficacy was positively and significantly correlated with optimism as well as organizational commitment, while significant relationship was not found between optimism and organizational commitment of employees. Further, multiple regression analysis revealed that self-efficacy alone emerged as significant predictor of organizational commitment. Private sector bank employees showed higher level of organizational commitment than semi-public sector bank employees.

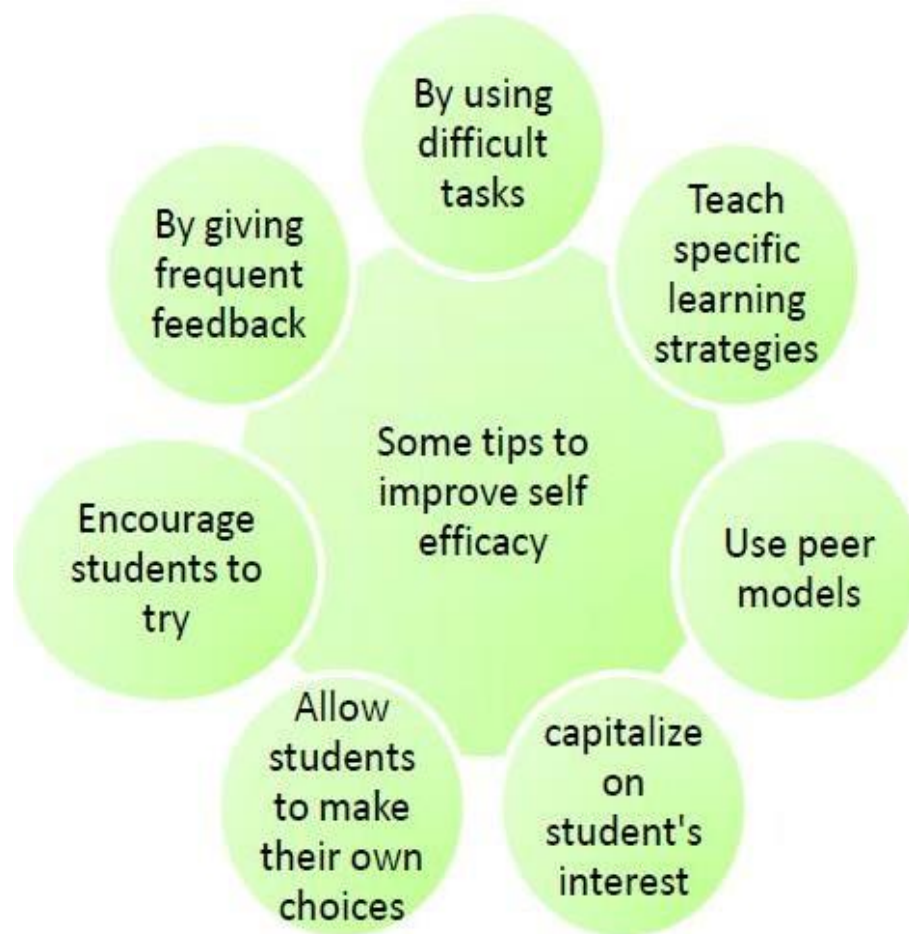
Law and Guo (2016) carried out a study to examine the relationship of hope and self-efficacy with job satisfaction, job stress, and organizational commitment for correctional officers in the Taiwan prison system while controlling for the shared effects of the nature of the institution (i.e., for male or female inmates) and personal characteristics of the officers (i.e., gender, age, and years of work experience). The results indicated that hope had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction and a significant negative association with job stress. Further, self-efficacy showed significant positive association with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Finally, job satisfaction had a significant positive association with organizational commitment.

Zeb and Nawaz (2016) conducted a study to examine the influence of self-efficacy on organizational commitment of academicians of Gomal University, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. Their findings indicated the significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and organizational commitment. Further, self-efficacy emerged as significant predictor of organizational commitment of academicians.

7.1.8 TIPS TO IMPROVE SELF-EFFICACY

- **By choosing difficult tasks:** Self efficacy can be improved when one chooses a difficult that to be done and stress as sometimes the work is difficult while the ability level is low. But the level of self-efficacy can be improved by facing the problems and solving them.
- **Teach specific learning strategies:** A concrete plan should be given to the students for working on a project. It may be applied to overall different study skills, such as to a certain project or preparing a test etc.

- **Use peer models:** Students can learn fast if they watch a peer succeed at some tasks. These peers can be taken from the various keeping in mind their gender, social circles, ethnicity, achievement level etc.
- **Capitalize on student's interest:** Concept or course material should be according to the interested in students. The students may be interested in sports, technology etc.
- **Allow students to make their own choices:** The students should be allowed to make the around choices for this purpose certain areas of the course should be setup.
- **Encourage students to try:** The students should be encouraged from time to time to do their work. Consistent credible and specific encouragement is always helpful. For example they may be



encouraged to write a report, prepare, schedule etc.

Image Source: Google images

- **By giving frequent feedback:** Self efficacy sometimes depends on the teacher's proper feedback to the students. Unnecessary praise or hyperbole while giving feedback on student's performance should be avoided by the teachers. The teachers can help the

students getting self-efficacy with frequent proper feedback.

- **By encouraging accurate attributions:** The students should be making understand that their failure is the result of their not following the instructions properly. They did not spend sufficient time period on their project work and also, they did not adopt appropriate learning strategy.

SELF CONFIDENCE

7.2 INTRODUCTION: CONCEPT & DEFINITION

Self-confidence is a highly acclaimed personal ability, which helps in making one's life much easier and productive. It can help in making progress and also helps in maintaining dignity. And this quality of confidence makes a person powerful, mentally strong and makes him ready so that he can face all the difficulties resiliently.

According to Snyder, Lopez, Shane (2009), "One's self-confidence increases from the experiences of having mastered particular activities." Regarding the qualities of self-confidence, it must be known that self-confidence is a positive facility of mind". It helps a man in making him clear that in future he can boldly face such type of problems. Self- confidence helps in raising one's self esteem or one can evaluate one's own worth. Some writers make a difference amid self-confidence as a common personality characteristic and asa specific trait, ability or challenge. Difference exists amid self -confidence and self-efficacy (Judge, Timothy, Erez, Amir: Bono, Joyce, Thoresen, Carl, (2002). Self-confidence indicates the general characteristic of one's mental ability as mentioned by Albert Bandura - "Self- efficacy is a belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situation or accomplish a task." Self-efficacy may be referred to as the specific type of self-confidence. It can be said that many people have the common confidence of doing small jobs or daily routine activities like cooking meal, shopping, sieving, stitching etc. while they lack the confidence of taking majordecisions or writing poetry or writing plays or novels etc. though sometimes both the activities can be considered as correlated (Luszczynska & Schwarzer 2005).

7.2.1 MAJOR BARRIERS TO SELF-CONFIDENCE:

- **Fear:** It is the first obstacle to develop self-confidence. It may be the fear of failure orfear of ridicule.
- **Inferiority Complex:** It may generally arise due to unfair comparisons. Though, itcan be overcome with practice and by working on one's strengths and not letting the

weaknesses overpower.

- **Worrying:** It is again a predominant factor which loses our confidence. It should be thought that worrying never solves the problem rather it increases our problems.
- **Negative Thoughts:** It is also a barrier in our self-confidence. It can be removed by positive thoughts.

7.2.2 FIVE KEY ATTRIBUTES OF INDIVIDUALS WITH HIGH SELF-CONFIDENCE:

- An evolved sense of Self-Esteem
- Happiness in life
- Abandonment of Self-Doubt
- Freedom from fear, anxiety and stress
- Self-motivation (Intrinsic Motivation)

7.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY & SELF-CONFIDENCE

Self-efficacy is not the judgment of what a person has done but what that person thinks, perceives and believes that he or she can do. It is that perception of one having the power or a belief to affect and produce by completing particular tasks or activities related to competence. In other words, it is the process to understand oneself and the various aspects of one's personality. Self-efficacy relates to person's perception of his or her ability to reach certain goals or objectives. For instance, one may believe he or she is capable of performing a certain task, which will produce certain goals. An athlete or a footballer that has high level of self-efficacy has expectations of getting positive outcomes. **Self-efficacy is viewed as self-confidence in particular situations.** However, self-efficacy affects the choice of sports or activity, persistence at the sports, and the amount of effort extended. For instance, somebody might be generally self-confident in certain sports but when it comes to playing golf that the person is not good at, they might have very low self-efficacy in those circumstances. Self-efficacy is described as the belief in individual capability in executing and organizing sources of action which are required in managing prospective situations. In other word, self-efficacy is described as the self-judgment of an individual's belief in his or her own abilities and competence. People with very high level of self-efficacy seek challenges, attribute success to the internal factors such as effort and ability and these elevate confidence and also increase expectations of succeeding in the next challenge. However, individuals with low level of self-

efficacy, adopt some avoidance behaviours, give up easily as well as become anxious when a task is difficult and attribute failure to the internal factors. This results in a decrease in confidence and reduces expectations of success in the next challenge. On the other hand, self-confidence lowers the anxiety by creating a positive expectation of success. Additionally, self-confidence increases one's motivation by raising the perceived competence and enhances one concentration by eliminating distraction from a negative personal putdowns and thoughts.

Self-confidence is further described as the assertion or the trust in oneself, believing in a person's own aptitude, making choice that might be referring to the general context or to the specific doings or events. It can also be referred to as self-assurance. On the other hand, self-efficacy is that capability of a person to attain required outcomes. Those sportsmen and women with high level of self-efficacy tend to have high desire, high obligation and also are able to reinstate themselves after facing failures better than those individuals with low level of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy enables individuals to view heavy responsibilities and tasks as challenges to be tackled or handled rather than as arisk or danger which has to be avoided at all times. Feelings of a greater or higher level of self-efficacy are associated with improved performance in the athletics competition or in exercises as well as improved levels of any sport related performance.

Self-confidence is described as the belief which one can successfully execute specific activity instead of the global trait which accounts for the overall optimism. It is a more stable and a comprehensive personality characteristic, whilst self-efficacy is unstable, fluctuating and changing rapidly depending on circumstances. As the self-efficacy builds, the levels of self-perception increases and in return, builds self-confidence.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- Q1. How does someone get to suffer from low self-efficacy and what can be done to raise it?
- Q2. Is self-efficacy required in daily life? How are self-efficacy and self-confidence related?
- Q3. Do you think believing in yourself matters in all the areas of life be it education or organizations? Explain.
- Q4. How does self-efficacy influence performance?

7.4 CONCLUSION

Building belief in our own capabilities increases our level of self-efficacy and influences what we are able to do. This increasing belief in our own power to effect change is a catalyst for a

range of new, healthy behaviour patterns. For example, we can maintain a more positive attitude that in turn positively impacts our emotional state and level of motivation. We are better able to find the strength from within to accept setbacks as challenges and to persevere in the face of difficulties more easily. For instance, while exercise may be more difficult for us (and in some cases, it may seem entirely *too hard*) by applying self-efficacy principles we can, particularly with the help of others, reinvigorate our exercise regimen and gain the quality of life and symptom improvement exercise can bring.

The summation of your experiences, actions, and circumstances is unique to you. Self-confidence refers to how much you believe in yourself. It refers to appreciating all these qualities that you have and believing you are worthy of all the good things on earth. Everyone should have self-confidence. Self-confidence is such an invaluable trait to have. In fact, it is an essential human need. Self-confidence is necessary for normal interactions and the right reactions to all situations in life. Also, being self-confident presents you with opportunities in life. If you have low self-confidence you need to pick up your socks, open your eyes and realize how much you are missing out by not realizing your full potential.

7.5 FURTHER READINGS

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7.6 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

- Q1 Discuss the concept of Self-efficacy.
- Q2 Is there any relation between self-efficacy and self-confidence? If yes, explain.