



**The Motto of Our University
(SEWA)**

SKILL-ENHANCEMENT

EMPL OYABILITY

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-IV

BLAB32409T: SOFT SKILLS

HeadQuarter: C/28, The Lower Mall, Patiala-147001

WEBSITE: www.psou.ac.in

The Study Material has been prepared exclusively under the guidance of Jagat Guru Nanak Dev Punjab State Open University, Patiala, as per the syllabi prepared by Committee of Experts and approved by the Academic Council.

The University reserves all the copyrights of the study material. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form.

COURSE COORDINATOR AND EDITOR:

Dr. Gurleen Ahluwalia

**Assistant Professor
School of Languages
JGNDPSOU, Patiala**

LIST OF CONSULTANTS/CONTRIBUTORS

Sr.No.	Name
1	Dr. Damanjeet Sandhu
2	Dr. Harpreet Kaur Kohli
3	Dr. Mandeep Kaur Randhawa
4	Prof. Manisha
5	Dr. Naina Sharma
6	Dr. Ruby Gupta



JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY, PATIALA
(Established by Act No.19 of 2019 of the Legislature of State of Punjab)

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 10 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. Anita Gill
Dean Academic Affairs



JAGAT GURUNANK 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-IV
(BLAB32409T) SOFT SKILLS
(SEC)

MAX MARKS:100

EXTERNAL:70

INTERNAL:30

PASS:35%

Credits: 4

Objective:

The course aims to cause a basic awareness about the significance of soft skills in professional and inter-personal communications and facilitate an all-round development of personality. Soft skills not only help in acquiring a job but make it easy for a person to scale new heights, achieve excellence, and derive fulfilment and supreme joy in their lives.

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 answer 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

Unit I: Teamwork and Leadership Skills: Concept of Teams; Building effective teams; Concept of Leadership and honing Leadership skills.

Unit II: Decision-Making and Problem-Solving Skills: Meaning, Types and Models, Group and Ethical Decision-Making, Problems and Dilemmas in application of these skills.

Unit III: Conflict Management: Conflict - Definition, Nature, Types and Causes; Methods of Conflict Resolution.

Unit IV: Emotional intelligence: importance, concept, theory and measurements.

Section B:

Unit V: Stress Management: strategies for preventing and relieving stress; Time management: techniques and styles.

Unit VI: Interview Skills: Interviewer and Interviewee – in-depth perspectives. Before, During and After the Interview, Tips for Success.

Unit VII: 2. Presentation Skills: Types, Content, Audience Analysis, Essential Tips – Before, During and After, Overcoming Nervousness.

Unit VIII: Personality Development – Meaning, Nature, Features, Stages, Models; Learning Skills; Adaptability Skills.

Suggested Readings:

- Dhanavel, S.P. English and Soft Skills. Hyderabad: Orient BlackSwan, 2021.
- Koneru, Aruna. Professional Communication. Delhi: McGraw, 2008.
- Krishnan, Malathy, ZiniaMitra and Binayak Roy. Interact: A course in Communicative English. Greater Noida: Cambridge University Press, 2019.
- Mahanand, Anand. English for Academic and Professional Skills. Delhi: McGraw, 2013. Print.
- Rani, D Sudha, TVS Reddy, D Ravi, and AS Jyotsna. A Workbook on English Grammar and Composition. Delhi: McGraw, 2016.
- Rizvi, M. Ashraf. Effective Technical Communication. Delhi: McGraw, 2018.
- Pease, Allan and Barbara Pease. The Definitive Book of Body Language. New Delhi: Manjul Publishing House, 2005.
- Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan. Business Correspondence and Report Writing. Delhi: McGraw, 2013.
- Tengse, Ajay R. Soft Skills: A textbook for undergraduates, Orient BlackSwan, 2015.



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 (SEC)

SEMESTER-IV

(BLAB32409T) SOFT SKILLS

COURSE COORDINATOR AND EDITOR: DR. GURLEEN AHLUWALIA

SECTION A

UNIT NO:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 1	Teamwork and Leadership Skills
UNIT 2	Decision-Making and Problem-Solving Skills
UNIT 3	Conflict Management
UNIT 4	Emotional intelligence

SECTION B

UNIT NO:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 5	Stress Management; Time Management
UNIT 6	Interview Skills
UNIT 7	Presentation Skills
UNIT 8	Personality Development

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT 1: TEAMWORK AND LEADERSHIP

STRUCTURE

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Meaning of Team

1.3 Stages of Development of Team

1.3.1 Self-Check Exercise 1

1.4 Effective Team

1.4.1 Self-Check Exercise 2

1.5 Increasing Group Cohesiveness

1.6 Team Conflict

1.7 Virtual Teams: Panacea in the Pandemic

1.8 Summary

1.9 Keywords

1.10 Answers to Self-Check Exercises

1.11 Recommended Readings

1.12 Questions for Exercise

1.0 OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

- To understand the meaning of Team.
- To explain formation of team from group.
- To understand the essentials for an Effective Team.
- To discuss the role of Team Leaders in directing employees towards organizational goals.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A team is a small aggregation of people associated with joint goals and work enthusiastically towards its achievement. Research has shown that teams have been more successful as compared to work done by individuals as the collective wisdom of the team members stands in good stead. As organizations have realigned to brace up themselves to face competition, teams as a way to harness employee talents have become indispensable. Management has found that teams are more adaptable and react to dynamic environment than conventional departments or other forms of permanent groupings. Teams can swiftly get together, arrange, reorient, and disperse. Teams also can be more motivational for the members as members work synergistically. A leader has to see that the team functions in tandem with the vision and mission of the organization and steers the team members away from conflict to cohesion and camaraderie.

1.2 MEANING OF TEAM

The terms group and team are sometimes used interchangeably, though the two are not synonyms. The term group has a wide meaning. It refers to a number of people who share some activity, interest, or quality. Groups may be brought together for a particular purpose, or they may be informal such as a group of friends, neighbours, colleagues, etc.

Although individuals in a group have common characteristics, they may not have a common goal or task. For example, a group of students in a class has a common feature – they all have come to learn, but these students are not necessarily working towards a common goal. The absence of a specific, shared goal or purpose is a main factor that differentiates a group. Moreover, the members of a group are independent; they do not rely on each other since roles and responsibilities are not assigned to each member.

On the other hand, Team refers to a number of persons associated for a common purpose. They coordinate the tasks and activities to achieve this shared goal. The roles and duties are defined and specified for every member in a team. Members of a team are interdependent since each member is responsible for a certain task. In addition, there is mutuality between members of the team. This attribute helps to capitalise the strengths and minimize weaknesses in the team and reap the benefits of synergy. Some examples of teams include research and development teams, fast food restaurant crew, product development team, soccer team, etc.

Groups become teams when

- Team members share leadership.
- Both individuals and the team as whole share accountability for the work of the team.
- The team sets its own intent or objective.
- The team's measure of efficacy lies in the achievement of the team, not individual outcomes and goals.

Therefore, all groups are not teams but, all teams can be considered groups.

In the contemporary business world, organizations have reorganised to face competition successfully. As such, they have realized that teams are a better medium to harness employees' talents. The present day Managements of Corporates have found that teams are more adjustable to the dynamic business environments than conventional departments or other forms of official groupings. Teams can quickly come together, arrange, refocus, and disperse. Teams also can be motivated to reach their organizational goals. Moreover, teams have greater task identity, which boosts the employees' morale. Teams provide for greater common task recognition, with team members working on tasks in synergy.

The triumphant or high performing, teams have certain common features. If management desires to harness enhanced organizational performance through the use of teams, it must ensure that its teams possess these characteristics.

1.3 STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT OF TEAM

The Five-Stage Model

Dr. Bruce W. Tuckman, a psychologist at Ohio State University, published an article in 1965 called 'Tuckman's Stages of Group Development.' Initially, it was a 4-stage model, Forming, Storming, Norming, and Performing, but later in 1977, a fifth stage Adjourning was included. Mary Ann Jensen, and Dr. Bruce Tuckman both jointly worked on the last stage. It is also known as the Tuckman ladder model.

From the mid-1960s, it was believed that groups passed through a standard sequence of five stages.



Fig.1

As shown in Fig.1 these five stages have been labelled forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. Although, it is not necessary that all groups shall have the linear trajectory, the five stage model of group development can still help in developing understanding about working in groups and teams. The model traces the passage of individuals from being independent to operating in synergy with group members.

- **Stage I: Forming.** This stage deals with the feelings of members feeling nervous and confused about the task they are required to accomplish. The first stage of group development is known as forming. Forming is characterized by a great deal of ambiguity about the group's goal, constitution and leadership. This stage is complete when members feel associated with the group.
- **Stage II Storming:** This stage deals with the power struggles faced by some people in the group, who are not able to function as a cohesive unit. The dominant characteristic of the storming stage is intergroup conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but refuse to accept the restrictions that the group imposes on individuality. Furthermore, there is divergence over who will command the group. When this stage is complete, a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership emerges within the group. Some groups never really emerge from the storming stage, or they oscillate between storming and the other stages. A group that remains perpetually embedded in the storming stage may have less ability to conclude task due to all the interpersonal conflicts.

- **Stage III Norming:** Many groups, who are able to resolve the interpersonal conflict, reach the third stage, in which cordial relationships develop and the group is characterized by cohesiveness. There is now a strong bond of group recognition and comradeship. The group develops norms, acceptable yardsticks of conduct that are shared by the group's members. All groups have established norms that convey to the members what they are expected to do and not do under certain circumstances. When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of exerting influence the behaviour of group members with minimal peripheral controls. The norming stage is complete when the group structure strengthens and the group has imbibed a common set of expectations about what defines approved member behaviour.
- **Stage IV Performing:** In this stage, considerable task progress is made, as such, it is called performing. The configuration at this juncture is fully operational and accepted. The Group energy shifts from understanding each other to performing the task at hand.
- **Stage V Adjourning:** For enduring work groups, performing is the last stage in their development. However, for temporary committees, teams, task forces, and similar groups that have a limited task to perform, there is adjourning stage. In this stage, the group prepares to disband. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority; rather attention is diverted towards winding up activities. Group members' responses vary at this stage. Some members are buoyant, while others may be depressed over the loss of comradeship and bonding formed during the course of work group's life.

Limitations of the Five – Stage Model

Major researches have shown that under five-stage model, a group becomes more effectual in its journey through the first four stages. This model does not take into account many complex issues which make a group effective. Under certain circumstances, conflicts lead to enhanced group performance, as long as the conflict is directed toward the task and not towards individual group members. Groups do not always automatically progress from one stage to the next. Sometimes, in fact, several stages go on simultaneously, as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Sometimes, groups revert back to preceding stages.

The five- stage model ignores organizational context, which provides the framework of rules, task definitions, information, and resources needed for the group to perform.

1.3.1 Self-Check Exercise 1

- (i) The stage of team formation which deals with the power struggles faced by some people in the group is called
- (ii) The stage of team formation when the group develops norms, acceptable yardsticks of conduct that are shared by the group's members is called.....
- (iii) Individuals who have some common characteristics but may or may not share any common activity, is known as.....

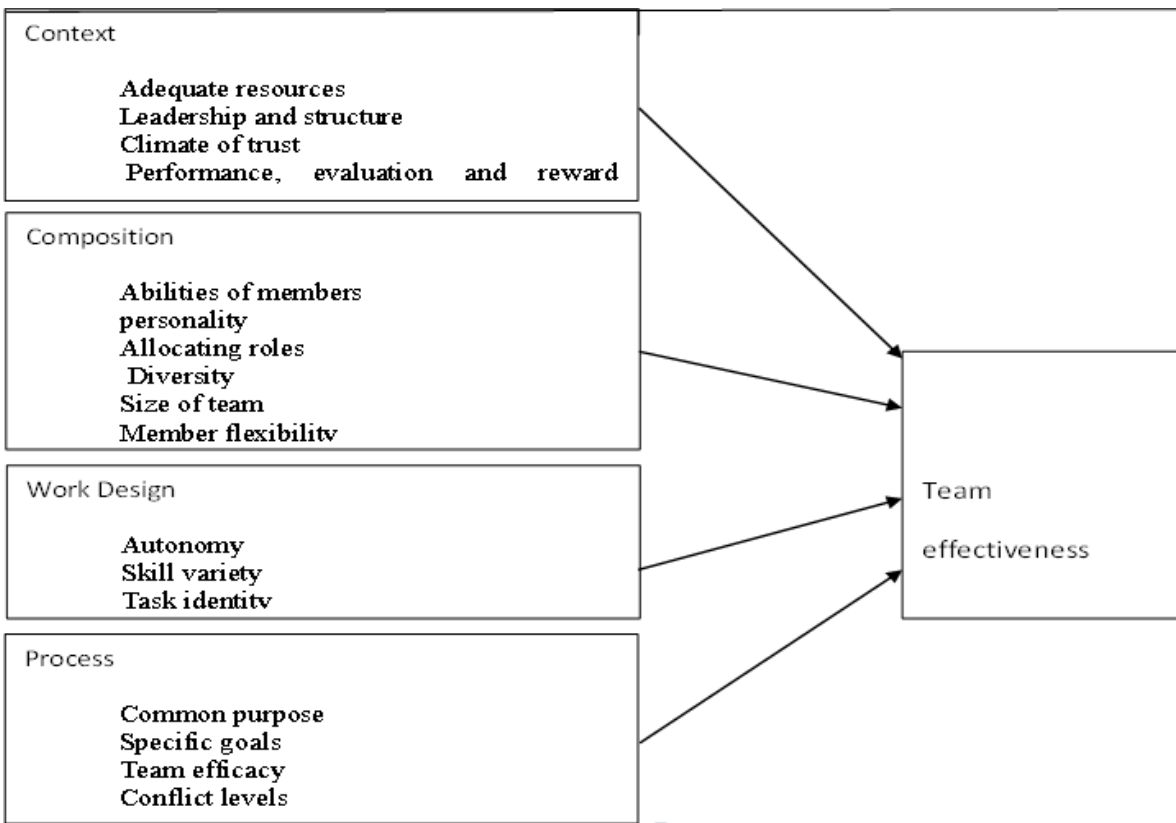
(iv) The stage, in which the group prepares to disband is called.....

1.4 EFFECTIVE TEAM

Within the workplace, some group behaviour takes place within a strong organizational context, and the five- stage development model might have limited applicability for those groups. The vital parameters to be kept in mind for determining team effectiveness are: team's output, managers' rankings of the team's performance and cumulative measures of member satisfaction.

However, research has shown that a relatively focused model with four general categories is essential as summarized in Fig 2.

Fig.2: A model of Team Effectiveness



Source: Robbins and Judge, (2013)“Organisational behaviour,“15thEdition, Pearson Publication.

Characteristics of an Effective Team

1. Precise Objective- The vision, mission, goal or task of the team needs to be defined and is accepted by everyone. There is an action plan.

- 2. Familiarity-** The organisational climate needs to be informal, comfortable, and relaxed. There should be no obvious tensions or signs of boredom.
- 3. Participation-** The team should involve the participation of every member through discussions and deliberations.
- 4. Listening-** The members need to use valuable listening techniques such as raising queries, paraphrasing, and presenting synoptic view.
- 5. Be Polite in expressing differences-** There could be disagreement, but the team should be comfortable with this and show no signs of avoiding, or suppressing conflict.
- 6. Decisions should be based on Consensus** –It may not be always possible to reach at unanimous decisions for all vital issues. The agreement should be arrived at through mutual expression of ideas by open discussion without resorting to official voting.
- 7. Free communication-** Team members should be given the liberty to express their viewpoints concerning the job at hand in conjunction with the operations of the group.
- 8. Precise rules and work assignments-** The team members should be informed about what is expected from them from the task assigned to them.
- 9. Shared leadership-** With formal team leader, leadership functions vary from time to time depending on the situation, the requirements of the group, and the skills of the members. The formal leader chalks out the models of the appropriate conduct and sets standard norms.
- 10. Relations with Outsiders-** The team spends time developing key external relationships, mobilizing resources, and building credibility with important players in other parts of the organization.
- 11. Diversity in Approach-** The team has a broad spectrum of team-player types including members who focus on task, fixing objectives, attention on process, and queries about the performance of the team.
- 12. Self evaluation-** At regular intervals, the team halts to scrutinize its operations.

Team Efficacy

Effective teams are accustomed to tasting success in their endeavours. This is called team efficacy in management terminology. Success breeds success. Teams that have been successful raise their beliefs about future success which, in turn, motivates them to work harder. One of the major contributory factors that help teams build their efficacy is cohesiveness- the extent to which members are attached with one another and are inclined to continue in the team. Though teams differ in their cohesiveness, it is of paramount importance as it has been found to be directly related to the team's productivity.

If performance-related norms are high, viz. high output, quality work, cooperation with individuals outside the groups, a consistent group will be more productive than a less cohesive group, as depicted in Fig 3. On the contrary, if performance norms are low and cohesiveness is high, productivity will be low. On the other hand, if cohesiveness is low and performance norms are high, productivity increases- but less than in the high cohesiveness- high norms situation. In

the last scenario, if cohesiveness and performance norms are both low, productivity will tend to fall into the low to moderate range.

A majority of studies on cohesiveness emphasise on socio-emotional cohesiveness, the "sense of togetherness" that develops when individuals derive emotional satisfaction from group.

Fig.3 Relationship among Team Cohesiveness, Performance Norms, and Productivity

Cohesiveness

Performance Norms	High	Low
	High productivity	Moderate Productivity
	Low productivity	Moderate to low productivity

Source: Robbins and Judge, (2013) –Organisational behaviour, “15thEdition, Pearson Publication.

There is also instrumental cohesiveness, i.e. the "sense of togetherness" that develops when group members are mutually dependent on one another because they believe they cannot achieve the group's goal by acting individually. Teams need to strike equilibrium between these two types of cohesiveness to function well.

As a team develops an impeccable performance record, it also enhances the mutual trust that further efforts will ensure success. Moreover, managers need to provide training to perk up members' technical and interpersonal skills. The abilities of team members are directly related to the confidence and the potential to achieve the common objectives.

1.4.1 Self-check Exercise 2: True/False

- (i) Where cohesiveness is high and performance norms are low, productivity will be high.
- (ii) Where cohesiveness is low and performance norms are high, productivity decreases:- but less than in the high cohesiveness- high norms situation.
- (iii) Where cohesiveness and performance related norms are both low, productivity will tend to fall into the low to moderate range

1.5 INCREASING GROUP/TEAM COHESIVENESS

Increasing socio-emotional cohesiveness

- To limit the size of group/team.
- To make efforts for a positive public image to raise the status and prestige of belonging.

- To accentuate interaction and collaboration.
- To lay stress on members' mutual traits and interests.
- To highlight environmental threats viz. rivals' accomplishments to boost the group/team.

Increasing instrumental cohesiveness

- To periodically keep informed and elucidate the group's/team's goal (S).
- To impart every group member a vital "piece of the action".
- To harness each group member's special talents towards the common goals.
- To recognize and equitably reinforce every member's contributions.
- To frequently remind team members they need to nurture a symbiotic relation with each other.

1.6 TEAM CONFLICT

Conflict in a team is not necessarily bad. The major conflicts in team arise due to interpersonal incompatibilities, differences in perceptions, goals, or/and values of the team members, which leads to less than optimal performance of the team. However, teams where conflicts are absent are likely to be less effective, with the members becoming withdrawn and only superficially cordial, as no genuine interaction takes place between them. Often, in the absence of conflict, the alternative is not agreement, but indifference and disengagement. Teams that avoid conflict also tend to have lower performance levels, forget to consider vital issues, or remain oblivious of significant aspects of their situation. Hence, an appropriate level of conflict is essential for effective teams.

Groups need mechanisms by which they can resolve the conflict. The team members should freely share information and goals and be open and collaborate for steering through the labyrinth of disagreement. A sense of humour and a willingness to understand the viewpoints of others without insisting that everyone agree on all points are also important. Leaders/managers should motivate Group members to focus on the issues rather than on personalities, and strive to achieve objectivity and justness in the team work.

MANAGING TEAM CONFLICT

- Members should work with more, rather than less, information, and debate on the basis of facts.
- Team members should develop various alternatives to enrich the level of debate.
- Team members need to develop mutually agreed-upon goals.
- Team members should adopt a pleasant disposition and use humour when making tough decisions.
- Team members need to maintain a balanced power structure.
- Team members should resolve issues without forcing consensus.

ROLE OF TEAM LEADERS

Leadership has gained importance in relation to teams. As teams are becoming popular, the role of leader in catalysing the team members assumes lot of significance. Moreover, the role of team leader is to integrate the efforts of all team members, which is rather different from the conventional leadership role performed by frontline supervisors. This transition is always smooth and many leaders face challenges on their way. While for natural team leaders, this shift is very easy, for others it may not be so smooth due to their domineering disposition. The success of team leader lies in subordination of individual interest to general interest, which becomes difficult for over-bearing leaders. However, they can learn to lead teams if they are willing and earnest. For Team Leaders to be effective, they should have confidence, commitment, provide opportunities and steer the team tactfully from all bottlenecks. Virtues of patience, ability to share information, belief in members, not clinging to authority and possessing the sensitivity to understand when to intervene need to be inculcated by Team Leaders. Team Leaders should be sensitized as to when to stick to authority and when to allow autonomy, by feeling the pulse of the team members.

Team leaders have to provide coaching, mentoring, training, facilitation and effective communication, apart from dealing with disciplinary problems from time to time. Two major areas which are of prime importance for Team leaders are:

- **Troubleshooting:** The leader needs to intervene in the team by asking all-pervading questions, helping in solving problems, enabling discussions among members and providing the required resources.
- **Liaisons with External Parties:** The higher management, internal teams, customers and suppliers constitute outsiders. The Team leader has to collect information from external sources and intimate the team about what is expected from them. Thus, the Team leader is the connecting nerve between team members' action and outsiders' expectation.
- **Coaching:** As a Coach, Team leader specifies the roles and expectations from members, offers support, spearheads and does everything to boost members' performance.
- **Conflict Manager:** Conflict is inevitable in any team activity. The strength of a Team Leader lies in finding out the source of conflict, issues of conflict, connection of members and successful handling of the conflict. The leader needs to allow members to put forth their ideas in an objective manner, which will allow the fair handling of the conflict.

Thus, role of a Team Leader encompasses:

Creating a real team, giving precise and meaningful directions for the teams' activities; empowering the team structure so as to enhance its working; ensuring that organizational climate is conducive for the functioning of the team and providing Expert Coaching.

1.7 VIRTUAL TEAMS: PANACEA IN THE PANDEMIC

Virtual teams use computer technology to reach out to physically distanced members in order to attain a common goal. They enable people to collaborate online- using communication links such as wide-area networks, Videoconferencing, and email-whether team members are only a room away or continents apart. With the rapid strides in technology and increasing globalization, virtual teams have become not only possible, but necessary. The present pandemic has made virtual team meetings indispensable for business purposes. If the work is knowledge-based rather than production-oriented, virtual teams are most preferred. Virtual teams provide team members information and enable decision-making and performing tasks similar to face-to-face meetings through use of technology. They can include members from the same organization or link an organization's members with employees from other organizations, viz. suppliers and joint partners. Virtual teams are able to break geographical barriers and enable people in different geographical and time zones to work together.

Virtual teams suffer from the limited social contact of team members, leading to bonding problems. They are not the perfect substitutes for offline teams, but in the present scenario virtual team meetings are the only viable means of working cohesively. Lack of rapport can lead to slower and less accurate performance than in the case for face-to-face teams.

Virtual teams face the problem of lack of non-verbal cues in their communications, which are present in face-to-face conversation, viz. tone of voice, voice volume, eye movement, facial expression, hand gestures, and other body language cues to provide complete understanding. As a result, virtual team members often have less social rapport and are more at risk of misunderstanding one another.

MANAGING VIRTUAL TEAMS

Establishing trust and commitment, encouraging communication, and assessing team members are the pre-requisites for effective virtual team management. The following considerations should be kept in mind:

- Leader/manager should fix regular times for group interaction.
- Leader/manager should set up firm rules for communication.
- Leader/manager should use visual forms of communication where possible.
- Leader/manager should copy the good points of on-site teams. For example, allow time for informal chitchat and socializing, and celebrate achievements.
- Leader/manager should give and receive feedback and offer assistance on a regular basis. He has to be persistent with people who are not communicating with him or each other.

- Leader/manager should agree on standard technology so all team members can work together easily.
- Managers need to use 360- feedback for better understanding and assessment of team members. This type of feedback comes from the full gamut of daily contacts that an employee has, including supervisors, peers, subordinates, and clients.
- Managers/leaders should provide a virtual workspace via an intranet, website, or bulletin board.
- Managers/Leaders need to observe which employees effectively use email to build team rapport.
- Leaders/managers should pave the way for the next assignment if membership on the team, or the team itself, is not permanent.
- Leader/manager should be available for employees.
- Leader/manager should encourage informal, off-line conversation between team members.

1.8 SUMMARY

Teams are becoming increasingly effective in attaining management goals. Effective team work involves cohesion among the team members and following the management principle of subordination of individual interest to general interest of the organization. When individuals come together, united for a common goal, burying their individual differences, only then there is unity in direction, thereby increasing the team efficacy. The transition from group to team involves various stages, involving ice-breaking, inter-personal conflicts, understanding the uniqueness of every member and then bonding over common organizational objectives. An effective leader can motivate the team to work ardently towards the attainment of organizational goals by guiding and directing them.

1.9 KEYWORDS

Team: It refers to a number of people who share some activity, interest, or quality.

Group: People in a group have common characteristics, they may not have a common goal or task.

Storming: This stage of team formation which deals with the power struggles faced by some people in the group

Norming: The stage of team formation when the group develops norms, acceptable yardsticks of conduct that are shared by the group's members.

Cohesiveness- The extent to which members are attracted to one another and are motivated to stay on the team.

Virtual team: Teams which use computer technology to bring together physically separated members on a common virtual platform to attain a common goal.

Team Conflict: It is an interpersonal problem that occurs between members of a team caused due to differences in perceptions, goals, or/and values of the team members, which leads to less than optimal performance of the team.

1.10 ANSWERS TO SELF-CHECK EXERCISES:

Self-Check Exercise1 (i) Storming (ii) Norming (iii) Group (iv) Adjourning

Self-Check Exercise2 (i) False (ii) False (iii) True

1.11 RECOMMENDED READINGS

- Organisational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins
- Principles and Practice of Management by L.M. Prasad
- Organisational Behaviour-An Evidence Based Approach by Fred Luthans.

1.12 QUESTIONS FOR EXERCISE

1. Distinguish between team and group.
2. Explain the stages in development of team.
3. Define Team Efficacy. Also discuss the importance of Team Efficacy in an organization.
4. Define Team Conflict. Discuss the ways to manage Team Conflicts.

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT-2: DECISION-MAKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING

STRUCTURE

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Definitions

2.3 Characteristics of Decision Making

2.4 Elements of Decision Making

2.5 Types of Decisions

- i. Organizational & Personal Decisions**
- ii. Routine & Strategic Decisions**
- iii. Programmed & Non-Programmed Decisions**
- iv. Major and Minor decisions**
- v. Crisis and Intuitive and Research Decision**
- vi. Refereed Decisions**
- vii. Problem solving and opportunity**
- viii. Individual & Group Decisions**
- ix. Short term and Long term Decisions**
- x. Economic and Non-Economic Decisions**

2.6 Decision-making Styles

2.7 Approaches of Decisions

2.8 Decision-making Process

2.9 Importance of decision- making

2.10 Difference between Problem Analysis and Decision Making

2.11 Six steps of Problem Solving

- i. Define the Problem**
- ii. Determine the Root Cause(s) of the Problem**

- iii. **Develop Alternative Solutions**
- iv. **Select a Solution**
- v. **Implement the Solution**
- vi. **Evaluate the Outcome**

2.12 Group decision-making techniques

- i. **Brainstorming**
- ii. **Delphi Technique**
- iii. **Dialectic Decision making**

2.13 Barriers/Problems/Dilemmas to Effective Decision-Making

- i. **Bounded Rationality**
- ii. **Escalation of Commitment**
- iii. **Time Constraints**
- iv. **Uncertainty**
- v. **Personal Biases**
- vi. **Conflict**

2.14 Conclusion

2.15 Suggested Readings

2.16 Questions for Practice

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this lesson is to know about the managerial decision-making and its process. There are number of theories in decision-making process. Also, one of the objectives is to administrate the problems in the managerial decisions. The lesson will also explain the relation of decision and risk and some related concepts.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Decision-making may be reviewed as the process of selecting a course of action from among several alternatives in order to accomplish a desired result. The purpose of decision-making is to direct human behaviour and commitment towards a future goal. If there are no alternatives, if no choice is to be made, if there is no other way- out, then there would be no need for decision making. It involves committing the organisation and its resources to a particular choice of course of action thought to be sufficient and capable of achieving some predetermined objective.

Managers at all level in the organisation make decisions and solve problems. In fact, decision making is the process of reducing the gap between the existing situation and the desired situation through solving problems and making use of opportunities. A decision is a course of action consciously selected from available alternatives, with a view to achieving a desired goal. It is an outcome of the judgement and represents a choice and commitment to the same. A decision is conclusion reached after consideration. It occurs when one option is selected to the exclusion of others – it is rendering of judgement.

2.2 DEFINITIONS

A manager has to decide about doing or not doing a particular thing. A decision is the selection among alternatives –it is a solution selected after examining several alternatives chosen because the decider forces that the course of action he selects will be more than the other to further his goals and will be accomplished by the fewest possible objectionable consequences.’

Literally speaking, decision-making has been taken from the word ‘decide’, which is a Latin word meaning –to cut-off or to come to a conclusion. A decision represents a course of behaviour selected from a number of possible alternatives.

According to George Terry, –Decision-making is a selection based on sum criteria from two or more possible alternatives. |

According to McFarland, "A decision is an act of choice wherein an executive forms a conclusion about what must be done in a given situation. A decision represents a course of behaviour chosen from a number of possible alternatives."

Different management scholars have defined Decision-making as follows:

Heinz Wehrich and Harold Koontz

Decision-making is defined as the selection of a course of action among alternatives, it is the care of planning.

Louis Allen

Decision-making is the work a manager performs to arrive at conclusion and judgement.

In simple words, Decision-making is a process of selecting one optimum alternative from different alternatives of a course of action.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is globally thought to be selection from alternatives. It is deeply related with all the traditional functions of a manager, such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing

and controlling. When he performs these functions, he makes decisions. However, the traditional management theorists did not pay much attention to decision making. In fact, the meaningful analysis of decision-making process was initiated by Chester Bernard (1938), who commented, the process of decision are largely techniques for narrowing choice.

The nature of decision making may be clearly understood by the following characteristics:

- a. Decision-making is an intellectual process, which involves imagination, reasoning, evaluation and judgement.
- b. It is a selection process in which best or most suitable course of action is finalized from among several available alternatives. Such selected alternative provides utmost help in the achievement of organizational goals. The problems for which there is only one selection are most decision problems.
- c. Decision-making is a goal oriented process. Decisions are made to attain certain goals. A decision is rated good to the extent it helps in the accomplishment of objectives.
- d. It is a focal point at which plans, policies, objectives, procedures, etc., are translated into concrete actions.
- e. Decision-making is a continuous process pervading all organizational activity, at all levels and in the whole universe. It is a systematic process and an interactive activity.
- f. Decision-making involves commitment of resources, direction or reputation of the enterprise.
- g. Decision-making is always related to place, situation and time. It may be decision not act in the given circumstances.
- h. After decision-making it is necessary and significant to communicate its results (decisions) for their successful execution.
- i. The effectiveness of decision making process is enhanced by participation.

2.4 ELEMENTS OF DECISION-MAKING

There are following elements in decision making:

- The decision maker.
- The decision problem or goal.
- Attitudes, values and personal goals of the decision maker.
- Assumption with regard to future events and things.
- The environment in which decision is to be made.
- Available known alternatives and their estimated or imagined outcomes.
- Analytical results in the whole perspective.
- The constraints.

- The act of selection or choice.
- Timing of decision.
- Proper communication of decision for its effective execution.

Self-Check Exercise

- 1. Define decision-making.**
- 2. Explain the characteristics of Decision-making.**
- 3. Which are the elements of Decision-making?**

2.5 TYPES OF DECISION MAKING

i. Organisational and Personal Decision:

Decisions in any organisation are taken by persons working in it. All the decisions are related either to organisation or to individual. Whenever a person assuming the charge of a manager, takes any decision it is a decision of the manager and not the person. Such decisions are related to organisational matters and taken by a person as a manager. These decisions are known as organisational decisions. Capital formation, new methods or techniques of production, new production line, closing of any unit, rules, methodology of working etc. fall in the preview of organisational decisions. Such decisions directly affect the organisation.

On the other hand, if the same person decides to go on leave, retire, or resign, such decisions are his personal decisions. They directly affect him though they may have indirect effect on the organisation. Organisational decisions are to be implemented throughout the organisation and they are binding on all concerned people whereas personal decisions have nothing to do with the organisation. They may have some indirect effect on the organisation as they are directly related to his individual personality and not his personality as a manager.

ii. Basic (Strategic and Routine) Operational Decisions:

Organisational decisions may be related to either strategies or operational methodology and allied matters. Strategic decisions are also known as –Basic decisions. These are generally based on original plans and relate to formulate policy to implement the plans. Such decisions are mostly one time decisions and are in implementation for a pretty long period. These decisions provide guidelines for attainment of organisational goals.

Once the strategies and guidelines are decided, all the lower level managers have to work according to the strategies and within the preview of guidelines. But methodology or the

operational ethics are needed to be prepared. Decisions in this regard are known as operational or routine decisions. These decisions are required to be altered according to the prevailing situations. Naturally they are of repetitive nature. Such decisions are taken for routine work therefore they are at times, known as day- to-day decisions.

iii. Structural (Programmed) and Unstructured (Un-programmed) Decisions:

As seen above, strategies are decided for a pretty long period along with guidelines for the implements i.e. lower level managers. In order to facilitate day-to-day working the lower level managers have to take some decisions to set right the operational machinery for better performance.

For example – assignment of work to employee, grant of short leave to the worker, method of utilising resources etc. Such decisions are known as structured or programmed decisions. These have a very short impact and are changeable from time to time.

But if a new unit is to be started or any of the existing units is to be closed, or change in product line or change in the wage or salary structure is to be made, decisions are required to be taken by the top level management. Such decisions have a long-term impact on the organisation. These decisions are known as unstructured or un-programmed decisions.

iv. Major and Minor Decisions:

Basic and unstructured decisions are major decisions. They are taken by top management. Operational and structured decisions are of minor nature and are taken by lower level managers. Major decisions may bring a major change in policy and strategy that affects the total organisation. These are independent decisions of the policy makers. Minor decisions are aimed at fulfilment of major decisions. Such minor decisions are to be kept in the sphere of major decisions. Minor decisions are generally taken by lower level managers.

v. Crisis and Intuitive and Research Decision:

Whatever decisions are taken in crisis situation like stress, surprise, unusual circumstances, emergencies are called as crisis or intuitive decisions. Crisis decisions are often based on experience, detailed analysis and confidence. These decisions are generally made under pressure. On the other hand, research decision can be made under a minimum time-pressure.

vi. Referred Decisions:

Lower level managers have to face situations arising during the course of working. They have to overcome such situations by taking immediate decisions, but some managers (Lower level) are unambitious, inactive and incapable of taking decisions. At times they are afraid about the correctness of the decision which they may take for lack of confidence. They refer the matter to their superiors and request for their decision. Such decisions are called referred decisions.

vii. Problem Solving and Opportunity Decisions:

Top level management is required to pay attention to problems that are existing and may crop up in future. Capable top management can foresee future problems, the same way good managers can imagine and foresee future situations and probable opportunities.

Naturally top level management remains in readiness with problem solutions and with utilisation plan of future situations and probable opportunities. Proper decisions are thus taken by them in present period i.e. in advance. Such decisions are known as problem solving and opportunity decisions.

viii. Individual and Group Decision:

If a decision is taken by an individual person it is known as individual decision. On the other hand, when a number of persons collectively take the decisions they are known as group decisions. Individual decisions are, often, taken in small organisation of small sized top level management. On the other hand, big size organisations like companies, are managed not by an individual but by group of individuals like board of directors. Naturally strategic decisions are taken by the group

ix. Short-Term and Long-Term Decisions:

Short-term decisions are taken for short span of period. Such decisions generally involve less uncertainty and risk. On the other hand, long term decisions are taken for a longer duration. Therefore, there is more risk and uncertainty. Most of the times short term decisions are taken by subordinates and long term decisions are taken by the top management.

x. Economic and Non-Economic Decisions:

Economic decisions are related with financial matters and non-economic decisions are related with, social values, ethical values, moral values, social, cultural, religious, educational, political psychological factors.

Self-Check Exercise

- 1. Explain the various types of decisions.**
- 2. What do you understand by programmed and non-programmed decisions?**
- 3. Distinguish between Individual and Group decisions.**

2.6 DECISION-MAKING STYLES

There are countless perspectives and tactics to effective decision-making. However, there are a few key points in decision-making theory that are central to understanding how different styles may impact organizational trajectories. Decision-making styles can be divided into three broad categories:

- Psychological: Decisions derived from the needs, desires, preferences, and/or values of the individual making the decision. This type of decision-making is centred on the individual deciding.
- Cognitive: This is an integrated feedback system between the individual/organization making a decision, and the broader environment's reactions to those decisions. This type of decision-making process involves iterative cycles and constant assessment of the reactions and impacts of the decision.
- Normative: In many ways, decision-making (particularly in groups, such as within an organization) is about communicative rationality. This is to say that decisions are derived based on the ability to communicate and share logic, using firms' premises and conclusions to drive behaviour.

Cognitive Theories

While the above styles give a general sense of the logic that drives choices, it is more useful to recognize that each of these three styles can play a role in any individual's decision-making process. From the cognitive perspective, there are a few specific stylistic models that are useful to keep in mind:

Optimizing vs. Satisficing

Decision-making is limited to the finite amount of information an individual has access to. With limitations on information, true objectivity is impossible. Decisions are therefore intrinsically flawed. A satisficer will recognize this necessary imperfection, and prefer faster but less perfect decisions while a maximizer will take a longer time trying to find the optimal choice. This can be viewed as a spectrum, and each decision (depending on the risk of a mistake) can be viewed with varying levels of perfection.

Intuitive vs. Rational

Daniel Kahneman puts forward the idea of two separate minds that compete for influence within each of us. One way to describe this is a conscious and a subconscious perspective. The subconscious mind (referred to as System 1) is automatic and intuitive, rapidly consolidating data and producing a decision almost immediately. The conscious mind (referred to as System 2) requires more effort and input, utilizing logic and rationale to make an explicit choice.

Combinatorial vs. Positional

This relationship was put forward by Aron Katsenelinboigen based on how the game of chess is played, and an individual's relationship with uncertainty. A combinatorial player has a final outcome, making a series of decisions that try to link the initial position with the final

outcome in a firm, narrow, and concrete way (i.e. certainty). The positional decision-making approach is 'looser', with a sense of setting up for an uncertain future as opposed to pursuing a concrete object. Each move from this type of player would maximize options as opposed to pursue an outcome.

2.7 APPROACHES OF DECISIONS

Three approaches to decision-making are avoiding, problem solving and problem seeking.

Every decision-making process reaches a conclusion, which can be a choice to act or not to act, a decision on what course of action to take and how, or even an opinion or recommendation. However, sometimes the process of decision-making leads to redefining the issue. Accordingly, three decision-making processes are known as avoiding, problem solving, and problem seeking.

Avoiding

One decision-making option is to make no choice at all. There are several reasons why the decision maker might do this:

- a. There is insufficient information to make a reasoned choice between alternatives.
- b. The potential negative consequences of selecting any alternative outweigh the benefits of selecting one.
- c. No pressing need for a choice exists and the status quo can continue without harm.
- d. The person considering the alternatives does not have the authority to make a decision.

Problem Solving

Most decisions consist of problem-solving activities that end when a satisfactory solution is reached. In psychology, *problem solving* refers to the desire to reach a definite goal from a present condition. Problem solving requires problem definition, information analysis and evaluation, and alternative selection.

Problem Seeking

On occasion, the process of problem solving brings the focus or scope of the problem itself into question. It may be found to be poorly defined, of too large or small a scope, or missing a key dimension. Decision makers must then step back and reconsider the information and analysis they have brought to bear so far. We can regard this activity as problem seeking because decision makers must return to the starting point and re-specify the issue or problem they want to address.

2.8 DECISION MAKING PROCESS

Decision-making is the process of making choices by identifying a decision, gathering information, and assessing alternative resolutions. Let us assume that you are in an organisation and how you will pursue this process.

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.



Step1: Identify the decision

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.

Step2: Gather relevant information

Collect some pertinent information before you make your decision: what information is needed, the best sources of information, and how to get it. 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.

Step3: Identify the 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.

Step4: Weigh the evidence

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.

Step5: Choose among alternatives

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.

Step6: Take action

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

Step7: Review your decision & 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.

2.9 IMPORTANCE OF DECISION MAKING

- a. **Implementation of managerial function:** Without decision making different managerial function such as planning, organizing, directing, controlling, staffing can't be conducted.

- b. Pervasiveness of decision making:** the decision is made in all managerial activities and in all functions of the organization. It must be taken by all staff. Without decision making any kinds of function are not possible.
- c. Evaluation of managerial performance:** Decisions can evaluate managerial performance. When decision is correct it is understood that the manager is qualified, able and efficient. When the decision is wrong, it is understood that the manager is disqualified. So, decision making evaluates the managerial performance.
- d. Helpful in planning and policies:** Any policy or plan is established through decision making. Without decision making, no plans and policies are performed. In the process of making plans, appropriate decisions must be made from so many alternatives. Therefore, decision-making is an important process which is helpful in planning.
- e. Selecting the best alternatives:** Decision-making is the process of selecting the best alternatives. It is necessary in every organization because there are many alternatives. So decision makers evaluate various advantages and disadvantages of every alternative and select the best alternative.
- f. Successful; operation of business:** Every individual, departments and organization make the decisions. In this competitive world; organization can exist when the correct and appropriate decisions are made. Therefore, correct decisions help in successful operation of business.

Self-check Exercise

- 1. Explain different styles of decision-making.**
- 2. Explain the process of decision-making.**
- 3. Describe the steps involved in decision-making.**
- 4. Do you feel any importance of decision-making?**

2.10 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PROBLEM ANALYSIS AND DECISION MAKING

While they are related, problem analysis and decision-making are distinct activities. Decisions are commonly focused on a problem or challenge. Decision makers must gather and consider data before making a choice. Problem analysis involves framing the issue by defining its boundaries, establishing criteria with which to select from alternatives, and developing conclusions based on available information. Analysing a problem may not result in a decision, although the results are an important ingredient in all decision making.

Decision-making comprises a series of sequential activities that together structure the process and facilitate its conclusion. These steps are:

- Establishing objectives
- Classifying and prioritizing objectives
- Developing selection criteria
- Identifying alternatives
- Evaluating alternatives against the selection criteria
- Choosing the alternative that best satisfies the selection criteria
- Implementing the decision

Steps of problem solving are:

- i. Define the Problem
- ii. Determine the Root Cause(s) of the Problem
- iii. Develop Alternative Solutions
- iv. Select a Solution
- v. Implement the Solution
- vi. Evaluate the Outcome

The process is one of continuous improvement. The goal is not to solve but to evolve, adjusting the solution continually as new challenges emerge, through repeating the Six Step Process.

2.11 SIX STEPS FOR PROBLEM-SOLVING

Problem-solving is an important skill because we are faced with problems every day. **Problem-solving** is *the process of finding solutions to difficult or complex issues*. We solve problems on our own but we also seek support and guidance when solving problems. A group or team can be a more productive way to solve problems by allowing for more perspectives. Organization makes possible, better outcomes from the time and energy we dedicate to problem-solving in groups. However, this does not come naturally. The following provides us with a script for more efficiently solving problems in groups.

Step One: Define the Problem

In this step, you explore the nature of the problem, its scope, and who is affected by it. The group members must come to a shared understanding of key terms embedded in the problem.

Step Two: Analyse the Problem

For step two, group members share the results of their research efforts. What do you now know about the problem you have been tasked with solving and those impacted by the problem? During this group discussion, it is often the case that new questions that need answers arise. Make a plan to follow-up with these questions. Next, your group needs to decide on your problem-solving direction. What set of criteria (goals) must any given solution to this problem achieve? Or, what are the non-negotiable accomplishments that must occur?

Step Three: Generate Possible Solutions

The goal is step three is to generate ideas that may contribute to the formulation of possible solutions. It is at this point where you engage in a brainstorming activity or the generating of ideas related to your discussion. Your group can set its own rules, or norms, for how your brainstorming activity will work. For example, will you allow interruptions or criticisms during the process? Why, or why not? Will you take turns during the brainstorming activity or let it be a free-for-all? Will someone take notes?

Step Four: Evaluate Possible Solutions

After your group has generated possible solutions, next you systematically evaluate each of these. Determine three or four of the best ideas generated from the brainstorming activity. Next, apply your criteria established in step two to your list of possible solutions. Finally, what are the –plusses and –minuses associated with each possible solution? You may also want to revisit your discussion on issues of fact, value, and policy as well as any comparative examples discussed in steps one or two.

Step Five: Select Your Solution

In this step, you decide upon a solution that your group believes best solves the problem. Given the criteria, plusses and minuses, and comparative examples which solution stands out as the best? Often, groups will employ some degree of synthesis, or the combining of certain elements of one solution with another solution. At any point during the step, groups will either use consensus, compromise, voting, or some combination of all of these as a decision-making method. However, it is important to ensure that everyone's voice is heard. One good practice is to go around the group and give each group member a chance to vocalize his or her opinion.

Step Six: Develop Your Implementation Plan

The final step in the problem-solving process is crucial for securing a successful outcome for your group's work. Indeed, it is not enough to have a good idea or solution. You must employ forward thinking, a specific plan for how your solution will be implemented or put into action. Who will be responsible for carrying out the solution? What outside or inside resources are

needed to carry out this solution? What challenges might be faced along the way and how might these issues be resolved? What is a realistic timetable for the solution bringing a positive return? What will that positive return look like? How will you assess the solution's success and weaknesses?

Self-check Exercise

- 1. Differentiate between decision-making and problem solving.**
- 2. Explain the steps of Problem solving.**

2.12 GROUP DECISION-MAKING TECHNIQUES

i. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a group or individual creativity technique by which efforts are made to find a conclusion for a specific problem by gathering a list of ideas spontaneously contributed by its members. Brainstorming is a process for developing creative solutions to problems. It works by focusing on a problem, and then deliberately coming up with as many solutions as possible and by pushing the ideas as far as possible. One of the reasons it is so effective is that the brainstormers not only come up with new ideas in a session, but also spark off from associations with other people's ideas by developing and refining them.

The steps for brainstorming are:

- a. Gather the participants from as wide a range of disciplines with as broad a range of experience as possible. This brings many more creative ideas to the session.
- b. Write down a brief description of the problem - the leader should take control of the session, initially defining the problem to be solved with any criteria that must be met, and then keeping the session on course.
- c. Use the description to get everyone's mind clear of what the problem is and post it where it can be seen. This helps in keeping the group focused.
- d. Encourage an enthusiastic, uncritical attitude among brainstormers and encourage participation by all members of the team. Encourage them to have fun!
- e. Write down all the solutions that come to mind (even ribald ones). Do not interpret the idea; however, you may rework the wording for clarity's sake.
- f. Do not evaluate ideas until the session moves to the evaluation phase. Once the brainstorming session has been completed, the results of the session can be analysed and the best solutions can be explored either using further brainstorming or more conventional solutions.

- g. Do not censor any solution, no matter how silly it sounds. The silly ones will often lead to creative ones - the idea is to open up as many possibilities as possible, and break down preconceptions about the limits of the problem.
- h. The leader should keep the brainstorming on subject, and should try to steer it towards the development of some practical solutions.

Once all the solutions have been written down, evaluate the list to determine the best action to correct the problem.

ii. Delphi Technique

In Delphi decision groups, a series of questionnaires are sent to selected respondents (Delphi group). The group does not meet face-to-face. All communication is normally in writing (normally letters or email). Members of the groups are selected because they are experts or they have relevant information.

Steps include:

Members are asked to share their assessment and explanation of a problem or predict a future state of affairs

Replies are gathered, summarized, and then fed back to all the group members.

Members then make another decision based upon the new information.

The process may be repeated until the responses converge satisfactory.

The success of this process depends upon the member's expertise and communication skill. Also, each response requires adequate time for reflection and analysis. The major merits of the Delphi process are:

- Elimination of interpersonal problems.
- Efficient use of expert's time.
- Diversity of ideals.
- Accuracy of solutions and predictions.

iii. Dialectic Decision-making

The dielectric decision method (DDM) traces its roots back to Socrates and Plato. It helps to overcome such problems as converging too quickly on solution while overlooking others, participants dislike of meetings, incomplete evaluations, and the failure to confront tough issues.

The steps of DDM are:

Issue a clear statement of the problem to be solved.

Two or more competing proposals are generated.

Members identify the explicit or implicit assumptions that underlie each proposal.

The team then breaks into advocacy sub who examine and argue the relative merits of their positions.

The group reassembles and makes a decision:

- embrace one of the alternatives
- forge a compromise
- generate a new proposal

Self-check Exercise

1. What is brainstorming?

2. Explain the Delphi method.

2.13 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE DECISION-MAKING

There are a number of barriers to effective decision-making. Effective managers are aware of these potential barriers and try to overcome them as much as possible.

a. Bounded Rationality

Bounded rationality is also known as administrative man theory. As the theory is propounded by Herbert Simon, in his opinion, in real life situations, the decision maker cannot be fully rational hundred percent so rationality is not possible in decision making, absolute rationality is a super human quality. This approach highlights how managers actually make decisions. It is pragmatic and holds the view that the manager, a human being cannot be fully rational because he may be confronted with many constraints, problems, limitations and inadequacies both with regard to the problem as well as to decision-making environment. The major limitations which bound the rationality of the manger as under:

1. Lack of information is one of the most important limitations to rationality.

2. In order to comply with the norms of rationality, the manager is required to study and analyse the problem to discover and alternative course of action to evaluate them and then to select an appropriate one. Thus it is a time consuming job.
3. Many decision situations may involve formulation of multiple objectives which may be conflicting to each other. In these situations, the process of compromise and adjustment becomes more relevant.
4. The concept of rationality is bounded by the nature of the problem. Sometimes the problem may be very complex, unstructured with random behaviour.
5. Decisions made by managers are implemented in the future. The future environment is full of complexities and uncertainties and cannot be predicted with a degree of accuracy.

In the real life situation, decision-making is sub rational, fragmented and a pragmatic activity as rationality is compromised by ground reality. According to Herbert Simon the norm of bounded rationality describes actual decision-making behaviour of the manager and involves choosing a course of action that is satisfactory or good enough under the circumstances. It is true that many managerial decisions are made with a desire to solve the problem as early as possible. It is also believed that most managers do attempt to make the best decisions within the limits of rationality and in the light of size and nature of risk involved in uncertainty.

ii. Escalation of Commitment

Given the lack of complete information, managers don't always make the right decision initially, and it may not be clear that a decision was a bad one until after some time has passed. Escalation of commitment is the tendency of decision makers to remain committed to poor decision, even when doing so leads to increasingly negative outcomes. Once we commit to a decision, we may find it difficult to re-evaluate that decision rationally. It can seem easier to –stay the course than to admit (or to recognize) that a decision was poor. It's important to acknowledge that not all decisions are going to be good ones, in spite of our best efforts. Effective managers recognize that progress down the wrong path isn't really progress, and they are willing to re-evaluate decisions and change direction when appropriate.

iii. Time Constraints

Managers often face time constraints that can make effective decision-making a challenge. When there is little time available to collect information and to rationally process it, they are much less likely to make a good non-programmed decision. Time pressures can cause them to rely on heuristics rather than engage in deep processing. While heuristics save time, however, they don't necessarily lead to the best possible solution. The best managers are

constantly assessing the risks associated with acting too quickly against those associated with not acting quickly enough.

iv. Uncertainty

In addition, managers frequently make decisions under conditions of uncertainty—they cannot know the outcome of each alternative until they've actually chosen that alternative. Consider, for example, a manager who is trying to decide between one of two possible marketing campaigns. The first is more conservative but is consistent with what the organization has done in the past. The second is more modern and edgier, and might bring much better results or it might be a spectacular failure. The manager making the decision will ultimately have to choose one campaign and see what happens, without ever knowing what the results would have been with the alternate campaign. That uncertainty can make it difficult for some managers to make decisions, because committing to one option means forgoing other options.

v. Personal Biases

Our decision-making is also limited by our own biases. We tend to be more comfortable with ideas, concepts, things, and people that are familiar to us or similar to us. We tend to be less comfortable with that which is unfamiliar, new, and different. One of the most common biases that we have, as humans, is the tendency to like other people who we think are similar to us.

It can be incredibly difficult to overcome our biases because of the way our brains work. The brain excels at organizing information into categories, and it doesn't like to expend the effort to re-arrange once the categories are established. As a result, we tend to pay more attention to information that confirms our existing beliefs and less attention to information that is contrary to our beliefs, a shortcoming that is referred to as confirmation bias.

In fact, we don't like our existing beliefs to be challenged. Such challenges feel like a threat, which tends to push our brains towards the reactive system and prevent us from being able to logically process the new information via the reflective system. It is hard to change people's minds about something if they are already confident in their convictions.

vi. Conflict

Finally, effective decision-making can be difficult because of conflict. Most individuals dislike conflict and will avoid it when possible. However, the best decision might be one that is going to involve some conflict. Consider a manager who has a subordinate who is often late to work, causing others to have to step away from their responsibilities in order to cover for the late employee. The manager needs to have a conversation with that employee to correct the behaviour, but the employee is not going to like the conversation and may react in a negative way. Both of them are going to be uncomfortable. The situation is likely to involve conflict,

which most people find stressful. Yet, the correct decision is still to have the conversation even if (or especially if) the employee otherwise is an asset to the department.

There are numerous barriers to effective decision-making. Managers are limited in their ability to collect comprehensive information, and they are limited in their ability to cognitively process all the information that is available. Managers cannot always know all the possible outcomes of all the possible options, and they often face time constraints that limit their ability to collect all the information that they would like to have. In addition, managers, like all humans, have biases that influence their decision-making and that can make it difficult for them to make good decisions. One of the most common biases that can confound decision-making is confirmation bias, the tendency for a person to pay attention to information that confirms her existing beliefs and ignore information that conflicts with these existing beliefs. Finally, conflict between individuals in organizations can make it challenging to reach a good decision.

Self-check Exercise

- 1. What barriers exist that make effective decision-making difficult?**
- 2. How bounded Rationality is an obstacle in decision making?**
- 3. Explain the concept of confirmation bias.**
- 4. When is conflict beneficial, and when is it harmful?**

2.14 SUMMARY

Decision-making is an integral part of modern management. Decisions play important roles they determine both organizational and managerial activities. A decision can be defined as a course of action purposely chosen from a set of alternatives to achieve organizational or managerial objectives or goals. Throughout the business cycle, it is required to make many decisions to supply financial, technical or other information as an input to help making decisions at higher management levels. Decisions are usually made to attain the objectives of the business. Much of managerial work is decision making. Managers often have to consider large amount of synthesized data and make decisions that will benefit the organization.

2.15 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Rue, Lisslie, and Byars, Lyold: *Management Theory and Application*, Homewood, Richar Irwin, 1977.
2. Dale Ernest: *Management Theory and Practice*, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.

3. Koontz Harold; Wehrich H: Essentials of Management, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 11th edition 2020
4. Parsad L. M.: Organisational Behaviour, Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi.
5. Robbins Stephen, Judge Timothy and Sanghi Seema: Organisational Behaviour, Pearson Prentice Hall.

2.16 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. What are the different characteristics of Decision Making?
2. Discuss the different types of Decisions one has to make in routine?
3. Discuss the different decision-making Styles and processes?
4. What is the difference between Problem Analysis and Decision Making?
5. Discuss the steps of Problem Solving in detail.
6. What do you mean by Group decision-making techniques?
7. What can play the role of barriers to Effective Decision-Making?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT-3: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

3.0 Objectives

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Definition of Conflict

3.3 Levels of Conflicts and Types of conflicts

3.3.1 Intrapersonal Conflict

3.3.2 Interpersonal conflict

3.3.3 Intragroup conflict

3.3.4 Intergroup conflict

3.3.5 Intra-organisation conflict

3.4 Causes of conflicts

3.5 Conditions creating conflict situations

3.6 Managing Conflicts

3.7 Conflict Resolution

3.8 Effects of Conflicts

3.8.1 Positive effects of conflicts

3.8.2 Negative effects of conflicts

3.9 Summary

3.10 Suggested Readings

3.11 Questions for practice

3.0 OBJECTIVES OF LESSON

In this lesson we will try to get information regarding these questions:

- What is conflict?
- What are the types of conflicts?
- Why there are conflicts?
- How are conflicts managed and resolved?
- Are conflicts good or bad?

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Conflict is a clash of interests, values, actions, views or directions. Conflict refers to the existence of that clash. Conflict is initiated when the instant clash occurs. Generally, there are diverse interests and contrary views behind a conflict, which are revealed when people look at a problem from their viewpoint alone. Conflict is an outcome of organizational intricacies, interactions and disagreements. It can be settled by identifying and neutralizing the etiological factors. Once conflict is concluded it can provoke a positive change in the organization.

3.2 DEFINITION OF CONFLICT

The term conflict may mean different to different persons. It may be regarded as rivalry between two persons or parties in the organisation. It may even mean disagreement or hostility between individual or groups. Thomas has defined conflict as follows:

-Conflict is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about.¶

Newstrom and Davis have defined as, -Conflict is any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. It is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreement over the goals or the methods to accomplish those goals¶

Conflict is difficult to define, because it occurs in many different settings. The essence of conflict seems to be disagreement, contradiction, or incompatibility. Thus, conflict refers to any situation in which there are incompatible Goals, Cognitions or Emotions within or between individuals or groups that lead to opposition or antagonistic interaction. The definition recognizes three basic types of conflict:

- a. Goal conflict is situation in which desired end states or preferred outcomes appear to be incompatible.
- b. Cognitive Conflict is a situation in which ideas or thoughts are inconsistent.
- c. Affective Conflict is a situation in which feelings or emotions are incompatible; that is, people literally become angry with one another.

Conflict is very common in organizational settings. This is not necessarily a negative feature; the resolution of conflict often leads to constructive problem solving.

3.3 LEVELS OF CONFLICTS AND TYPES OF CONFLICTS

The five levels of conflict are:

- Intrapersonal (within an individual)
- Interpersonal (between individuals)
- Intragroup (within a group),

Intergroup (between groups), and
Intra-organizational (within organizations)

3.3.1 Intrapersonal Conflict

Intrapersonal conflict arises within a person. For example, when you're uncertain about what is expected or wanted, or you have a sense of being inadequate to perform a task, you are experiencing intrapersonal conflict. Intrapersonal conflict can arise because of differences in roles. A manager may want to oversee a subordinate's work, believing that such oversight is a necessary part of the job. The subordinate, on the other hand, may consider such extensive oversight to be evidence of a lack of trust. Role conflict, another type of intrapersonal conflict, includes having two different job descriptions that seem mutually exclusive. This type of conflict can arise if someone is heading one team and on the other hand a member of another team. A third type of intrapersonal conflict involves role ambiguity.

Intrapersonal Conflict, which occurs within an individual, often involves some form of goal conflict or cognitive conflict. Goal conflict exists for individuals when their behaviour will result in outcomes that are mutually exclusive or have compatible elements (both positive and negative outcomes).

- Approach - approach conflict is a situation in which a person has a choice between two or more alternatives with positive outcomes; for example, a person can choose between two jobs that appear to be equally attractive.
- Avoidance - avoidance conflict is a situation in which a person must choose between two or more alternatives, and they all have negative outcomes. For example, employees may be threatened with punishment in the form of demotion unless they do something they dislike spend much time travelling on their job, for example.
- Approach - avoidance conflict is a situation in which a person must decide whether to do something that had both positive and negative outcomes, for example, being offered a good job in a bad location.

3.3.2 Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict involves two or more individuals rather than one individual. Two managers competing for the same promotion, two executives manoeuvring for a larger share of corporate capital examples of conflict between individuals are legion and quite familiar.

Reasons:

- a. Personality differences: Some people have difficulty in getting along with each other. This is purely a psychological problem and it has nothing to do with their job requirements or formal interactions.
- b. Perceptions: Varied backgrounds, experiences, education and training result in individuals developing different perceptions of similar realities; the result being an increase in the likelihood of interpersonal conflict.

- c. Clashes of values and interests: Conflict that so commonly develops between engineering and manufacturing personnel shows how differences in values might underlie conflict. Members of the engineering department might place a premium on quality, sophisticated design and durability while members of the manufacturing department might value simplicity and low manufacturing costs.
- d. Power and status differences: They operate by distributing authority and setting a stage for the exercise of power. Similarly, status inconsistencies lead to conflict.
- e. Scarce resource: Interpersonal conflict is almost automatic anytime there is scarcity. Conflicts over scarce resources are exceedingly common in organizations. Where the scarcity is absolute (the resource level cannot be enhanced) it is very difficult to manage interpersonal conflicts. For example, if three qualified individuals i.e. for superior positions in the organization and there is only one such position, interpersonal conflict may develop to an unmanageable level.

3.3.3 Intragroup Conflict

A group experiencing intragroup conflict may eventually resolve it, allowing the group to reach a consensus. Or the group may not resolve the conflict, and the group discussion may end in disagreement among the members. A study of a large number of groups engaged in business and governmental decision making, tried to identify some the conditions that lead to (1) the successful resolution of conflict (consensus or (2) the failure to resolve conflict (disagreement). The conflict within groups is not a simple, single phenomenon. Instead, intragroup conflict seems to fall into two distinct categories: (1) substantive conflict and (2) affective conflict.

Substantive conflict refers to conflict based on the nature of the task or to "content" issues. It is associated with intellectual disagreements among the group members. In contrast, affective conflict derives primarily from the group's interpersonal relations. It is associated with emotional responses aroused during interpersonal clashes.

3.3.4 Inter-Group Conflict

Intergroup conflict is conflict that takes place among different groups. An organization is a collection of individuals and groups. As the situation and requirements demand, the individuals from various groups. Types of groups may include different departments, employee unions, or management in a company or competing companies that supply the same customers. Departments may conflict over budget allocations, unions and management may disagree over work rules, and suppliers may conflict with each other on the quality of parts. Merging two groups together can lead to friction between the groups especially if there are scarce resources to be divided among the group. The success of the organization as a whole depends upon the harmonial relations among all interdependent groups, even though some intergroup conflicts in organizations are inevitable.

3.3.5 Intra-Organizational Conflict

Four types of intra-organizational conflict exist: (1) vertical conflict (2) horizontal conflict (3) line-staff conflict and (4) role conflict. Although these types of conflict can overlap, especially with role conflict, each has distinctive characteristics.

- a. **Vertical Conflict:** Vertical conflict refers to any conflict between levels in an organization; superior-subordinate conflict is one example. Vertical conflicts usually arise because superiors attempt to control subordinates and subordinates.
- b. **Horizontal Conflict:** Horizontal Conflict refers to conflict between employees or departments as the same hierarchical level in an organization.
- c. **Line-Staff Conflict:** Most organizations have staff departments to assist the line departments. The line-staff relationship frequently involves conflict. Staff managers and line managers typically have different personal characteristics. Staff employees tend to have a higher level of education, come from different backgrounds, and are younger than line employees. These different personal characteristics are frequently associated with different values and beliefs, and the surfacing of these different values tends to create conflict.
- d. **Role Conflict:** A role is the cluster of activities that others expect individuals to perform in their position. A role frequently involves conflict.

Self-check Exercise

1. What are different levels of conflicts?
2. What is the difference between intergroup and intragroup conflicts?

3.4 CAUSES OF CONFLICTS

We have studied all the levels of conflicts and their reason of existence. Now we will study all the causes of conflicts.

In most organizations, conflicts increase as employees assert their demands for an increased share in organizational rewards, such as position, acknowledgment, appreciation, monetary benefits and independence. Even management faces conflict with many forces from outside the organization, such as government, unions and other coercive groups which may impose restrictions on managerial activities.

Conflicts emanate from more than one source, and so their true origin may be hard to identify. Important initiators of conflict situations include.

- a. **Limited Resources:** Resources such as money, time, and equipment are often scarce. Competition among people or departments for limited resources is a frequent cause for conflict. For example, cutting-edge laptops and gadgets are expensive resources that may be allocated to employees on a need-to-have basis in some companies. When a group of employees have access to such resources while others do not, conflict may arise among employees or between employees and management. While technical employees may feel that these devices are crucial to their productivity, employees with customer contact such as sales representatives may make the point that these devices are important for them to make a good impression to clients. As, important resources are often limited, this is one source of conflict many companies have to live with.
- b. **Task Interdependence:** Another cause of conflict is task interdependence; that is, when accomplishment of your goal requires reliance on others to perform their tasks. For example, if someone is tasked with creating advertising for a product, he is dependent on

the creative team to design the words and layout, the photographer or videographer to create the visuals, the media buyer to purchase the advertising space, and so on. The completion of his goal (airing or publishing your ad) is dependent on others. If he gives importance to one or give credit to one, then others may not like it and conflict will rise.

- c. **Incompatible Goals:** Sometimes conflict arises when two parties think that their goals are mutually exclusive. Within an organization, incompatible goals often arise because of the different ways department managers are compensated. For example, if the company assigns the bonus based on profitability of a sale, not just the dollar amount, the cost of the expediting would be subtracted from the value of the sale. It might still make sense to expedite the order if the sale is large enough, in which case both parties would support it. On the other hand, if the expediting negates the value of the sale, neither party would be in favor of the added expense.
- d. **Personality Differences:** Personality differences among coworkers are common. By understanding some fundamental differences among the way people think and act, we can better understand how others see the world. They see things differently because of differences in understanding and viewpoint. Most of these differences are usually not important. Personality differences or clashes in emotional needs may cause conflicts. Conflicts arise when two groups or individuals interacting in the same situation see the situation differently because of different sets of settings, information pertaining to the universe, awareness, background, disposition, reason or outlook. In a particular mood, individuals think and perceive in a certain manner. For example, the half-full glass of one individual can be half-empty to another. Obviously both individuals convey the same thing, but they do so differently owing to contrasting perceptions and dispositions.
- e. **Communication Problems:** Sometimes conflict arises simply out of a small, unintentional communication problem, such as lost e-mails or dealing with people who don't return phone calls. Giving feedback is also a case in which the best intentions can quickly escalate into a conflict situation. When communicating, be sure to focus on behavior and its effects, not on the person.
- f. **Different styles:** People have different styles, principles, values, beliefs and slogans which determine their choices and objectives. When choices contradict, people want different things and that can create conflict situations. For example, a risk-taking manager would be in conflict with a risk-minimizing supervisor who believes in firm control and a well-kept routine. People have different thinking styles, which encourage them to disagree, leading to conflict situations. Certain thinking styles may be useful for certain purposes, but ineffectual or even perilous in other situations.
- g. **Hierarchy:** Conflict situations can arise because people have different status. When people at higher levels in the organization feel indignant about suggestions for change put forward from their subordinates or associates, it provokes conflict. By tolerating and allowing such suggestions, potential conflict can be prevented.

3.5 CONDITIONS CREATING CONFLICT SITUATIONS

There are distinct conflict conditions according to different scholars, i.e., high stress environments, ambiguous roles and responsibilities, multiple boss situations, and prevalence of advanced technology etc.

The conditions, which could initiate conflict situations in an organization are following:

- (i) *Ambiguous jurisdiction*, which occurs when two individuals have responsibilities which are interdependent but whose work boundaries and role definitions are not clearly specified.
- (ii) *Goal incompatibility and conflict of interest* refer to accomplishment of different but mutually conflicting goals by two individuals working together in an organization. Obstructions in accomplishing goals and lack of clarity on how to do a job may initiate conflicts. Barriers to goal accomplishment arise when goal attainment by an individual or group is seen as preventing another party achieving their goal.
- (iii) *Communication barriers*, as difficulties in communicating can cause misunderstanding, which can then create conflict situations.
- (iv) *Dependence on one party* by another group or individual.
- (v) *Differentiation in organization*, where, within an organization, sub-units are made responsible for different, specialized tasks. This creates separation and introduces differentiation. Conflict situations could arise when actions of sub-units are not properly coordinated and integrated.
- (vi) *Association of the parties and specialization*. When individuals specialized in different areas work in a group, they may disagree amongst themselves because they have different goals, views and methodologies owing to their various backgrounds, training and experiences.
- (vii) *Behaviour regulation*. Organizations have to have firm regulations for individual behaviour to ensure protection and safety. Individuals may perceive these regulations differently, which can cause conflict and negatively affect output.
- (viii) *Unresolved prior conflicts* which remain unsettled over time create anxiety and stress, which can further intensify existing conflicts. A manager's most important function is to avoid potential harmful results of conflict by regulating and directing it into areas beneficial for the organization.

Self-Check Exercise

1. What are some primary causes of conflict at work?
2. Does difference in hierarchy leads to conflict?
3. What outcomes have you observed from conflict?

3.6 MANAGING CONFLICT

Except in very few situations where the conflict can lead to competition and creativity so that in such situations the conflict can be encouraged, in all other cases where conflict is destructive in nature, it should be resolved as soon after it has developed as possible, but all efforts should be made to prevent it from developing. Some of the preventive measures are:

a. Change the Composition of the Team

If the conflict is between team members, the easiest solution may be to change the composition of the team, separating the personalities that were at odds. In instances in which conflict is attributed to the widely different styles, values, and preferences of a small number of members, replacing some of these members may resolve the problem.

b. Create a Common Opposing Force

Group conflict within an organization can be mitigated by focusing attention on a common enemy such as the competition. For example, two software groups may be competing against each other, that software should be used for evaluation of exam of some institution. But by focusing attention on a competitor company, the groups may decide to work together to enhance the marketing effectiveness for the company as a whole.

c. Common consensus

Sometimes a group conflict can be resolved through majority rule. That is, group members take a vote, and the idea with the most votes is the one that gets implemented. The majority rule approach can work if the participants feel that the procedure is fair. It is important to keep in mind that this strategy will become ineffective if used repeatedly with the same members typically winning. Moreover, the approach should be used sparingly. It should follow a healthy discussion of the issues and points of contention, not be a substitute for that discussion.

d. Avoidance

The avoiding style is uncooperative and unassertive. People exhibiting this style seek to avoid conflict altogether by denying that it is there. They are prone to postponing any decisions in which a conflict may arise. Conflict avoidance may be habitual to some people because of personality traits such as that they are not strong, do not take stand in front of other party. While conflict avoidance may not be a significant problem if the issue at hand is trivial, it becomes a problem when individuals avoid confronting important issues because of a dislike for conflict or a perceived inability to handle the other party's reaction.

e. Accommodation

The accommodating style is cooperative and unassertive. In this style, the person gives in to what the other side wants, even if it means giving up one's personal goals. People who use this style may fear speaking up for themselves or they may place a higher value on the relationship, believing that disagreeing with an idea might be hurtful to the other person. Accommodation may be an effective strategy if the issue at hand is more important to others compared to oneself. In this case, if a person perpetually uses this style, that individual may start to see that personal interests and well-being are neglected.

f. Competition

People exhibiting a competing style want to reach their goal or get their solution adopted regardless of what others say or how they feel. They are more interested in getting the outcome they want as opposed to keeping the other party happy, and they push for the deal they are interested in making. Competition may lead to poor relationships with others if one is always

seeking to maximize their own outcomes at the expense of others' well-being. This approach may be effective if one has strong moral objections to the alternatives or if the alternatives one is opposing are unethical or harmful.

g. Collaboration

The collaborating style is high on both assertiveness and cooperation. This is a strategy to use for achieving the best outcome from conflict—both sides argue for their position, supporting it with facts and rationale while listening attentively to the other side. The objective is to find a win-win solution to the problem in which both parties get what they want.

Self-check exercise

Is it possible to manage the conflict?

Why managing of conflicts is better than conflict resolving?

3.7 CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Various researchers have identified five primary strategies for dealing with and reducing the impact of behavioural conflict. Even though different authors have given different terminology to describe these strategies, the basic content and approach of these strategies remain the same. These are:

- a. Ignoring the conflict:** In certain situations, it may be advisable to take a passive role and avoid it all together. From the manager's point of view, it may be specially, necessary when getting involved in a situation would provoke further controversy or when conflict is so trivial in nature that it would not be worth the manager's time to get involved and try to solve it. It could also be that the conflict is so fundamental to the position of the parties involved that it may be best either to leave it to them to solve it or to let events take their own course. The parties involved in the conflict may themselves prefer to avoid conflict, specially, if they are emotionally upset by the tension and frustration created by it. People may intrinsically believe that conflict is fundamentally evil and its final consequences are never good. Thus people may try to get away from conflict causing situations.

- b. Smoothing:** Smoothing simply means covering up the conflict by appealing for the need for unity rather than addressing the issue of conflict itself. An individual with internal conflict may try to –count his blessings‡ and forget about the conflict. If two parties have a conflict within the organization, the supervisor may try to calm things down by being understanding and supportive to both parties and appealing them for co-operation. The supervisor does not ignore or withdraw from the conflict nor does he try to address and solve the conflict but expects that everything will be fine for each and every one. Since the problem is never addressed, the emotions may build up further and suddenly explode. Thus smoothing provides only a temporary solution and conflict may resurface again in the course of time. Smoothing is more sensitive approach than avoiding in that as long as the parties agree that not showing conflict has more benefits than showing conflicts, the conflict can be avoided.

- c. **Compromise:** A compromise in the conflict is reached by balancing the demands of the conflicting parties and bargaining in a give and take position to reach a solution. Each party gives up something and also gains something. The technique of conflict resolution is very common in negotiations between the labour unions and management. It has become customary for the union to ask for more than what they are willing to accept and for management to offer less than what they are willing to give in the initial stages. Then through the process of negotiating and bargaining, mostly in the presence of arbitrators, they reach a solution by compromising. This type of compromise is known as integrative bargaining in which both sides win in a way.

Compromising is a useful technique, particularly when two parties have relatively equal power, thus no party can force its viewpoints on the other and the only solution is to compromise. It is also useful when there are time constraints. If the problems are complex and many faceted, and the time is limited to solve them, it might be in the interest of conflicting parties to reach a compromise.

- d. **Forcing:** This is technique of domination where the dominator has the power and authority to enforce his own views over the opposing conflicting party. This technique is potentially effective in situations such as a president of a company firing a manager because he is considered as a trouble-maker and conflict creator. This technique always ends up in one party being a loser and the other party being a clear winner. Many professors in colleges and universities have lost promotions and tenured re-appointments because they could not get along well with their respective chairpersons of the departments and had conflicts with them. This approach causes resentment and hostility and can backfire.
- e. **Problem solving:** This technique involves –confronting the conflict in order to seek the best solution to the problem. Problem solving is a common approach to resolving conflict. In problem-solving mode, the individuals or groups in conflict are asked to focus on the problem, not on each other, and to uncover the root cause of the problem. This approach recognizes the rarity of one side being completely right and the other being completely wrong.

This approach objectively assumes that in all organizations, no matter how well they are managed, there will be differences of opinions which must be resolved through discussions and respect for differing viewpoints. In general, this technique is very useful in resolving conflicts arising out of semantic misunderstandings. It is not so effective in resolving non-communicative types of conflicts such as those that are based on differing value systems, where it may even intensify differences and disagreements. In the long run, however, it is better to solve conflicts and take such preventive measures that would reduce the likelihood of such conflicts surfacing again.

Self-check Exercise

1. List three ways to decrease a conflict situation. What are some pros and cons of each of these approaches?

2. What is your usual conflict-handling style at work? Do you see it as effective or ineffective?

3.8 EFFECTS OF CONFLICTS

Conflict is defined as disagreement between individuals. It can vary from a mild disagreement to a win-or-lose, emotion-packed, confrontation. There are two theories of conflict management.

The traditional theory is based on the assumption that conflicts are bad, are caused by trouble makers, and should be subdued. *Contemporary theory* recognizes that conflicts between human beings are unavoidable. They emerge as a natural result of change and can be beneficial to the organization, if managed efficiently.

Conflict situations should be either resolved or used beneficially. Conflicts can have positive or negative effects for the organization, depending upon the environment created by the manager as she or he manages and regulates the conflict situation.

3.8.1 Positive effects of conflicts

- a. *Diffusion of more serious conflicts.* Games can be used to moderate the attitudes of people by providing a competitive situation which can liberate tension in the conflicting parties, as well as having some entertainment value. In organizations where members participate in decision making, disputes are usually minor and not acute as the closeness of members moderates belligerent and assertive behaviour into minor disagreements, which minimizes the likelihood of major fights.
- b. *Stimulation of a search for new facts or resolutions.* When two parties who respect each other face a conflict situation, the conflict resolution process may help in clarifying the facts and stimulating a search for mutually acceptable solutions.
- c. *Increase in group cohesion and performance.* When two or more parties are in conflict, the performance and cohesion of each party is likely to improve. In a conflict situation, an opponent's position is evaluated negatively, and group allegiance is strongly reinforced, leading to increased group effort and cohesion.
- d. *Assessment of power or ability.* In a conflict situation, the relative ability or power of the parties involved can be identified and measured.

3.8.2 Negative effects of conflict:

Impediments to smooth working

Diminishing output

Obstructions in the decision making process

Formation of competing affiliations within the organization

Self-check exercises

1. Conflicts can be treated as good for organization. Comment.
2. Describe a situation in which not having enough conflict can be a problem.

3.9. SUMMARY

Conflicts are inevitable in any organization. A modest level of conflict can be useful in generating better ideas and methods, inspiring concern and ingenuity, and stimulating the emergence of long-suppressed problems. Conflict can run the gamut from minor annoyances to physically violent situations. At the same time, conflict can increase creativity and innovation, or it can bring organizations to a grinding halt. There are many different types of conflict, including interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intergroup. Within organizations, there are many common situations that can spur conflict. Certain organizational structures, such as a matrix structure, can cause any given employee to have multiple bosses and conflicting or overwhelming demands. A scarcity of resources for employees to complete tasks is another common cause of organizational conflict, particularly if groups within the organization compete over those resources. Of course, simple personality clashes can create intrapersonal conflict in any situation. Communication problems are also a very common source of conflict even when no actual problem would exist otherwise. When conflict arises, it can be handled by any number of methods, each with varying degrees of cooperation and competitiveness. Different situations require different conflict handling methods, and no one method is best.

3.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Rue, Lisslie, and Byars, Lyold: *Management Theory and Application*, Homewood, Richar Irwin, 1977.
2. Dale Ernest: *Management Theory and Practice*, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.
3. Koontz Harold; Weihrich H: *Essentials of Management*, Mc Graw Hill Book Company, New York, 11th edition 2020
4. Parsad L. M.: *Organisational Behaviour*, Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi.
5. Robbins Stephen, Judge Timothy and Sanghi Seema: *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Prentice Hall.

3.11 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. Define Conflict and the reasons that cause conflicts.
2. What are the levels of Conflicts and Types of conflicts? How can they be managed effectively?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT 4: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

STRUCTURE

4.0 Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Emotions meaning

4.3 What is emotional intelligence?

4.4 Mayer and Salovay's model of emotional intelligence

4.4.1 Perception of Emotion

4.4.2. Emotional facilitation of thinking

4.4.3. Understanding emotions

4.4.4. Managing Emotions

4.5 Goleman's EI Model

4.5.1. Self-awareness

4.5.2. Self-regulation

4.5.3. Motivation

4.5.4. Empathy

4.5.5. Social skills

4.6 Bar-on model of Emotional and Social Intelligence

4.6.1. Intrapersonal

4.6.2 Interpersonal

4.6.3. Stress Management

4.6.4 Adaptability

4.6.5. General Mood

4.7 Importance of emotional intelligence

4.8 Measures of emotional intelligence

4.9 Summary

4.10 Keywords

4.11 Model Answers

4.12 References

4.13 Questions for practice

4.0 OBJECTIVES

- To explain the concept and importance of emotional intelligence
- To give brief introduction of models of emotional intelligence
- To explain few common measures of emotional intelligence

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to perceive, control, understand, evaluate and respond to your own as well as other's emotions. When it comes to happiness and success in life, EQ matters just as much as IQ. It helps in relieving stress, build stronger relationships, communicate effectively, achieve personal goals, empathize with others, overcome challenges and defuse conflict. It also aids in connecting with own feelings, turn intention into action, and make informed decisions about anything that matters the most. It is the capability of the individuals to discern between different feelings and label them appropriately, to adjust emotions to adapt to environments. The ability to express and control emotions is essential. Imagine a world in which one is not able to understand when a loved one is feeling sad or when a co-worker was angry, this could create a great havoc.

In this unit we will discuss the basic concept of emotional intelligence by explaining various models of emotional intelligence. The students will learn about various strategies for enhancing their emotional intelligence. The unit also covers the various measures used in the assessment of emotional intelligence.

4.2 EMOTIONS MEANING

Emotions colour our lives. Emotions can be defined as cognitive, physiological and behavioural aspect of feelings. Emotions have three major components 1. Physiological arousal in the body- shifts in heart rate, blood pressure and so on. 2. Subjective cognitive state (an inner awareness of feelings) labelled as emotions. 3. Expressive behaviours to the outward world.

Definition of emotion

“Each emotion is a feeling and each is at the same time a motor set. Fear is set for escape, anger for attack, happiness to laugh and grief to cry”. **Woodworth**

“Emotion is an acute disturbance of the organism, as a whole psychological in origin involving behaviour, conscious experience and visceral functioning”. **P.T. Young**

Emotion is a powerful force every person shapes his behaviour to suit the world he lives in. People vary not only in experience of emotions but also in controlling and expressing emotions. Some people are effusive, others hide their feelings and sometimes only admirable emotions are expressed while disapproved ones are concealed.

4.3 WHAT IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

Greek philosopher Aristotle in his literature suggested –to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose and in the right way, is the recipe for smooth relationships. This definition is a major theme of emotional intelligence. But as a term it was coined by Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer in 1990 and defines it as “a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” but it gained popularity in 1995 with best-selling book "Emotional intelligence" authored by Daniel Goleman in which he defined EI as the range of skills that are required for an effective leadership. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it's an inborn characteristic.

To have a better understanding of the nature of emotional intelligence various components involved in it needs to be discussed. Models of emotional intelligence encompasses various skills and abilities which are helpful in managing one’s own emotions and behaviour and also in understanding and adjusting with the other individuals and stressful situations.

4.4 MAYAR AND SALOVAY’S MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Mayar and Salovay’s definition –emotional intelligence is the ability to process information about your own emotions and other peoples’.

Thus people high on emotional intelligence tend to pay attention to, use, understand, and manage their emotions. According to this model, for a person to be categorized as emotionally intelligent, they have to have four basic abilities:

- The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others and express them accurately.
- The ability to use emotions in a way to facilitate thinking.
- The ability to understand emotions, emotional language, and the emotional signals.
- The ability to manage emotions in order to fulfill goals.

4.4.1 Perception of Emotion

The first emotional intelligence skill is Perception of emotion which refers to identification of your own and other people’s emotions using facial expressions, tone of voice, and body language. It involves understanding of subjective feelings, way other people feel and even the feelings expressed by a piece of artwork. Those who are skilled in the perception of emotion are able to express emotions adequately and communicate your needs in better way. Further they have the ability to distinguish between correct and incorrect emotional expressions.

Example- Suppose you are scolded by the teacher in the class, you slowly settle into the reality and sit with your classmates for lunch. A group of your classmates began to discuss about the teaching methods at lunch table. When they ask if you have any idea regarding this, you shrug and pick at your food. If your classmates are skilled at perception of emotion, then they will easily identify your facial expression and body language and determine that you might be

masking your true feelings of disengagement from the conversation. As a result, they might choose not to talk about the topic in your presence.

4.4.2. Emotional facilitation of thinking

Using emotion to enhance cognitive activities and adapt to various situations is the second component of EI. It refers to the ability of a person to understand and analyze emotions as well as an appreciation of the outcomes from emotions. It includes the ability to use emotions in order to aid thinking by directing thoughts to the most important information. It also includes the capacity to label and discern between different feelings. As a result, emotions help you make decisions by considering different points of view on a particular subject. It also involves social awareness in shaping the way in which emotions are managed. People who have developed and practiced this area of EI understand that some emotional states are more optimal for targeted outcomes than others.

Let us take an example, feeling frustrated over scolded by the teacher may be a helpful mindset as you are about to play a football match. The high levels of adrenaline rush associated with frustration may boost your energy and help you compete while the same emotion however, will likely impede your ability to write an essay or solve mathematical problems. Making decisions based on the impact that emotional experiences may have on actions and behavior is an essential component of EI.

4.4.3. Understanding emotions

This skill of Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to differentiate between emotional states and the use of right words to express them. It also includes understanding of specific causes for the emotional states and the ability to detect the transitions between emotions such as the transition from surprise to joy. Standing in the rain, might be a slight annoyance; however, waiting in the rain for hours in a large crowd will likely result in irritation or frustration. People skilled with this ability have a strong sense of how multiple emotions can work together to produce another. For instance, it is possible that you may feel contempt for the teacher who scolded you in the class for being late. However, this feeling of contempt does not arise from anger alone rather; it is the combination of anger and disgust by the fact that she is biased in her approach because you have a strong preference for sports.

4.4.4. Managing Emotions

It includes the ability to remain open to a wide range of different emotions, recognize how influential, reasonable, or clear the emotions are and understand which short- and long-term strategies are most efficient for emotional regulation. Anger seems an appropriate response to falling short of a goal. In fact, you may even find it useful and reasonable to experience the feeling of anger. However, this feeling will certainly need to be managed in order to prevent aggressive, unwanted behavior. Coming up with strategies, such as taking a deep breath and waiting until you feel calm before speaking, will allow you to regulate your anger and prevent the situation from escalating. Using this strategy may even let you gain insight into other perspectives.

Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence model shows us something that was truly revolutionary during that time. This theory is simple and easy to understand. As such, it's the perfect starting point if you're interested in delving deeper into the wonderful world of emotions.

4.5 GOLEMAN'S EI MODEL

Daniel Goleman developed five components of emotional intelligence at work. This model focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model describes following five constructs of EI:-

4.5.1. Self-awareness

Self-awareness refers to the ability of a person to recognize what one is feeling at any given time and understanding those emotions strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and also to have a sense of effect on others. It helps a person in recognizing that how we feel and what we do are related, and having awareness of one's own personal strengths and limitations. A person skilled in this construct knows his own emotional state and names them correctly; they also keep track of different emotional reactions. Self-awareness leads to self-confidence, realistic self-assessment, and goal setting ability.

7.5.2 Self Regulation

Activity
1. Enhancing Self Awareness: start writing a journal and express your feelings and emotions. This will help in understanding your own emotions, thoughts and consequential behaviour.
2. Strengths and weakness: List your strengths and weakness objectively and honestly. For e.g. your strengths can be hardworking, creative, humble.....then make a list of your weakness like being low on confidence, stressed easily, adjustment issues etc.
3. Appreciate your strengths and try to work on your ability you feel needs some improvement for e.g.: you feel lack of confidence for public speaking. You can overcome this by reading more books and some regular practice of speaking while standing in front of the mirror on some relevant topic.

Self regulation refers to the ability of a person to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods in order to adapt to changing circumstances. This construct of EI is related with the appropriate expression of emotion. People with this skill have the ability to diffuse difficult or tense situations and often think before acting. They are aware of how their actions affect others and take ownership of these actions. It includes flexibility, coping with change, and managing conflict.

Activity

Mindfulness: —Mindfulness is awareness that arises through paying attention, on purpose, in the present moment, non-judgementally, says Kabat-Zinn. –And then I sometimes add, in the service of self-understanding and wisdom.¶

To start with mindfulness just try to focus on your breathing, start inhaling and exhaling by paying attention only to your breathing. This is the first step towards understanding the concept of being in the moment without any judgement. This activity on regular basis will foster regulation of our emotions.

4.5.3. Motivation

Motivation, as a component of EI, refers to intrinsic motivation. It is the ability of a person to work for internal drive that is beyond external rewards such as money, prize, appreciation and status. People who are intrinsically motivated also experience a state of ‘flow’, by being immersed in an activity. They are usually action oriented, typically have a need for achievement and search for ways to improve. They are the one who takes initiatives. People skilled with this construct utilize emotional factors to achieve goals, enjoy the learning process and persevere in the face of obstacles. It includes a strong drive to achieve optimism even in the face of failure, and organizational commitment and propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. This can be illustrated by understanding Steve Jobs life journey, despite failing number of times finally he achieved his goals.

Activity

Understanding your goals and motives

1. Start writing the statements starting with I *should*.....

For example: I should be strong; I should reduce weight; I should compete civil services exam. After writing 5 or 7 statements ask yourself **why** after each statement. The answer will help you to understand if you are actually motivated to achieve something or its coz of some family or social pressure. Then write the statement with some positive affirmation like I will rather than I should. Sometimes we are not clear about our intrinsic motives so this activity will help in realizing your goals.

2. Reading biographies of great personalities and listening to motivational ted talks also helps in developing achievement motivation.

4.5.4. Empathy

Empathy refers to ability to understand other people's feelings especially while making decisions. This component of EI enables an individual to recognize other people's emotions and enables them to respond appropriately. It empowers people to sense power dynamics, as they accurately perceive situations where power dynamics come into force such as all social relationships, but also most especially in workplace relations. It includes expertise in building and retaining talent, to soften negative emotions or experiences in others, cross-cultural sensitivity, and service to clients and customers.

4.5.5. Social skills

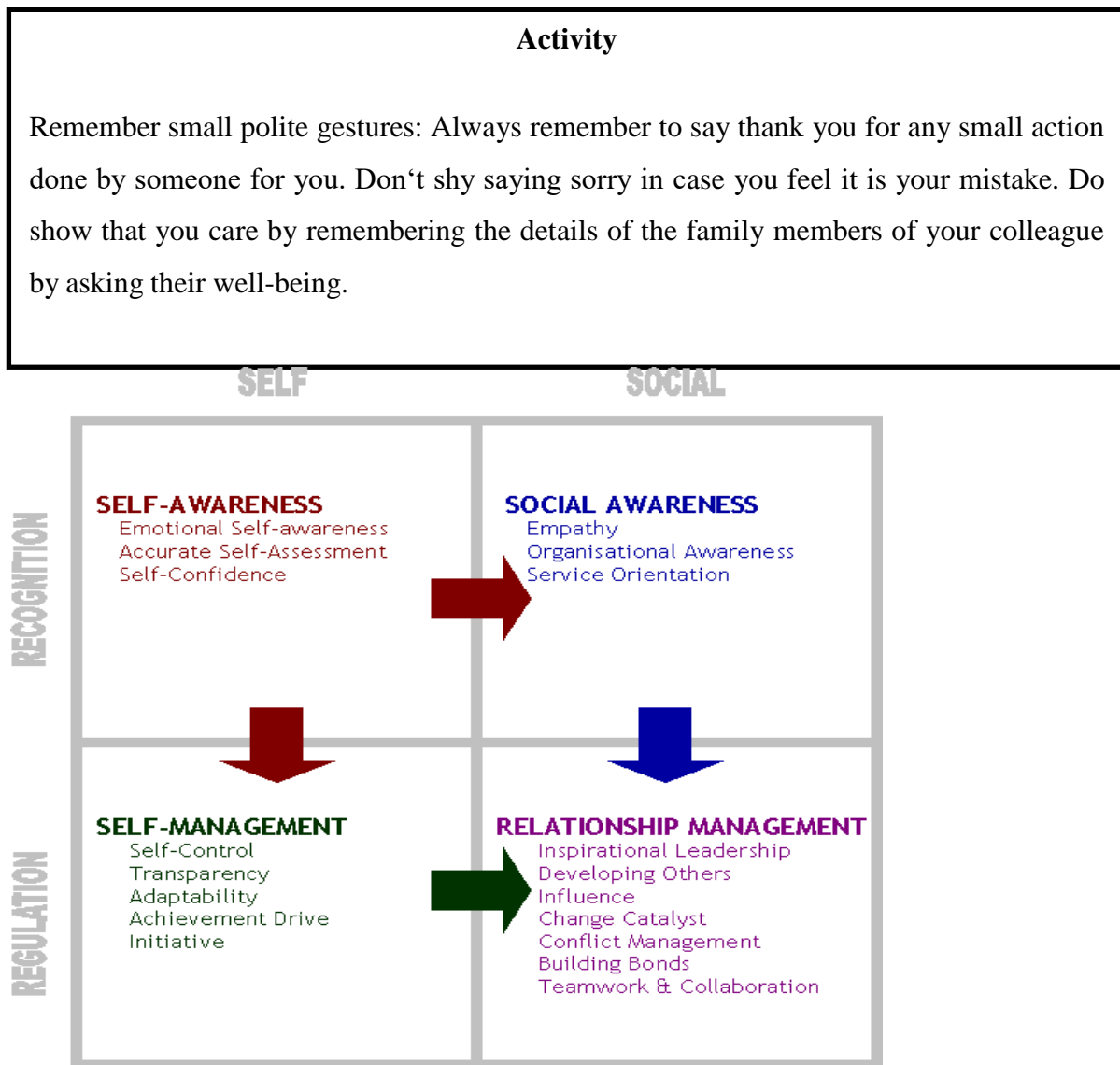
Activity

Go people-watching

When you go out for a walk, or any other situation outside among people and you are alone, just observe their interactions, emotions and moods, how and what they eat or do, how they make eye contact, their facial expressions, their body language etc. This will help in understanding peoples non-verbal clues which are important in developing empathy.

It is the ability to interact well with other people. People with such ability are usually proficient in managing relationships and building networks and an ability to find common ground and build rapport. It involves an understanding of one's own and other's emotions to communicate and interact with others on a day-to-day basis. It includes active listening, verbal communication skills, non-verbal communication skills and effectiveness in leading change, persuasiveness, and expertise in building and leading teams. Such people often inspire others and induce desired responses from them.

Fig. 1 Pictorial Representation of Goleman's Model



Source: web.sonoma.edu

Self-Check Exercise 1

Fill in the Blanks

1. The ability to understand what other person is going through.....
2. is the ability to pay attention to the present moment.
3. Goleman's model has..... components of Emotional Intelligence.
4. the ability to perceive, control, understand, evaluate and respond to emotions.
5. Identification of own and other's emotions is

4.6 BAR-ON MODEL OF EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

Bar-On viewed emotional intelligence as non-cognitive capabilities and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope with emotional turmoil. *According to the Bar-On model, "emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how well we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures."* Bar-on model of Emotional and Social Intelligence has five composites with three subscales within each composite. The Bar-On Model has a more holistic base to define Emotional Intelligence, it includes an individual understanding oneself, understanding others, and relating well to people -- but also to adapting and coping with environmental demands and stressors.

4.6.1. Intrapersonal – it refers to the ability of a person that relates to self-awareness and self-expression of emotions in general. Further it enables a person to understand his own strengths and limitations, and to express feelings non-destructively. It consists of sub factors including self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence and self-actualization.

1. Self-regard – Respect for oneself and self-confidence.
2. Self-actualization - Pursuit of meaning and self-improvement.
3. Independence- being free from emotional dependence on others.
4. Emotional Self-awareness - Understanding one's own emotions.
5. Assertiveness- Communicating feelings and beliefs in a non-offensive way.

4.6.2. Interpersonal – it is the ability to be aware of others' feelings and emotions. It helps a person to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. It consists of sub factors including empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships.

1. Interpersonal Relationships - Mutually satisfying relationships.
2. Empathy – Understanding and appreciating how others feel.

3. Social responsibility - Social consciousness and helpfulness.

4.6.3. Stress Management – it refers to managing emotions and controlling one’s ability to deal with emotions so that they work for us and not against us. It consists of sub factors including stress, tolerance, and impulse control.

1. Stress Tolerance - Ability to cope with stressful situations
2. Impulse Control - Resist or delay impulse to act

4.6.4. Adaptability – it basically implies to the person’s ability to deal with change. It involves how we cope with and adapt to personal and interpersonal change. It consists of sub factors including reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving.

1. Flexibility - Adapting emotions, thoughts, and behaviours
2. Reality Testing - Objective, see things as they really are
3. Problem Solving - Finding solutions when emotions are involved

4.6.5. General Mood - relates to our level of self-motivation. It consists of sub factors including optimism and happiness.

1. Optimism - Positive attitude and outlook towards life.
2. Happiness- feeling of content with oneself and with life in general.

Figure 2 shows the original Bar-On’s model of emotional intelligence

EQ-i SCALES	The EI Competencies and Skills Assessed
Interpersonal Self-regard Emotional self-awareness Assertiveness Independence Self-actualization	Self-awareness and self-expression: Accurately perceive, understand, and accept oneself Be aware of and understand one's emotions Effectively and constructively express one's emotions and oneself Be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others Strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential.
Interpersonal Empathy Social responsibility Interpersonal relationship	Social awareness and interpersonal relationships: Be aware of and understand how others feel Identify with one's social group and cooperate with others Establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.
Stress Mgmtment Stress tolerance Impulse control	Emotional management and regulation: Effectively and constructively manage emotions Effectively and constructively control emotions
Adaptability Reality-testing Flexibility Problem-solving	Change management: Objectively validate one's feelings and think with external reality Adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations Effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature
General Mood Optimism Happiness	Self-motivation: Be positive and look at the brighter side of life Feel content with oneself, others, and life in general

Source: <http://www.free-management-ebooks.com/>

The original model has five dimensions with 15 components explained above. In 2000, Bar-On refined his original model by re-categorising the components into constituent components (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, interpersonal relationship, problem solving, flexibility, reality testing, stress tolerance and impulse control) and facilitators (self actualisation, independence, social responsibility, optimism and happiness).

It is important to note that the ideal behaviour is to be balanced within each subscale. Being very high or very low on any of the specific subscale can lead to dysfunctional behaviour. The Bar-On Model believes that the Emotional Intelligence contributes equally to an individual's potential to succeed in life as the overall intelligence. In this way, the theory becomes less about any particular skill being more worthwhile, or any characteristic being superior, but rather looks at it as defined by the individual's ability to meet their own needs.

The Bar-On Model does propose that those with lower on skills of emotional intelligence are more likely to struggle with impulse control, stress tolerance, problem solving, and so on. While those with high EQs are more capable, through whatever means, of dealing with emotional challenges and environmental demands and pressures.

4.7 IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

As we know, it's not the smartest people who are the most successful in life. Intellectual ability isn't enough on its own to achieve success in life. The importance of EI should not go unappreciated. Emotional intelligence can help us lead a fulfilled and happy life. Emotional intelligence is dynamic aspects of one's psyche that, when worked upon, can yield fruitful benefits, from personal happiness and well-being to elevated success in a professional context. There is ample of research supporting that individuals with higher EI are better equipped to work cohesively within teams, deal with change more effectively, and manage stress – thus enabling them to work more efficiently in personal as well as professional life.

To have a comprehensive understanding of the impact of emotional intelligence on various domains of life, a few domains are discussed in the following sections.

4.7.1 Performance at school or work

High emotional intelligence helps in navigating the social complexities, excel in career and business performance. Many researchers have established a negative correlation of emotional intelligence with high risk behaviour in school children. It has been found that students with high emotional intelligence were less indulged in bullying, violence, substance abuse and risky sexual behaviour. Similarly in the work sector when it comes to recruitment, many companies now rate emotional intelligence as important as technical ability and employ EI testing before hiring. Individuals with high EI have an edge over others in dealing with high pressure situations, conflict resolution and constructive criticism. Emotional intelligence facilitates reasoning with co-workers, supervisors and customers more than logic alone. Proficiency in EI is becoming a vital prerequisite in prolonged or intense areas of 'emotional work' such as nursing, social work, the service industry, and management roles.

4.7.2 Health

The ability to manage emotions helps in managing stress. Being unable to manage emotions can lead to stress. Uncontrolled stress has adverse consequences such as high blood pressure, poor immune system, increased risk of heart attacks and strokes. Uncontrolled emotions can impact mental health too. It increases vulnerability to anxiety and depression. **Being unable to manage emotions,** will lead to struggle to form strong relationships. This in turn can leave you feeling lonely and isolated and further exacerbate any mental health problems.

4.7.3 Relationships

By understanding and managing emotions, you're better able to express how you feel and understand how others are feeling. This further aids in effective communication and forge stronger relationships, both at work and in your personal life. The most salient feature in the maintenance of a good relationship is Empathy. The individual having empathy will feel and understand another person's feelings by standing in the person's shoes. Empathy facilitates the connection with other people and also helps in building trust. Team work or working collaboratively becomes easier when trust is developed.

4.7.4 Resilience and EQ

Emotional intelligence is undoubtedly a valuable tool to utilize in the face of adversity. EI may be correlated to resilience, such that emotionally intelligent people are more adaptive in stressful situations. EI person has the ability to buffer the effects of stressful events through self-awareness, expression and management. Thereby EI has the potential to enhance resilience, which is the ability to cope with stressful situations. Many research studies endorse that resilience contributes in an employee's job satisfaction, commitment and happiness.

4.7.5 EI and Job Performance

The increasing body of research in emotional intelligence suggests the existence of link between emotional intelligence and job performance. Research indicates that EI in the workplace is positively associated with job satisfaction as it leads to better stress management and leadership skills. The workplace represents a distinct social community, whereby utilizing emotional intelligence skills can significantly improve the personal and social capabilities of individuals within that workplace.

4.7.6 Motivation and Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence matters for motivation, and motivation matters to fulfill goals. Whether it's related to work, personal goals, professional commitments or health, the emotionally intelligent person have the tendency to understand their aspirations better and the self-motivation skills required to achieve them.

4.7.7 Emotional Intelligence and Decision-Making

Emotional Intelligence is closely related to cognitive development, it impacts how we make decisions. An adequate understanding of the emotions we feel and why we are feeling

them can have a huge impact on our decision-making abilities. It prevents a person to decide based on emotional biases.

4.8 MEASURES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Nowadays industries and even schools use certain measures to assess emotional intelligence or Emotional quotient (EQ). Emotional intelligence scales are used for assessing set of abilities one possesses to adapt and work effectively in stressful situations. Numerous tests that promise to measure emotional intelligence have appeared in recent years which are discussed as following.

4.8.1 The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, 2002)

The (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test designed to measure the constructs of the Mayer and Salovey's model of EI. Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) was developed from an intelligence-testing tradition formed by the emerging scientific understanding of emotions and their function. It consists of 141 items that assess how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems and takes 30-45 minutes to administer. MSCEIT analysis provides five scores, including one for each construct and one for total EI. The constructs of the measure are (a) perceiving emotions, (b) facilitating thought, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions.

4.8.2 The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, 1997)

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ) is a 133-item self-report test of EI, developed by Bar-On to assess the factors that are composed of 15 subscales, including (a) intrapersonal EQ, composed of emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence; (b) interpersonal EQ, composed of empathy, relationship skills, and social responsibility; (c) adaptability, composed of problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility; (d) stress management, composed of stress tolerance and impulse control; and (e) general mood, composed of happiness and optimism based on Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence. This measure assess the emotional intelligence by one total score, five composite scores and 15 specific subscale scores. It can be used with 18 years and older. **However**, Bar-On (2000) has revised his model and now considers the fifth factor, general mood, as a facilitator of EI and not part of it. Therefore, the total EQ-i score used here is based on the sum of the first four scales.

4.8.3 Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT, (2001)

The SUEIT is a 64 items self-report measure of EI. Each item of the measure is a statement (i.e. 'I can tell how others are feeling'). Respondents are required to rate the degree to which each statement represents the way they think, feel or act. Items are scored on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1 equals 'never' and 5 equals 'always'. Scores are derived for five dimensions of EI: Emotional Recognition and Expression (ERE); Understanding Emotions External (UE); Emotions Direct Cognition (EDC); Emotional Management (EM); and Emotional Control (EC).

4.8.4 Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT,1998)

The SREIT is a 33 item brief self-report measure of EI that was developed by Schutte et. al.(1998). These self-report items that were primarily based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) early model of EI, and assess four provisional factors optimism and mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilization of emotions.

4.8.5 Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS, 2002)

This is a self report measure with 36 items. The scoring is based on seven points Like rt scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. WEIS based on the four ability dimensions described in the domain of EI:

- (1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self
- (2) appraisal and recognition of emotion in others
- (3) regulation of emotion in the self
- (4) use of emotion to facilitate performance

4.8.6 The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI, 2008)

The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI), is a behaviour-based measured. The **Genos EI** assesses Emotional Intelligence, in relation to the workplace. It comprised of seven subscales that covers the ability to manage emotions in an appropriate, professional, and productive manner at work. The instrument focuses on measuring the frequency with which someone may display emotionally intelligent actions. The scale consists of 70 questions and includes report rating from managers, peers, and customers. It takes 20 minutes to administer the test.

4.8.7 Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI, 1998)

The ECI is based on the seminal work of Dr. Daniel Goleman and Dr. Richard Boyatzis, and published by the Hay Group, This measure was developed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and colleagues, designed to assess emotional competencies and positive social behaviors. It comprised of 110 items and assesses 20 competencies that are organized into four groups: (1) Self-Awareness, (2) Social Awareness, (3) Self-Management, and (4) Social Skills.

4.8.8 Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI, 2007)

Emotional and social intelligence impacts leadership skills. To differentiate between an effective and average leader it is necessary to the behaviours that differentiate between an outstanding from average performers. This instrument is developed by Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis and Hay Group to assess the emotional and social competencies that distinguish between average and outstanding leaders. It comprised of 68 items assessing twelve competencies different domains of emotional intelligence namely Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Self-Control, Adaptability, Achievement Orientation, Positive Outlook, Empathy, Organizational Awareness, Coach and Mentor, Inspirational Leadership, Influence, Conflict Management and Teamwork.

Self-Check Exercise 2

1. Write about the importance of emotional intelligence.

.....
.....
.....
.....

2. How emotional intelligence can be measured?

.....
.....

3. Give a brief introduction to Goleman's model of emotional intelligence.

.....
.....
.....

4.9 SUMMARY

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to differentiate between emotional states and the use of right words to express them. Emotional intelligence encompasses the ability to perceive emotions in one and others and express them accurately. It helps in relieving stress, build stronger relationships, communicate effectively, achieve personal goals, empathize with others, overcome challenges and defuse conflict. It also aids in connecting with own feelings, turn intention into action, and make informed decisions about anything that matters the most. Emotional intelligence can be measured and can be facilitated through various training programs and exercises.

4.10 KEYWORDS

Self Regulation: Self regulation refers to the ability of a person to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods in order to adapt to changing circumstances. People with this skill have the ability to diffuse difficult or tense situations and often think before acting.

Stress Management: it refers to managing emotions and controlling one's ability to deal with emotions so that they work for us and not against us. It consists of sub factors including stress, tolerance, and impulse control.

Empathy: Empathy refers to ability to understand other people's feelings especially while making decisions. This component of EI enables an individual to recognize other people's emotions and enables them to respond appropriately.

Adaptability: it basically implies to the person's ability to deal with change. It involves how we cope with and adapt to personal and interpersonal change. It consists of sub factors including reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving.

Managing Emotions: It includes the ability to remain open to a wide range of different emotions, recognize how influential, reasonable, or clear the emotions are and understand which short- and long-term strategies are most efficient for emotional regulation.

4.11 MODEL ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

1. Empathy
2. Mindfulness
3. Five
4. Emotional intelligence
5. Perception of Emotions

Check Your Progress 2

1. Importance of Emotional Intelligence

Performance at school or work- High emotional intelligence helps in navigating the social complexities, excel in career and business performance. Many researchers have established a negative correlation of emotional intelligence with high risk behaviour in school children.

Health- The ability to manage emotions helps in managing stress. Being unable to manage emotions can lead to stress. Uncontrolled stress has adverse consequences such as high blood pressure, poor immune system, increased risk of heart attacks and strokes.

Relationships- By understanding and managing emotions, you're better able to express how you feel and understand how others are feeling. This further aids in effective communication and forge stronger relationships.

Resilience and EQ- Emotional intelligence is undoubtedly a valuable tool to utilize in the face of adversity. EI may be correlated to resilience, such that emotionally intelligent people are more adaptive in stressful situations.

EI and Job Performance- Research indicates that EI in the workplace is positively associated with job satisfaction as it leads to better stress management and leadership skills.

2. Measures of Emotional Intelligence

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, 2000)

The (MSCEIT) is an ability-based test designed to measure the constructs of the Mayer and Salovey's model of EI. MSCEIT analysis provides five scores, including one for each construct and one for total EI. The constructs of the measure are (a) perceiving emotions, (b) facilitating thought, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions.

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, 1997)

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ) is a 133-item self-report test of EI, developed by Bar-On to assess the factors that are composed of 15 subscales, including (a) intrapersonal EQ, composed of emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and

independence; (b) interpersonal EQ, composed of empathy, relationship skills, and social responsibility; (c) adaptability, composed of problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility; (d) stress management, composed of stress tolerance and impulse control; and (e) general mood, composed of happiness and optimism based on Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence.

Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT, (2000)

The SUEIT is a 64 items self-report measure of EI. Each item of the measure is a statement (i.e. 'I can tell how others are feeling'). Scores are derived for five dimensions of EI: Emotional Recognition and Expression (ERE); Understanding Emotions External (UE); Emotions Direct Cognition (EDC); Emotional Management (EM); and Emotional Control (EC).

SREIT (1998)

The SREIT is a 33 item brief self-report measure of EI that was developed by Schutte et al. (1998). These self-report items that were primarily based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) early model of EI, and assess four provisional factors optimism and mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilization of emotions.

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS, 2002)

This is a self report measure with 36 items. The scoring is based on seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. WEIS based on the four ability dimensions described in the domain of EI:

- appraisal and expression of emotion in the self
- appraisal and recognition of emotion in others
- regulation of emotion in the self
- use of emotion to facilitate performance

3. Goleman's Model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman developed five components of emotional intelligence at work. This model focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model describes following five constructs of EI:-

Self-awareness

Self-awareness refers to the ability of a person to recognize what one is feeling at any given time and understanding those emotions strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and also to have a sense of effect on others.

Self-Regulation

Self-regulation refers to the ability of a person to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods in order to adapt to changing circumstances. This construct of EI is related with the appropriate expression of emotion.

Motivation

Motivation, as a component of EI, refers to intrinsic motivation. It is the ability of a person to work for internal drive that is beyond external rewards such as money, prize, appreciation and status. People who are intrinsically motivated also experience a state of 'flow', by being immersed in an activity.

Empathy

Empathy refers to ability to understand other people's feelings especially while making decisions. This component of EI enables an individual to recognize other people's emotions and enables them to respond appropriately.

Social skills

It is the ability to interact well with other people. People with such ability are usually proficient in managing relationships and building networks and an ability to find common ground and build rapport.

4.12 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

- Bar-On, R. (1996). *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A Test of Emotional Intelligence*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (1997a). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: User's Manual*. Toronto, ON: Multihealth Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema* 18, 13–25.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2018). The behavioral level of emotional intelligence and its measurement. *Front. Psychol.* 9:01438
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., and Rhee, K. (2000). –Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: insights from the emotional competence inventory (ECI), in *Handbook of Emotional Intelligence*, eds R. Bar-On and J. D. A. Parker (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass), 343–362
- Boyatzis, R. E., and Goleman, D. (2007). *Emotional and Social Competency Inventory*. Boston, MA: The Hay Group.
- Godse, A. S. & Thingujam, N. S. (2014). Perceived emotional intelligence and conflict resolution styles among information technology professionals: testing the mediating role of personality. *The Free Library*. (blog).
- Goleman D (1998). "What Makes a Leader?". *Harvard Business Review*. **76**: 92–105.
- Mayer JD, Roberts RD, Barsade SG (2008). "Human abilities: emotional intelligence". *Annual Review of Psychology*. **59**: 507–36.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test: User's manual*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Mayer JD, Salovey P, Caruso DR, Sitarenios G (March 2003). "Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0". *Emotion*. **3** (1): 97–105.
- Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., and Barsade, S. G. (2008). Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* 59, 507–536.

- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D., and Sternberg, R. J. (2000). *Models of Emotional Intelligence*, ed R. J. Sternberg (New York, NY: Cambridge University Press), 396–420.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D.R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15, 197–215.
- Morrison, J. (2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and preferred conflict-handling styles. *J. Nurs. Manage.* 16, 974–983.
- Palmer, B. R., Stough, C., Harmer, R., and Gignac, G. (2009). –The Genos emotional intelligence inventory: a measure designed specifically for workplace applications. In *Assessing Emotional Intelligence* (Boston, MA: Springer), 103–117.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., et al. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personal. Indiv. Diff.* 25, 167–177.

Web links

<http://www.free-management-ebooks.com/faqpp/measuring-05.htm>

https://web.sonoma.edu/users/s/swijtink/teaching/philosophy_101/paper1/goleman.htm

4.13 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. What is emotional intelligence? Discuss its importance.
2. Discuss Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence.
3. What do you mean by Goleman's EI Model?
4. What is Bar-on model of Emotional and Social Intelligence?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT 5: STRESS MANAGEMENT; TIME MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

5.0 Objectives (Stress Management)

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Nature of stress

5.2.1 Nature of the stressor

5.2.2 A person perception and tolerance of stress

5.3 Consequences of stress

5.4 Stress Management

5.5 Coping with stress

5.5.1 Emotion focused coping

5.5.2 Problem focused coping

5.6 Factors that affects coping

5.7 Preventing stress

5.7.1 Avoid

5.7.2 Alter

5.7.3 Accept

5.7.4 Adapt

5.8 Tips to reduce stress

5.9 Relaxation techniques to reduce stress

5.10 Keywords

5.11 Model answers

5.12 Objectives (Time Management)

5.13 Introduction

5.14 Meaning of time management

5.14.1 Culture and Time Management

5.15 Benefits of time management

5.16 Time Management Techniques

5.17 Time management styles

5.17.1 Hopper

5.17.2 Hyper focus

5.17.3 Cliffhanger

5.17.4 Big Picture

5.17.5 Perfectionist

5.17.6 Impulsive

5.18 Tips to manage time better

5.19 Summary

5.20 Keywords

5.21 Model Answers

5.22 References

5.23 Questions for Practice

5.0 OBJECTIVES

- To help reader understand the meaning and nature of stress
- To explain consequences of stress
- To explain various coping strategies
- Strategies and tips to reduce stress

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Stress seems to be as old as the mankind is. According to Wheeler C.M., stress is a word of physics, used to analyze the problem of how manmade structures must be designed to carry heavy loads and resist deformation. In physics the term –stress refers to the amount of force used on an object. The usage of term changed with transition from physics to behavioural sciences. In psychology it can be defined as any change that causes physical, emotional, or psychological pressure. Stress is simply a response of body to anything that requires attention or action. Stress is a type of psychological pressure. Everyone experiences stress to some degree. Small amounts of stress may be beneficial, as it plays a role in motivation. However, excessive stress increases the risk of strokes, heart attacks, ulcers, depression and hypertension.

This unit will highlight the role of stressors and subjective factors in dealing with stressful or adverse situations. The students will learn about the various coping mechanisms and techniques to prevent stress.

5.2 NATURE OF STRESS

The term stress was coined by Cannon (1932) and he believed it to underlie all medical problems. He termed the body's physiological response to stress as a flight-fight syndrome. In fight-flight syndrome, the epinephrine, cortisol and other hormones prepare the body to defend against stress by attacking or by running away from the stressful situation. He regarded this response as highly functional and adaptive in nature. Different physiological mechanisms that seem to play a role in stress are brain, nervous system and the endocrine system. When the sympathetic nervous system senses stress (Selye's alarm reaction) it triggers the release of adrenaline resulting into accelerated heart rate and respiration. Simultaneously, hypothalamus causes the pituitary to release adreocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) which further triggers the release of Cortisol. Cortisol boosts the energy and helps the individual to deal with the stressful situation by flight or fight reaction but sustained elevated levels weaken the immune system.

Fig. 1: Depicting Fight or Flight Reaction



Source: psychologistsworld.com

How we cope with tension and danger in our world is largely determined by our fight-or-flight reaction. When we are threatened, our bodies are primed to either fight or escape. Stress is considered to be subjective in nature as what may be stressful for one may not be for the other. Stress can be caused due to number of reasons such as financial difficulties, health issues, personal conflicts and work issues all carry force or pressure on a person's that deemed as stress. If the source of stress originates from the environment it is known as external stressor but most often it emanates from within a person's head in the form of worry, anxiousness, regret, discouragement and low confidence and self-esteem known as internal stressor.

Stress is usually experienced in terms of three components, that is, emotion (such as anxiety or fear), thought (such as pessimistic self-talk) and behavior (such as smoking). All situations, positive and negative, that require adjustment can be stressful. Thus, according to Hans Selye (1956), there are two kinds of stress---**Eustress** (refers to stress caused by positive situations such as marriage, promotion etc.) and **Distress** (refers to stress caused by negative situations such as death, divorce, loss of a job etc.). Though both eustress and distress tax an individual's coping skill and resources but distress has more potential to cause damage.

The severity of stress is assessed by the degree to which it disrupts functioning. Various factors that predispose a person to stress have been categorized below based on the nature of stressor, person's perception and tolerance of stress.

5.2.1 Nature of the stressor: the impact of stress on an individual depends on the nature of a stressor like its importance to the person, duration and number of stressors.

- Importance or intensity of a stressor to the person: stressors that involve important aspects of a person's life such as the death of a loved one, a divorce, a job, or a serious illness tend to be highly stressful for most people.
- Duration of the stressor: the longer a stressor operates, the more severe its effect is experienced. For example, chronic stressors like living with a frustrating job or an unhappy marriage are likely to have more adverse effect than an acute stressor like having a fight with a friend.
- Cumulative effect of stressors: the more the number of stressors one faces in succession the more the stress as, these stressors tend to have a cumulative effect. For example a person is going through heavy financial loss and his wife is diagnosed with cancer at the same time, the resulting stress will be more severe than if these events occurred separately or over a time gap.
- The nature of the circumstances: In difficult situations, especially those involving conflicts, the severity of stress usually increase as the need to deal with the demand approaches. For example, the anxiety of performing in an exam is likely to be higher in the hour just prior to the exam.
- Degree of involvement: The more closely an individual is involved in a traumatic situation, the more is the stress experienced by him or her.
- Controllability: the more control an individual thinks he or she can exert over the stressor the less is the stress experienced by him or her. That is why uncontrollable events like death of a closed one are likely to be more stressful.
- Predictability: Being able to predict the occurrence of a stressful event, even if the individual cannot control it, usually reduces the severity of the stress as it allows an individual to initiate some sort of preparatory process that acts to lessen the effect of a stressor. Also, with a predictable stressor, there is a safe period in which the individual can relax to some extent.

- **Challenging limits:** Situations despite being controllable and predictable can be experienced as stressful if they push one's limits and capabilities and challenge an individual's view of himself or herself. Similarly any change in life that requires numerous readjustments can be perceived as stressful.
- **Personality characteristics:** Researchers Friedman and Rosenman (1976) found that men with personality characteristics of intense drive, aggressiveness, ambition, competitiveness and the pressure for getting things done were two to three times more likely to have heart attack in middle age than men who were equally competent but more easygoing.

5.2.2 A person's perception and tolerance of stress

One person's stressor is another person's piece of cake. There are individual differences in reaction to the same stressor, this may be due to a person's perception of threat, level of stress tolerance and his personality traits.

- **Perception of threat:** if a situation is perceived as threatening and more likely to occur, whether or not the threat is real, it is likely to evoke significant stress. Also an individual who feels overwhelmed or feels that he or she will not be able to deal with the threat is more likely to experience negative consequences from the situation than a person who believes that he or she will be able to manage it. Understanding the nature of a stressful event, preparing for it, and knowing how long it will last can lessen the severity of the stress. Perception of threat is determined by an individual's past experiences, conditioned responses, his personality and resources he has to deal with it.
- **Stress tolerance:** The term stress tolerance refers to a person's ability to withstand stress without becoming seriously impaired. The amount of stress one can handle without getting overwhelmed is what psychologists call as stress tolerance. Psychologist Robert Sapolsky has used the term *stress signature* to demonstrate the individual differences in sensitivity for stress. There are certain receptors in different areas of the brain for stress chemicals and the more receptors you have the less sensitive you are to stress. It has been found that individuals who have better tolerance can withstand the daily stressors and make better decisions in high pressure jobs.
- **Optimism-pessimism:** Optimists are people who see the glass as the half full and pessimist are those who see it as half empty. Research has shown that optimists (i.e. people who have general expectancies for good outcomes) are likely to be more stress resistant than pessimists (i.e. people who have general expectation for poor outcomes). One reason behind this could be the difference in the stress coping strategies adopted by them.

- Hardiness is a term coined to demonstrate a personality characteristic having three constituent traits (commitment, challenge and control), and acts as a resistance to stress (Kobasa, 1979). Hardy people (i.e., relatively stress-resistant) seem to differ from other with respect to their high level of Commitment: tendency to see change as challenge (i.e. an opportunity for growth and development) and a stronger sense of control over events and outcomes in their life. Research finding indicates that persons high in hardiness tend to report better health than those low in hardiness even when they encounter major stressful life changes.

5.3 Consequences of stress

Stress at its optimum level can have adaptive and positive effects, for instance, it can increase one's tolerance for future stressors but continued exposure to severe stress can have more negative and damaging effect on one's physiological and psychological functioning, for instance, it can lower one's efficiency, cause depletion of adaptive resources, resulting in severe personality and physical deterioration. Prolonged and chronic stress may contribute to high blood pressure, diabetes, heart disease, obesity and many other psycho -somatic ailments.

Activity 1
How Stressful Are You?
 Rate yourself on a scale of 1 to 10
 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10
 Least Stress Highest Stress
 Higher the number more is the stress

i). Identify your any three internal stressors such as fear of failure, losing job or lack of confidence etc.
 ii). Identify your any three external stressors such as financial crisis, relationship difficulties or career choice etc.

5.4 STRESS MANAGEMENT

Avoiding stress is not an easy task but managing can be. Stress management can help in minimizing the harmful effects of stress, such as depression or hypertension.

At times you may feel helpless in cutting down your level of stress. The obligations aren't going to stop, there will never be more hours in the day for all your errands, and your responsibilities will always remain demanding. But there is a lot more you can control than

you think. Realization the charge of control is in your hand is the foundation of stress management. Managing stress is all about taking charge of your perceptions, thoughts, environment, emotions and the way in which you respond or react to the situation. Stress management begins with the identification of stressor. It is difficult to identify stressor as sometimes the source of stress is not obvious, and also because of human tendency to overlook one's own stress-inducing thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. For e.g., you might be worried about work deadline but it may be due to your procrastination which leads to job stress rather than actual job demand. Your stress level will remain out of your control until you take responsibility for the part you played in generating or sustaining it.

5.5 COPING WITH STRESS

Generally speaking, increased levels of stress threaten a person's well-being and automatically an individual takes some action to do away with stress and its harmful effects. What action an individual takes often depends on a complex interplay between internal factors like a person's frame of references, motives, competencies, or stress tolerance and external factors like one's social demands and expectations.

Ironically, some people are seen to create stress for themselves by engaging in maladaptive behaviors and cognitions rather than coping with it. Some individuals get caught in the vicious cycle of generating life events that in turn produce adjustment problems.

Individuals tend to cope with stress at three levels---at the biological or the physiological level (through the use of immunological defenses and damage-repair mechanisms), the psychological or the interpersonal level (through the use of learned coping patterns, self-defenses, and support from family and friends) and at the socio-cultural level (through group resources, such as labor unions, religious organizations, and law-enforcement agencies). The failure of coping efforts in any of these levels may seriously increase a person's vulnerability on other levels and also to other stressors.

In order to effectively cope with stress, individuals are seen to engage in various coping strategies. Coping strategies refer to various cognitive, behavioral and emotional ways people engage in to manage stress. They are dynamic processes which neither eliminate a stressor nor prevent its re-occurrence but increase one's tolerance of the situations; all the coping strategies an individual engages in are not equally effective.

Lazarus has given two kinds of coping strategies---emotion coping strategies and problem focused coping strategies.

5.5.1 Emotion focused coping: This involves the use of cognitive & behavior strategies to manage one's emotional reaction to stress. Cognitive strategies include changing one's appraisal of stressor and denying unpleasant information whereas, behavioral strategies include taking

social support and alcohol or psychoactive drug. Emotion focused coping primarily aims at distracting attention from unpleasant situations, stress evoking events and problems. An individual tends to make use of them when nothing significantly can be done to alter the stressor or stress evoking situation. This type of coping is also adopted when he or she lacks the skills or resource to meet demands posed by the stressors. Three types of emotion focused coping strategies that are frequently used are:

- **Escape avoidance coping** is when the individual physically/psychologically separates himself or herself from the stressors. For instance, to avoid the fear of failing one may either not give the exam or may engage in excessive sleeping.
- **Distancing** refers to psychological detachment of oneself from the stressor. For instance, over-weight people may stop thinking about their weight.
- **Position reappraisal** is Reinterpreting the situation to turn the negative aspects of the situation or the stressor into its positive aspects. For example, one may look at the loss of job as an opportunity to get something better.

5.5.2 Problem focused coping: This involves directly dealing with the stressful situation by either reducing its demands, or by increasing one's capacity to deal with it. Some problem focused coping strategies that are frequently used are:

- **Proactive coping (preventive coping)** is to anticipate potential stressors and act in advance to either prevent their occurrence or to reduce its impact. To achieve this goal one may make use of several mechanism like, improving problem solving skills, develop stronger social support network etc. for example, the fear of losing a job can be overcome by learning new skills and increasing social networking.
- **Combating coping is used** to escape from stressors that cannot be avoided. It involves the active use of Relaxation techniques meditation and eating nutritious diet.

Research has shown that women in general and individuals from a low socio-economic status are more likely to use emotion focused strategies. On the other hand men in general and people from a high socioeconomic status, make use of problem focused strategies. One reason behind this could be that women are seen to react emotionally more to stress than men and past experiences may create feelings of helplessness and hopelessness in individuals from a low socio-economic status. In fact, in dealing with various stressors, both the above mentioned coping strategies are often used together.

Activity 2

- Identify your coping style.
- Write the coping styles you engage in to deal with internal and external stressors.
- Do you think you can manage stress by using appropriate coping style?

5.6 Factors contributing in coping

In addition to the various coping strategies, certain factors that can affect one's ability to cope with stress are as follows:

- Hardiness is seen to be associated with better coping. It is seen that individuals high on hardiness are more likely to make use of problem focuses coping strategies.
- Resilience means to stand in the face of adversity and to cope with stressors effectively. Some individual's are seen to be more resilient than others. For instance, it is seen that some children have the ability to develop into competent and well -adjusted adults despite being raised in extremely disadvantaged environment. Resilience may be the result of child's personality trait, life experiences and the available social support. Resilient children tend to have well developed social, academic and creative skills.
- Explanatory style is another relevant factor in coping, it can be of two types namely, positive explanatory style and a negative explanatory style. Individuals who adopt a positive explanatory style tend to attribute outcomes always to a positive event such as one's personality, hard work etc. Individuals who adopt a negative explanatory style tend to attribute outcomes predominantly to a negative event, they feel that they are always surrounded by failures. Pessimists have a negative explanatory style and are vulnerable to experience negative emotions like depression, anger, anxiety and hostility. They are also likely to have suppressed immune systems. However, in contrast to them optimists have a positive explanatory style and are more likely to experience positive emotions and are likely to increase one's social, physical and cognitive resources. They are also likely to have healthy attitudes and healthy habits.
- Self- regulation is the ability to modulate ones thoughts, actions and emotions in most of the situations. Individuals who are self -regulated have better inter personal relations, as they can control their negative emotions in a better way. However too much of self control is not healthy as it leads to suppression of anger and may make an individual vulnerable to develop ulcers later in life.
- Repression is a defense mechanism adopted by some individuals who tend to repress or block the awareness of negative stress evoking events out of consciousness. It is unhealthy and may result in pathology.
- Learned helplessness is a phenomenon, in which after experiencing a series of negative uncontrolled events, the individual comes to an understanding that he is helpless in the face of adverse circumstances and hence does not make effort to overcome his difficulties even if they have opportunity to do so. People with this trait usually find themselves in pitiable situation and indulge in negative self talk.

Fig. 2 Learned Helplessness



Source: quora.com

The above picture demonstrates that how one believes that he is unable to control or change the situation, hence he does not even try to — even when opportunities for change become available.

Social support is the presence of adequate support of relatives or friends which acts as a buffer to stress. There are two hypotheses, namely buffering hypothesis and the direct effect hypothesis, which have been proposed to explain how social support reduces the negative effects of stress. According to the buffering hypotheses social support reduces stress by providing resources on the spot to cope with the stress effectively. People with good social support tend to ruminate less and this further minimizes the negative impact of the stressor on the individual. According to the direct effect hypotheses social support enhances the physical response to challenging situations. For examples, pressure of others may reduce sympathetic nervous system arousal and may decrease the release of Corticotrophin Release Hormone (CRH).

Individuals with better social skills tend to create stronger social network and are likely to receive more social support.

Self-Check Exercise 1

1. The body's physiological response to stress is... syndrome.
- 2..... the ability to modulate ones thoughts, actions and emotions.
3. Stress caused by positive situations such as marriage, promotion etc. is.....
4. Lazarus has given..... kinds of stress coping strategies.
5. Reinterpreting the situation to turn the negative aspects into its positive ones is

5.7 PREVENTING STRESS

Feeling of stress is like carrying a backpack that's becoming heavier by the minute. Stress can make our journey across life difficult. For coping with stress one need to restore the balance by reducing the intensity of stressors or increasing the ability to cope or both. Try using one of the four A's: avoid, alter, accept or adapt can help in preventing stress.

5.7.1 Avoid

Simply avoiding a stressor can reap the benefits of a lighter load. If a stressful situation needs to be addressed It is not healthy to avoid it, but there are number of stressors that you can eliminate by simply avoiding them. Few strategies that can be incorporated in avoiding stress are:-

- **Learn to say no-** Over burdened and under too much stress, you're more likely to feel run-down and possibly get sick. There is always a line between being foolish and being charitable. At a certain point when worthy requests isn't lessening saying no is the solution. It is not necessarily selfish turn. Saying no to new commitments is actually making you honour the existing obligations.
- **Taking control of surroundings-** If the news makes you feel anxious, take the control and turn off the TV. If traffic makes you tense, leave early for work or take a longer but less-traveled route. If going to the market is an unpleasant chore, online shopping can help.
- **Avoid people who bother you-** If a person is causing stress consistently in your life, put physical distance between the two of you. Limit the amount of time spent with such a person.
- **Ditch part of your to do list-** After analyzing your daily tasks and responsibilities label your to-do list with A's, B's and C's, according to importance. If you have got too much on your plate, scratch the C's from your list.

However, some problems can't be avoided. For those situations, try another technique.

5.7.2 Alter

If avoiding a stressful situation is not possible try to alter it.

- **Communicate your feelings rather than bottling them-** Remember to use -I'll statements in expressing your feelings such as "I feel stressed due to heavier workload. Is there something we can do to balance things out?"
- **Respectfully ask others to change their behavior-** And be willing to do the same. If small problems aren't resolved they often create larger ones. Be assertive in communicating concerns if something or someone is bothering you. For e.g. if you have an exam ahead but you got a chatty roommate say up front that you are preparing for exam in respectful manner. If you don't voice your feelings, resentment will build and the

stress will increase.

- **Manage your time-** All work and no leisure is a recipe of burnout. Create a balanced schedule, combine the tasks that are similar in nature. The reward of increased efficiency will be extra time.

5.7.3 Accept

Sometimes there is no choice but to accept things, such as the death of a loved one, a serious illness, or a national recession. In such cases, the best way to cope with stress is to accept things as they are. For those times try to:

- **Share your feelings-** You may not be able to change a frustrating situation. In such case schedule a break with an understanding friend or visit a therapist. Expressing what you are going through is cathartic and helps in relieving stress.
- **Forgiveness-** we live in an imperfect world in which people make mistakes. It takes energy to be angry. Letting go of anger and resentment helps in relieving stress. Forgiving may take practice, but by doing so you will free yourself from burning more negative energy.
- **Make constructive self-talk a habit-** When you're tired, it's easy to lose your objectivity. One negative thought will lead to another, and you'll soon have a mental avalanche in your head. Maintain a good attitude by shifting thoughts. Rather than saying, "'I'm terrible with money and will never be able to manage my finances," try this: "I made a financial error, but I'm a hell of a fighter." I'm sure I'll be able to get through it."Don't try to control the uncontrollable.
- Many things in life are beyond our control, particularly the behavior of other people. Rather than stressing out over them, focus on the things you can control such as the way you choose to react to problems.

5.7.4 Adapt

If you can't change the stressor, change yourself. Thinking you can't cope is one of the greatest stressors. Changing expectations and attitudes is a way to adapt to stressful situations and regain. That is why adapting can be helpful in dealing with stress.

- **Adjust your standards-** Redefine your success and stop striving for perfection. Perfectionism is a major source of avoidable stress. Set reasonable standards for yourself and others and you may operate with a little less guilt and frustration.
- **Reframe the problem-** Try looking at your situation from a positive perspective. Instead of feeling frustrated about a traffic jam, look at it as an opportunity to pause, listen to your favourite music, or enjoy some alone time.
- **Adopt a mantra.** Create a saying such as, "I can handle this," and mentally repeat it in tough situations.
- **Create an assets column-** Imagine all the things that bring joy in your life, such as

vacation, children, old neighbours and pets. Then call on that list when you're stressed. It will put serve as a reminder of life's joys.

- **Practice gratitude-** When you're feeling stressed, take a moment to think about all the things you're grateful for in your life, including your own good attributes and abilities. This straightforward approach will assist you in keeping things in perspective.
- **Look at the big picture.** Ask yourself, "Will this matter in a long run? Will it matter in a month a year or in five years?" The answer is often no. Realizing this makes a stressful situation seem less overwhelming.

The way you respond to stress, however, makes a big difference to your overall well-being.

5.8 TIPS TO REDUCE STRESS

- **Start a stress journal-** It is an easy way to identify stressor in daily life. Keep a record in your journal, each time you feel stressed. In your journal write about what is the cause behind your stress? How you felt about it? How you responded to the stressor to make yourself feel better? Stress journal will be helpful in identifying if you have healthy or unhealthy coping mechanism.
- Don't get so caught up in the hustle and bustle of life that you forget to take care of your own needs. Nurturing yourself is a necessity, not a luxury.
- Set aside relaxation time. Include rest and relaxation in your daily schedule. Don't allow other obligations to encroach. This is your time to take a break from all responsibilities and recharge your batteries.
- Connect with others. Spend time with positive people who enhance your life. A strong support system will buffer you from the negative effects of stress.
- Do something you enjoy every day. Make time for leisure activities that bring you joy, whether it be stargazing, playing the piano, or working on your bike.
- Keep your sense of humor. This includes the ability to laugh at yourself. The act of laughing helps your body fight stress in a number of ways.

5.9 RELAXATION TECHNIQUES TO REDUCE STRESS

You can control your stress levels with relaxation techniques that evoke the body's relaxation response, a state of restfulness that is the opposite of the stress response. Regularly practicing these techniques will build your physical and emotional resilience, heal your body, and boost your overall feelings of joy and equanimity.

- **Physical activity-** It plays an important role in reducing and preventing the effects of stress. Exercise regularly for at least 30 minutes daily, minimum of three times a week.
- **Diet-** Eat a healthy diet, be mindful of what to eat. Well-nourished bodies are better

prepared to cope with stress. Do not skip the first meal of the day i.e. breakfast, and keep your energy level up with balanced, nutritious meals throughout the day.

- Reduce caffeine and sugar- Avoid excessive intake of the temporary "highs" such as caffeine that often end in with a crash in mood and make you sleepless. Adequate sleep fuels your mind, as well as your body.
- Consuming alcohol or drugs may provide an easy escape from stress, but the relief is only temporary. Don't avoid or mask the issue at hand; deal with problems head on and with a clear mind.

Activity 3

Try Jacobson's Progressive Muscle Relaxation (JPMR)

Three-step process Spruill (Speech specialist) recommends:

1. Close your hands tightly to feel the tension. Hold for 5 seconds, and slowly allow the fingers to release one by one until they're completely relaxed.
2. Press your lips tightly together and hold for 5 seconds, feeling the tension. Slowly release. The lips should be completely relaxed and barely touching after the release.
3. Finally, press your tongue against the roof of your mouth for 5 seconds, and notice the tension. Slowly relax the tongue until it's sitting on the floor of the mouth and your jaws are slightly unclenched.

Activity Source: healthline.com

Self-Check Exercise 2

1. What are the different strategies of coping with stress?

.....
.....
.....

2. Write about stress relieving techniques.

.....
.....

5.10 KEYWORDS

Distress: refers to stress caused by negative situations such as death, divorce, loss of a job etc.).

Resilience: Resilience means to stand in the face of adversity and to cope with stressors effectively. Some individual's are seen to be more resilient than others. Resilience may be the result of child's personality trait, life experiences and the available social support. Resilient children tend to have well developed social, academic and creative skills.

Repression: It is a defense mechanism adopted by some individuals who tend to repress or block the awareness of negative stress evoking events out of consciousness. It is unhealthy and may result in pathology.

Stress tolerance: The term stress tolerance refers to a person's ability to withstand stress without becoming seriously impaired. The amount of stress one can handle without getting overwhelmed is what psychologists call as stress tolerance.

Escape avoidance: Escape avoidance coping is when the individual physically/psychologically separates himself or herself from the stressors. For instance, to avoid the fear of failing one may either not give the exam or may engage in excessive sleeping.

5.11 MODEL ANSWERS

Self check exercise 1

1. Flight- fight 2. Self regulation 3. Eustress 4. Two 5. Position reappraisal

Self check exercise 2

In order to effectively cope with stress, individuals are seen to engage in various coping strategies. Coping strategies refer to various cognitive, behavioral and emotional ways people

engage in to manage stress. They are dynamic processes which neither eliminate a stressor nor prevent its re-occurrence but increase one's tolerance of the situations, all the coping strategies an individual engages in are not equally effective.

Lazarus has given two kinds of coping strategies---emotion coping strategies and problem focused coping strategies.

Emotion focused coping: This involves the use of cognitive & behavior strategies to manage one's emotional reaction to stress. Cognitive strategies include changing one's appraisal of stressor and denying unpleasant information whereas, behavioral strategies include taking social support and alcohol or psychoactive drug. Emotion focused coping primarily aims at distracting attention from unpleasant situations, stress evoking events and problems. An individual tends to make use of them when nothing significantly can be done to alter the stressor or stress evoking situation. This type of coping is also adopted when he or she lacks the skills or resource to meet demands posed by the stressors. Three types of emotion focused coping strategies that are frequently used are:

- Escape avoidance coping is when the individual physically/psychologically separates himself or herself from the stressors. For instance, to avoid the fear of failing one may either not give the exam or may engage in excessive sleeping.
- Distancing refers to psychological detachment of oneself from the stressor. For instance, over-weight people may stop thinking about their weight.
- Position reappraisal is Reinterpreting the situation to turn the negative aspects of the situation or the stressor into its positive aspects. For example, one may look at the loss of job as an opportunity to get something better.

Problem focused coping involves directly dealing with the stressful situation by either reducing its demands, or by increasing one's capacity to deal with it. Three types of problem focused coping strategies that are frequently used are :

- Proactive coping (preventive coping) is to anticipate potential stressors and act in advance to either prevent their occurrence or to reduce its impact. To achieve this goal one may make use of several mechanism like, improving problem solving skills, develop stronger social support network etc. for example, the fear of losing a job can be overcome by learning new skills and increasing social networking.
- Combating coping is used to escape from stressors that cannot be avoided. It involves the active use of Relaxation techniques meditation and eating nutritious diet.

Ans 2. Physical activity- It plays an important role in reducing and preventing the effects of stress. Exercise regularly for at least 30 minutes daily, minimum of three times a week.

- Diet- Eat a healthy diet, be mindful of what to eat. Well-nourished bodies are better prepared to cope with stress. Do not skip the first meal of the day i.e. breakfast, and keep your energy level up with balanced, nutritious meals throughout the day.
- Reduce caffeine and sugar- Avoid excessive intake of the temporary "highs" such as caffeine that often end in with a crash in mood and make you sleepless. Adequate sleep fuels your mind, as well as your body.
- Consuming alcohol or drugs may provide an easy escape from stress, but the relief is only temporary. Don't avoid or mask the issue at hand; deal with problems head on and with a clear mind.

Ans. 3. The term stress was coined by Cannon (1932) and he believed it to underlie all medical problems. He termed the body's physiological response to stress as a flight-fight syndrome. In fight-fight syndrome, the epinephrine, cortisol and other hormones prepare the body to defend against stress by attacking or by running away from the stressful situation. He regarded this response as highly functional and adaptive in nature. Different physiological mechanisms that seem to play a role in stress are brain; nervous system and the endocrine system. When the sympathetic nervous system senses stress (Selye's alarm reaction) it triggers the release of adrenaline resulting into accelerated heart rate and respiration. Simultaneously, hypothalamus causes the pituitary to release adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) which further triggers the release of Cortisol. Cortisol boosts the energy and helps the individual to deal with the stressful situation by flight or fight reaction but sustained elevated levels weaken the immune system.

Stress is usually experienced in terms of three components, that is, emotion (such as anxiety or fear), thought (such as pessimistic self-talk) and behavior (such as smoking). All situations, positive and negative, that require adjustment can be stressful. Thus, according to Hans Selye (1956), there are two kinds of stress---**Eustress** (refers to stress caused by positive situations such as marriage, promotion etc.) and **Distress** (refers to stress caused by negative situations such as death, divorce, loss of a job etc.). Though both eustress and distress tax an individual's coping skill and resources but distress has more potential to cause damage.

Stress is considered to be subjective in nature as what may be stressful for one may not be for the other. Stress can be caused due to number of reasons such as financial difficulties, health issues, personal conflicts and work issues all carry force or pressure on a person's that deemed as stress. If the source of stress originates from the environment it is known as external stressor but most often it emanates from within a person's head in the form of worry, anxiousness, regret, discouragement and low confidence and self-esteem known as internal stressor.

The severity of stress is assessed by the degree to which it disrupts functioning. Various factors that predispose a person to stress have been categorized below based on the nature of stressor, person's perception and tolerance of stress.

5.12 OBJECTIVES (TIME MANAGEMENT)

After reading this chapter you will be able to

- define time management
- understand the importance of time management
- know the benefits of time management
- explain various styles of managing time

5.13 INTRODUCTION

Managing your time lowers your stress level and boosts your self-confidence. Taking charge of your time will help you feel less stressed and anxious. Meeting tight deadlines and managing your time are examples of good time management. Managing your time prevents overwhelm and guarantees that you are not constantly tired. You will be more creative with the time you have if you handle it well. Furthermore, stress reduction leads to a rise in productivity and makes you successful in both professional and personal front.

In this lesson we will study about what time management actually is? We will focus on the benefits of time management and introduce various styles to manage it effectively.

5.14 TIME MANAGEMENT

The process of planning and controlling how much time to spend on particular tasks is known as time management. Good time management allows a person to do more in less time, reduces tension, and contributes to professional success. Time management means making optimal use of the available time to increase productivity. It is the process of organizing and planning tasks and exercising conscious control of the time spent on specific activities to work smarter than harder to get more done in less time. Being busy isn't the same as being productive, despite working the entire day, many people can't complete their daily tasks. Here comes in the role of time management strategies.

5.14.1 Culture and Time Management

Cultural differences influence time management. A linear time view (conceiving time as flowing from one moment to the other) is predominant in America along with most North- East

European countries, such as Germany, Switzerland, and England. People in these cultures usually value productive time management and avoid decisions that would waste time later on. This cultural view leads to a better focus on accomplishing a singular task and hence, more productive time management.

Another time view is multi-active time view. Cultures that follow this trend believe that the more activities or tasks being done at once the better. People in this culture prefer to do multiple tasks at the same time. A multi-active time view is more popular in most Southern European countries such as Spain, Portugal, and Italy. In these cultures, people often tend to spend time on things deemed to be important. They often pay little attention on how long it takes to finish the task, rather focus is on having high quality results.

Another time view type is a cyclical time view. In cultures that follow cyclic time view time is not seen as wasted because it will always come back later, hence there is an unlimited amount of it. It is predominant throughout most countries in Asia, including Japan and China. Most people in cyclical cultures spend more time thinking about decisions and the impact they will have, before acting on their plans.

5.15 BENEFITS OF TIME MANAGEMENT

“Time and Tide Wait for None”

Geoffrey Chaucer

This is the phrase everyone is familiar with since school days. The importance of time in life is well cited, but many of us fail to get most out of it. In order to use time in more productive way it is essential to understand how important it is. Before we learn different time management styles, let's take a look at following advantages of time management:-

1. Reduces Procrastination

“I will do it later” is an excuse that we all have made at some point of time. The meaning of time management is not just about doing more in less time but also to reduce the urge to procrastinate. Time management lets you control your time. It will help you in focusing at what you want to complete in given time frame. As a result it reduces procrastination.

2. Improves Work-Life Balance

Effective time management results in finishing work early which eventually means having more time for self, personal goals and interpersonal commitments. It also impacts work and productivity in a positive way — the happier you are, the more productive you become.

3. Prevents Burnout

Taking some time off work, boost up mental energy level and avoids the possibility of burnout. It also enables a person to focus better and enhance problem-solving capabilities.

4. Reduces Stress and Anxiety

Overwhelmed with too much on plate can create stress and make oneself feel anxious. This not only hampers productivity but also the overall health. Planning tasks and prioritizing schedule reduces stress.

5. Develops Sense of Responsibility

It is true that time and tide waits for none. Each of us has got twenty four hours a day. Realizing the importance of time develops a sense of responsibility to reap more benefits out of limited resources.

6. Never miss a deadline

There are number of time bound tasks allocated to students or in work life. Effective time management helps you allocate a time period to a particular task and ensure that they are completed on time. This helps to stay sharp on the deadlines, and manage workload in the best possible way. Time boxing tasks and goals allow you to deliver the assigned work on time.

7. More time freedom

Techniques for time management mean that you have more time to do the things that matter most to you. Good time management means that you spend your time on the most important things. As a result, you'll have more time in your hands. When you have more time in your hands, you will have more freedom to use it in the way you want. You'll have more time to spend with your family if you have more time independence.

8. Things have become much simpler and faster.

Things become quick and easy when you have good time management skills. You become more optimistic and competent when you take care of your time, and tasks become easier. You will feel clear and optimistic about how to use your time if you practice good time management. As a result, you devote your time and effort to achieving the outcomes and outcomes you desire.

9. Increased vitality

One of the most significant advantages of time management is increased energy and motivation. Working longer and harder will deplete your energy levels, leaving you exhausted all of the time. You can better handle your resources and efficiency levels if you have good time management skills. Greater energy is one of the most significant advantages of time management.

10. Punctual and disciplined

As a result of successful time management, one learns to function only when it is truly necessary. Individuals should prepare a –TASK PLAN– or a –TO DO– List at the start of the day to jot down tasks that need to be completed in a given day according to their value and urgency against the various time slots allocated to each activity. At work, a Task Plan provides individuals with a sense of direction. A person understands how his day will unfold and works accordingly, resulting in improved productivity.

5.16 TIME MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

As we have discussed above the ample benefits of managing time, but still most people struggle at managing time. This can be due to lack of knowledge of how to do it. Following section will provide brief information about various techniques of time management. These techniques will provide a way to use time management skills.

5.16.1 ABC analysis

This technique is used in business management. It involves categorization of large data into groups. Activities are ranked by :-

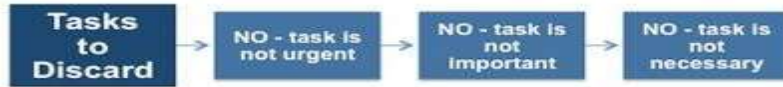
A- Tasks that are urgent and important (very important)

B- Tasks that are important but not urgent (important)

C- Tasks that are unimportant but urgent (less important)The goal of this analysis is to focus more on important things by differentiating between very important, important and less important tasks. Discard the tasks from your workload that does not fit in any of the above mentioned lists.

Fig. 1 Pictorial representation of ABC analysis





Source: <http://www.free-management-ebooks.com/>

5.16.2 The Pareto Principle (The 80:20 Rule) in Time Management

According to the Pareto principle 80% of the work can be done in 20% of the time. For time management, Pareto principle means that only 20% of the tasks contribute to 80% of the total success. It is an effective method for setting priorities and developing plans for work. In order to apply the Pareto Principle, it is essential to assess strengths and weaknesses and recognize the factors that will help to reap success. Examples of Pareto Principle in meetings, 80% of the decisions are usually made in 20% of the time. In daily life we usually wear only 20% of the clothes we own.

5.16.3 Eisenhower Method

In Eisenhower principle the tasks are divided into important, unimportant, urgent and not urgent. After division the tasks are placed in quadrant matrix (given below) also known as ‘Eisenhower box’ or ‘Eisenhower Decision Matrix’. The quadrant is filled as follows:-

1st quadrant- important and urgent task (deadlines, crises etc.)

2nd quadrant- important but not urgent task (planning, preparation etc.)

3rd quadrant- not important but urgent (meetings, interruptions etc.)

4th quadrant- neither important nor urgent (pleasant activities, time wasters etc.)

Fig.1- The Eisenhower Decision Matrix

The Eisenhower Decision Matrix



Source: luxafor.com

5.16.4 POSEC method

POSEC is an acronym to Prioritize, Organize, Streamline, Economize and Contribute. It is one of the popular methods of time management in personal life. It is a hierarchical model. Things that are more important are placed on the top while the least important at the base of the hierarchy.

Prioritizing- first things first, defining life by goals

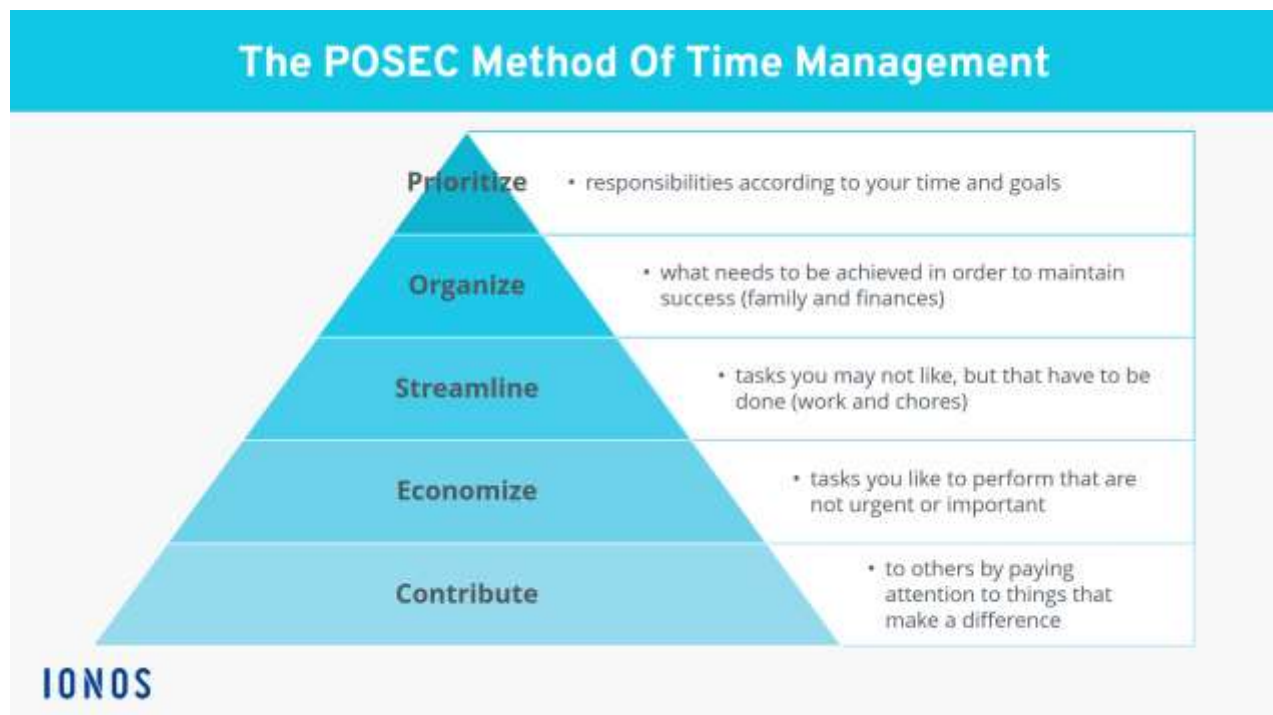
Organizing- things that has be done regularly in order to succeed (finances, security etc.)

Streamline- things you don't like to do but must do (work and chores)

Economize- things that are not urgent but you should do (pastime, recreation etc.)

Contribute- to remaining things that make a difference (social obligations etc.)

Fig. 2 POSEC Model



Source: Ionos.com

5.16.5 ALPEN Method

ALPEN is an acronym from German language.

- A (Aufgaben)- tasks to do
- L (Lange)- length of time
- P (Pufferzeiten)- plan buffer time
- E (Entscheidungen)- establish priorities
- N (Nachkontrolle)- notation

It helps in daily planning as follows:-

A: tasks list

L: time needed for each task

- P: reserve at least 40% buffer time, plan only 60% of the work day
- E: establish priorities (ABC analysis)
- N: record results and accuracy of the plan

Activity 1

At the end of the day note down what distracted you from your goal. It could be anything a phone call, your thoughts, day dreaming, unwanted visitors etc. Do it for a week; identify your distracters and remove them.

Self-Check Exercise 1

Fill in the blanks

1. The most important task is categorized in..... list.
2. The..... principle suggested the time division into 80- 20 ratio.
3. The..... is the hierarchical model of time management.
4. The method that can be used to differentiate between important and less important tasks.....

5.17 TIME MANAGEMENT STYLES

Equipped with different techniques to manage time, next comes the role of time management styles. These are the distinctive features that characterize an individual's personal disposition of managing time.

Six common time management styles are:-

5.17.1. Hopper

This time management style is similar as feeling busy. **Hoppers** are people who tend to work on multiple tasks at once. They switch from one task to another before finishing. They are involved in many different things but isn't usually productive. As those different tasks start to pile up, it can become difficult to stay organized, meet deadlines, and follow through.

A. Advantages

People who follow hopper style of time management like to stay busy and can do several different things at the same time. It's easy for them to switch between tasks.

B. Disadvantages

Multitasking is not a very productive way of working, multi taskers often find it difficult to stay organized, complete specific tasks, and meet deadlines.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- Eliminate distractions while working.
- Focus working on only two or three tasks.
- Use the Pomodoro technique to work in short bursts.

Pomodoro technique is a time management technique developed by Francesco Cirillo in the late 1980s. It involves usage of timer to break down work into intervals, traditionally 25 minutes in length, separated by short breaks. A *pomodoro* is the interval of time spent working with rest of 3 to 5 minutes between consecutive pomodoros. Four pomodoros form a set. A longer (15–30 minute) rest is taken between sets. A goal of the technique is to reduce the impact of internal and external interruptions.

5.17.2 Hyper focus

This style is the opposite of the hopper. People who follows **hyper focus** style of time management instead of constantly moving between tasks gets deeply involved in the task at hand until it's done. This results in producing high-quality work. These people usually feel like they can't make it through their daily to-do list hence, get stressed.

A. Advantages

People often produce high-quality work with meticulous attention to detail.

B. Disadvantages

Focusing on only one task, can lead to failure to meet deadlines and hence, caught stress. It also lack flexibility, as it's challenging for them to move on from one task to another.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- People should set reminders to switch between tasks.

- Track the amount of time allocated to different tasks.
- Use backward planning strategy to make realistic predictions of the time taken to complete tasks.

In recent years, a method known as backwards planning has been receiving a lot of attention. It is a process of beginning from end goal and then works your way backwards to develop a plan of action. It helps you know when you actually need to get started, and also gives you timing points along the way to let you know if you need to adjust your plan in order to get it done when you need to.

An example of backward planning in daily life:

- The meeting is scheduled to be held at 3:00 pm.
- You need to pick up the grocery, which is fifteen minutes from the school.
- It will take around ten minutes in the store, so you need to arrive there at 2:35 pm.
- Before, that you have appointment with doctor at a local clinic, and take half an hour for check-up.
- The clinic is five minutes away from the grocery shop, so you need to arrive there at 2 pm.
- Finally, the clinic is twenty minutes from your house, so you need to leave home at 1:35 pm in order to reach meeting on time.

5.17.3 Cliffhanger

A person with cliffhanger style works best under pressure. Adrenaline rush gets as the clock ticks closer to the deadline moves the person forward. People with such time management style remains calm initially and works day in and out when deadline is closer. This can lead to rushing to finish a project, producing lower-quality work, and elevating your stress levels.

A. Advantages

People with Cliffhanger management style can withstand stressful work conditions and are productive even under pressure.

B. Disadvantages

The work performed under pressure is generally of low quality. People with this style usually tend to procrastinate.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- Schedule earlier dates for the urgent tasks.
- Prioritizing tasks is the way to avoid a last-minute rush.

5.17.4. Big Picture

People with big picture time management have a bird's eye view of the tasks in their to do list. They spend more time in planning over paying attention to the fine details necessary to execute plan. They are the ones who quickly spot smart solutions to problems.

A. Advantages

Since people in this category are quick thinkers and spontaneous problem solvers. They often suggest creative ideas and novel strategies for different problems.

B. Disadvantages

The most significant disadvantage with this style is they often have trouble when it comes to details.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- Collaborating with more detail-focused individuals like the perfectionists can help them achieve a balance.

Activity

Take a jigsaw puzzle and try to solve it without the sample picture in hand. Jot down the difficulties you had in solving the puzzle. The activity helps in identifying benefits of big picture in managing time

5.17.5 Perfectionist

As the name suggests a person with perfectionist time management spends too much time on details and engages in making everything perfect. They may miss a deadline, as they maintain very high standards of work. They are usually too involve in any task hence, feel burdened.

A. Advantages

These people produce very high-quality work.

They are good in prioritizing tasks and saying no to work wherever necessary.

B. Disadvantages

They often miss deadlines in the pursuit of trying to make everything perfect by focusing too much on details.

They usually fail to see with the larger vision.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- Should take on fewer tasks at a time.
- Collaborate with a team member to finish tasks

5.17.6 Impulsive

This style of time management means working without plan. They do not follow the idea of rigidly fixed schedule, setting up a routine or creating a task list. They work well in unexpected spontaneous situations.

A. Advantages

As they are great improvisers, people tend to operate well in the face of unexpected challenges,

B. Disadvantages

The impulsive time manager very often struggles with deadlines and also fails in organizing their day to day work.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

These people should:

- Create schedules, and set reminders of their goals.

- Consider the larger projects, review routines and responsibilities before making a decision.
- Should design a flexible but clear schedule.

5.18 TIPS FOR BETTER TIME MANAGEMENT:-

Set goals correctly- like it should be specific, realistic and relevant.

Priorities wisely- identify the most important and urgent task to do.

Set time limit- set a definite time period for each task and tries to finish it in the set limit.

Take a break- take a small break; freshen your mind up before jumping to another task.

Identify distracters- identify the distracters and remove them.

Use a to do list- it will help in planning the day and saving time for more productive goals.

Change in schedule- change your schedules frequently to avoid boredom and reduce procrastination.

Be strict- if you plan your day ahead, be strict with your schedule.

Self Check Exercise 2

1. What are the various benefits of time management?

.....

2. Describe the Hyperfocus style of time management.

.....

3. What is Eisenhower technique?

.....

5.19 SUMMARY

Stress can be defined as any change that causes physical, emotional, or psychological pressure. Small amounts of stress may be beneficial, as it plays a role in motivation. However,

excessive stress increases the risk of strokes, heart attacks, ulcers, depression and hypertension. There are individual differences in response to a stressful situation. Certain factors that predispose a person to stress are nature of stressor, person's perception and tolerance of stress. Stress can't be avoided but can be managed. Managing stress is all about taking charge of your perceptions, thoughts, environment, emotions and the way in which you respond or react to the situation. You can control your stress levels with relaxation techniques that evoke the body's relaxation response, a state of restfulness that is the opposite of the stress response. Relaxation techniques like breathing exercise, walk, visual imagery and good sleep can make a person more adaptive and resilient.

Time management means making optimal use of the available time to increase productivity. It is the process of organizing and planning tasks and exercising conscious control of the time spent on specific activities to work smarter than harder to get more done in less time. Managing time can be beneficial in number of ways such as it lowers the stress, anxiety and increases productivity. To be successful in both personal and professional front managing time is an essential prerequisite. Different strategies of manage time have their own pros and cons. Be wise while choosing the right strategy for yourself.

5.20 KEYWORDS

Time management: Time management means making optimal use of the available time to increase productivity. It is the process of organizing and planning tasks and exercising conscious control of the time spent on specific activities to work smarter than harder to get more done in less time.

Cyclic Time view: In cyclic time view; it is believed that the time is not wasted because it will always come back later, hence there is an unlimited amount of time we have. It is predominant throughout most countries in Asia, including Japan and China.

Procrastination: Procrastination is the practice of deferring or postponing assignments until the last possible moment or after the deadline has passed. Procrastination is described as a "type of self-regulation failure characterized by the unreasonable delay of tasks despite potentially negative consequences.

Cliff hanger: A person with cliff hanger style works best under pressure. Adrenaline rush gets as the clock ticks closer to the deadline moves the person forward. People with such time management style remains calm initially and works day in and out when deadline is closer.

Pomodoro technique: It is a time management technique developed by Francesco Cirillo in the late 1980s. It involves usage of timer to break down work into intervals, traditionally 25 minutes in length, separated by short breaks.

5.21 MODEL ANSWERS

Self check exercise 1

1. A list
2. Pareto
3. POSEC
4. ABC analysis
5. Time management

Self check exercise 2

1. Benefits of time management

1. Reduces Procrastination

“I will do it later” is an excuse that we all have made at some point of time. The meaning of time management is not just about doing more in less time but also to reduce the urge to procrastinate. Time management lets you control your time. It will help you in focusing at what you want to complete in given time frame. As a result it reduces procrastination.

2. Improves Work-Life Balance

Effective time management results in finishing work early which eventually means having more time for self, personal goals and interpersonal commitments. It also impacts work and productivity in a positive way — the happier you are, the more productive you become.

3. Prevents Burnout

Taking some time off work, boost up mental energy level and avoids the possibility of burnout. It also enables a person to focus better and enhance problem-solving capabilities.

4. Reduces Stress and Anxiety

Overwhelmed with too much on plate can create stress and make oneself feel anxious. This not only hampers productivity but also the overall health. Planning tasks and prioritizing schedule reduces stress.

5. Develops Sense of Responsibility

It is true that time and tide waits for none. Each of us has got twenty four hours a day. Realizing the importance of time develops a sense of responsibility to reap more benefits out of limited resources.

2. Hyper focus Style of Time Management

This style is the opposite of the hopper. People who follows hyperfocus style of time management instead of constantly moving between tasks gets deeply involved in the task at hand

until it's done. This results in producing high-quality work. These people usually feel like they can't make it through their daily to-do list hence, get stressed.

A. Advantages

People often produce high-quality work with meticulous attention to detail.

B. Disadvantages

Focusing on only one task, can lead to failure to meet deadlines and hence, caught stress. It also lack flexibility, as it's challenging for them to move on from one task to another.

C. Tips to Increase Productivity

- People should set reminders to switch between tasks.
- Track the amount of time allocated to different tasks.
- Use backward planning strategy to make realistic predictions of the time taken to complete tasks.

In recent years, a method known as backwards planning has been receiving a lot of attention. It is a process of beginning from end goal and then works your way backwards to develop a plan of action. It helps you know when you actually need to get started, and also gives you timing points along the way to let you know if you need to adjust your plan in order to *get it done* when you need to.

An example of backward planning in daily life:

- The meeting is scheduled to be held at 3:00 pm.
- You need to pick up the grocery, which is fifteen minutes from the school.
- It will take around ten minutes in the store, so you need to arrive there at 2:35 pm.
- Before, that you have appointment with doctor at a local clinic, and take half an hour for checkup.
- The clinic is five minutes away from the grocery shop, so you need to arrive there at 2 pm.
- Finally, the clinic is twenty minutes from your house, so you need to leave home at 1:35 pm in order to reach meeting on time.

3. Eisenhower Method

In Eisenhower principle the tasks are divided into important, unimportant, urgent and not urgent. After division the tasks are placed in quadrant matrix (given below) also known as ‘Eisenhower box’ or ‘Eisenhower Decision Matrix’. The quadrant is filled as follows:-

1st quadrant- important and urgent task (deadlines, crises etc.)

2nd quadrant- important but not urgent task (planning, preparation etc.)

3rd quadrant- not important but urgent (meetings, interruptions etc.)

4th quadrant- neither important nor urgent (pleasant activities, time wasters etc.)

5.22 SUGGESTED READINGS REFERENCES

- Adams, R., & Blair, E. (2019). Impact of Time Management Behaviors on Undergraduate Engineering Students’ Performance. *SAGE Open*, 9(1).
- Britton, B. K., & Tesser, A. (1991). Effects of time-management practices on college grades. *Journal of educational psychology*, 83(3), 405.
- Brodowsky, G. H., Anderson, B. B. & Schuster, C. P. (2008). ‘If time is money is it a common currency? Time in Anglo, Asian and Latin Cultures’, *Journal of Global Marketing*, 21 (4), 245- 57.
- Chowdhury, M. (2013) ‘The ABC model of effective time management’. Online: <https://www.textiletoday.com.bd/the-abc-model-of-effective-time-management/>
- Claessens, B. J., Van Eerde, W., Rutte, C. G., & Roe, R. A. (2007). A review of the time management literature. *Personnel review*.
- Fowler, N. (2012) ‘App of the week: Eisenhower, the to- do list to keep you on task, venture Village’. Online: <http://the-heureka.com/app-of-the-week-eishenhower>
- Jinalee, N. & Singh, A. (2018). A descriptive study of time management models and theories, *International Journal of Advanced Scientific Research and Management*, Volume 3, 141-147.
- Carson, R. C., Butcher, J. N., & Mineka, S. (1999). *Abnormal psychology and modern life*. Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.
- Datar, M. C., Shetty, J. V., & Naphade, N. M. (2017). Stress and coping styles in postgraduate medical students: A medical college-based study. *Indian Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 33(4), 370.
- Rosenman, R. H., Brand, R. J., Sholtz, R. I., & Friedman, M. (1976). Multivariate prediction of coronary heart disease during 8.5 year follow-up in the Western Collaborative Group Study. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 37(6), 903-910.
- Hardy, S. (1998). *Occupational Stress: Personal & Professional Approaches*. United Kingdom: Stanley Thornes Ltd. pp. 18–43.

- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American psychologist*, 46(8), 819.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Alfert, E. (1964). Short-circuiting of threat by experimentally altering cognitive appraisal. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 69(2), 195.
- Pines, E. W., Rauschhuber, M. L., Norgan, G. H., Cook, J. D., Canchola, L., Richardson, C., & Jones, M. E. (2012). Stress resiliency, psychological empowerment and conflict management styles among baccalaureate nursing students. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 68(7), 1482-1493.
- Sapolsky, R. (1990). Stress in the Wild. *Scientific American*, 262(1), 116-123.
- Schultz & Schultz, D. (2010). *Psychology and work today*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wolfgang L., Joseph, W. Lenz, Andrea, H. C. (2001). Individualized Stress Management for Primary Hypertension: A Randomized Trial, *Arch Intern Med*. 161 (8): 1071–1080.
- Seaward, B. L. (2017). *Essentials of Managing Stress*. 4th ed. Sudbury, Mass.: Jones & Bartlett Publishers.
- Seaward, B.L. (2012). *Managing Stress: Principles and Strategies for Health and Well-Being*. 7th ed. Sudbury, Mass.: Jones & Bartlett Publishers.

Web References

- How stress affects your health. American Psychological Association. <http://www.apa.org/helpcenter/stress.aspx>.
- McLeod, S. A. (2009). *Emotion focused coping*. Simply Psychology. <https://www.simplypsychology.org/stress-management.html#em>
- <https://www.healthline.com/health/what-is-jacobson-relaxation-technique#localized-technique>.
- <https://biz30.timedoctor.com/time-management-styles/>
- <http://www.theibisnetwork.com/6-time-management-styles-which-one-describes-the-way-you-work/>
- <https://www.aiuniv.edu/blog/2014/march/time-management-tips-abc-list>

5.23 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. Define stress. How can it be managed effectively?
2. What can be the harmful consequences of stress?
3. Discuss the factors that affect coping.
4. What are the relaxation techniques to reduce stress?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT-6: INTERVIEW SKILLS

STRUCTURE

- 6.0 Objectives**
- 6.1 Introduction**
- 6.2 Definition**
- 6.3 Objective of an Interview**
- 6.4 Interviewer**
 - 6.4.1 Qualities of a Good Interviewer**
- 6.5 Interviewee**
 - 6.5.1 Traits an Interviewee must possess**
- 6.6 Types of Interview**
 - 6.6.1 Behavioral Interview**
 - 6.6.2 Situational Interview**
 - 6.6.3 Stress Interview**
 - 6.6.4 Panel Interview**
 - 6.6.5 One-on-one Interview**
 - 6.6.6 Telephonic Interview**
 - 6.6.7 Video Interview**
 - 6.6.8 Walk-in Interview**
- 6.7 How to Crack an Interview?**
 - 6.7.1 Before the Interview**
 - 6.7.2 During the Interview**
 - 6.7.3 After the Interview**
- 6.8 Additional Tips for Success**
- 6.9 Summary**
- 6.10 Suggested Readings**
- 6.11 List of Important Questions**

6.0 OBJECTIVES

A careful reading of this unit will help you in understanding:

- the meaning, definition, and objective of an Interview,
- the difference between an Interviewer and an Interviewee,
- various interview techniques employed by the recruiters and
- the things an interviewee must keep in mind before, during and after the interview.



6.1 INTRODUCTION- WHAT IS AN INTERVIEW?

An interview can be viewed as a face-to-face verbal exchange between two persons- Interviewer and Interviewee. The interviewer aims to elicit information from the interviewee by asking certain questions. Outwardly, it may seem to be merely a conversation but it has a specific purpose. It is a selection device and is often considered a standardized test of intelligence on the basis of which an individual got employment in an organization. In the interview, the interviewer asks questions not only to assess the knowledge of the interviewee but also to obtain information related to his attitude and qualities. It is a two-way communication process in which one starts the conversation and the other responds. It provides an opportunity to the interviewer to interact with a candidate and to evaluate from his/her experience, skills, knowledge, and behavior the things which cannot be judged merely from the resume. It enables the interviewer to determine whether an interviewee's skills, experience, and personality meet the requirements of the job.

6.2 DEFINITIONS

According to Gary Dessler, -An interview is a procedure designed to obtain information from a person's oral response to oral inquiries.!

According to Thill and Bovee, -An interview is any planned conversation with a specific purpose involving two or more people.

According to Dr. S. M. Amunuzzaman, –Interview is a very systematic method by which a person enters deeply into the life of even a stranger and can bring out needed information and data for the research purpose.!

6.3 OBJECTIVES OF AN INTERVIEW:

The objectives of an interview can vary according to its purpose. The objective of a job interview is to recognize and choose an applicant whose range of abilities and practices match what is required for a specific job and whose character, interests, and qualities match the culture and mission of the association. During the interview, an interviewer tries to find out whether the candidate has the potential to do a certain job effectively and with this motive, a range of questions are asked and those who present themselves differently and effectively get an opportunity to serve. In research, the objective of an interview is to collect the data in order to prove a hypothesis. The collected information can be related to health, nutrition, problems of past and present, future expectations, and so on, depending upon the type of information is required for particular research.

6.4 Interviewer:



An Interviewer is a subject matter expert who aspires to understand the respondent's opinion with the help of a series of questions. The interviewer is the one who recruits the candidate on the basis of his performance. He tries to elicit as much information from the candidate as he can in order to choose the best applicant. The number of interviewers can vary according to the type of the interview.

6.4.1 Qualities of a Good Interviewer:

1. An Interviewer must have complete knowledge about the nature and requirements of the job as the lack of adequate knowledge can be resulted in the selection of the wrong candidate.
2. He or she must have experience and maturity as these two qualities help a person in passing judgment free from biases and based on logic and reason.

3. Proper control of anger, aggression, and arrogance is also an important trait of a successful interviewer. Such an interviewer would not react to any comment made by the candidate.
4. He must be able to communicate in a way the respondent can understand.
5. He must be a good and patient listener. It will help him in doing a better evaluation. Those who talk much often fails to focus on the important points mentioned by the candidates.
6. He must make the candidate comfortable in order to elicit the required information.
7. He must be able to see through the masquerade and focus on the actual points.
8. He must have the ability to identify uniqueness. Every applicant possesses different types of unique traits. A successful interviewer identifies the best combination for a particular job.
9. An extrovert behavior makes an individual friendly, frank and open. This quality of an interviewer can help him in asking any question and in transforming the otherwise formal and stressful interview into just a conversation.
10. An empathetic attitude and stable personality can also work wonders as it will relieve the candidate's anxiety and nervousness.

6.5 Interviewee



A person who applies for a certain position and in order to get that position answers the questions in an interview is called an interviewee. The interviewee is assessed by the interviewer on the basis of his verbal and non-verbal communication skills. He tries his best to impress the recruiter as the recruitment depends upon his performance only. In research, an interviewee can be a person who helps the interviewer by providing him the information he is asking for. The objective of such an interview is not recruitment but the exchange of information.

6.5.1 Traits an Interviewee must Possess:

1. He must have good communication skills so that responses can be articulated in the best manner.
2. He must be a good listener. Interrupting the interviewer shows overconfidence and disrespect. He must listen first and then answers clearly, concisely, and correctly.

3. A candidate who is flexible enough to adapt to the changing conditions is always welcomed by the employer so the willingness to be flexible and an eagerness to be adaptable can prove rewarding.
4. A cooperative individual with an ability to get along with his co-workers is wanted everywhere. The interviewee must demonstrate such traits by giving tangible examples while answering the questions.
5. Positive thinking and confidence are the most important ingredient for a successful Interview. A positive attitude helps in dealing with any kind of problem and an expert interviewer can easily identify the lack of these traits through the actions and posture of the candidate.
6. Transparency and truthfulness are two pillars that enhance the demeanor. The interviewee can let his personality speak for itself by being who he really is.

Check your Progress 1

1. An Interview is a verbal exchange between whom?
2. What is the objective of an interview in research?
3. What are the most important ingredients of an interviewee's personality?

State True or False:

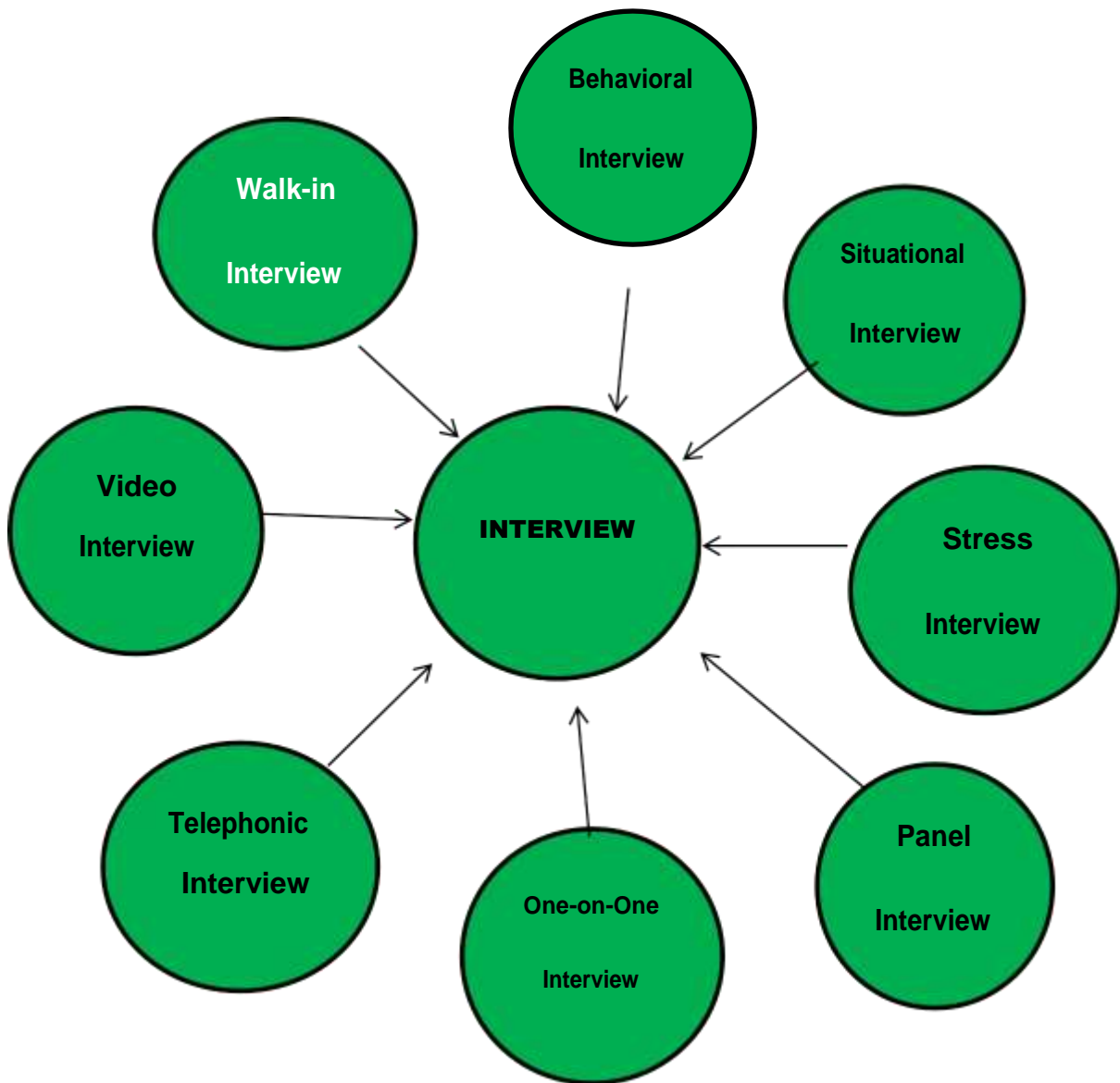
- i) An interviewer need not be a subject expert. _____
- ii) Patient listening is a trait which is common to both an interviewer and an interviewee. _____
- iii) _____ Transparency and truthfulness are superfluous things. _____
- iv) To elicit necessary information is the goal of an interviewer. _____
- v) A person being interviewed is called an interviewer. _____

6.6 TYPES OF INTERVIEW

The interview is a process in which needed information is exchanged verbally in a face-to-face situation between an interviewer and interviewee. It can be classified into **-Structured** and **-Unstructured** interviews. An interview in which everything is properly structured and a particular set of predetermined questions are asked is called a **Structured Interview**. All the candidates are generally asked the same questions which ultimately help in comparing their answers and selecting the suitable candidate. This type of interview is more formal. However, it has some disadvantages as it comprises the risk of the leaking out of questions which means candidates can come prepared beforehand. An **Unstructured Interview**, on the other hand, does not follow any predetermined pattern; questions are not decided beforehand rather an interviewer asks the questions that come to his/her mind on the spot. This type of interview is generally informal, open-minded, and friendly. It helps in reducing the stress among the candidates but it

contains the possibility to wander off the subject and may take more time than a structured interview.

There are various techniques by which suitable candidates can be selected. Most of these techniques fall under the categories of Structured Interviews.



6.6.1 Behavioral Interview

A kind of structured interview in which questions are generally pre-designed to probe the interviewee's past behavior in specific situations. The interviewees are judged on the basis of their past behavior in certain situations that may emerge even in the future. In behavioral

interviews, questions are pointed, probing, and specific, and candidates are asked to provide specific examples from their past experiences, demonstrating their behavior, knowledge, skills, and abilities how they dealt with certain issues. The interviewee's answers to such questions reveal their actual level of experience and potential to handle similar situations in the future. The questions in behavioral interviews are often structured using the STAR (Situation, Task, Action, Results) model. For example: What was the situation that the candidate faced? Which task he had to accomplish? What were the actions taken by the candidate? And what were the results of the action taken by him?

6.6.2 Situational Interview

Situational interviews are conducted in order to judge the candidate's behavior or response in a particular situation. A hypothetical situation is given to the interviewees and they have to describe how they would react under those situations. The difference between a situational interview and a behavioral interview is that in a behavioral interview the focus is on the past action or experience of the candidate while in the situational interview one has to answer by putting oneself in an imaginary situation. Most of the questions in such interviews are related to problem-solving. Such questions often make the candidates nervous as anticipation is harder and they go off-topic, so it is important for the interviewee not to ramble and to demonstrate his qualities like the presence of mind, confidence, instinct, and patience as these type of interviews are aimed at judging these qualities only. These questions have the potential to make the candidate drop his interview script or ready-made material and think on his own.

6.6.3 Stress Interview

An interview in which the interviewer tries to make the interviewee uncomfortable by asking him certain questions rudely in order to judge his stress tolerance is called a Stress interview. Anxiety or stress is intentionally created in such interviews to determine how an interviewee will respond to stress on the job. The interviewee's response under stress determines his ability to handle situations. The interviewee is made to feel that he is not wanted for a certain position as he seems to be incompetent. A few brainteaser questions are also asked which actually have no correct answers. The interviewee needs to keep calm while answering such questions. He must always stop and breathe and can also ask the interviewer to repeat the question as it may provide him time to regain composure. Stress interviews can be controversial as they may create a rift between the interviewer and interviewee and the most suitable candidate may turn down the offer due to the nature of the interview. This interview technique is common among those industries where the employees have to deal with a high-pressure work environment like sales, law enforcement, intelligence, and airline employees.

6.6.4 Panel Interview

An interview which is conducted by a team of interviewers is called a panel or board interview. In other words, such an interview comprises one interviewee and several interviewers. The panel typically consists of two to five people who interview each candidate and then finally combines their scores and thus a candidate with the highest rating is selected. In such interviews, the panelists or experts are free to ask follow-up or probing questions. The advantage of a panel interview is that the involvement of multiple assessors increases the accuracy of assessing a candidate and reduces the risk of biasedness. The panel generally consists of the various representatives of the organizations who evaluate the candidate from varied perspectives and mark their scores on an evaluation sheet for each section which ultimately helps them in reaching consensus. While facing a panel interview, the interviewee must make eye contact with everyone. Having prior knowledge about the background of the interviewers can also help a great deal as it would give a fair idea of the type of questions they may ask.

6.6.5 One-on-one Interview

In a one-on-one interview, as its name shows, only one interviewer meets one interviewee. As the same interviewer interviews other candidates too, the knowledge, skills, qualities, nature, and behavior are usually compared to other candidates and in the end, the best one is chosen. Since only one interviewer is present, an interviewee has the opportunity to build a rapport more easily. He need not change his focus and can impress the interviewer with his verbal and non-verbal communication skills. It also provides an opportunity to the interviewer to probe deeply the attitude, beliefs, desires, expectations, and experiences of the interviewees. The interviewer can be flexible too as he can change the type of questions according to his own discretion. It has some disadvantages as it's a little time-consuming, a trained interviewer is needed and as a single interviewer is there, his decision can be biased.

6.6.6 Telephonic Interview

When a candidate is being interviewed on a phone call is called a telephonic interview. The advantage of being interviewed in this manner is that one can easily refer to some key points jointed out by him and the major disadvantage is non-verbal cues cannot be conveyed or received. Thus, even the slightest high tone of voice can be taken as a sign of arrogance. This interview technique is sometimes used by the companies to screen candidates so that only the selected ones can be invited for an in-person interview. While scheduling a telephonic interview, the interviewer and interviewee must select a time comfortable to both of them and a quiet space without any distractions must be chosen. A telephonic interview is equally professional so the interviewee must take care of his answers, tone of voice, and pauses. Listening plays a major part in such type of interview. One cannot indulge in subsequent reading or note-taking as the important part of the question can be missed. In Telephonic interviews verbal communication

skills can be better judged as all the focus of the interviewer is on the choice of words only as visual clues are absent in it.

6.6.7 Video Interview

In this type of interview, candidates are interviewed virtually using video software such as Zoom, Skype, Hangouts, Face Time, etc. Just like a telephonic interview, a video interview is also preferred in the early stages of hiring in order to screen a number of candidates quickly. This type of interview is also feasible when the interviewer and interviewee belong to distant places. Both interviewer and interviewee must possess basic video interview equipment like a computer with a built-in microphone, camera, and speakers or a laptop, an internet connection with good bandwidth speed, headphones, and a quiet, well-lit place. Dressing up formally, sitting in a good posture, nodding, smiling, eye contact, and other gestures are equally important in a video interview as they are in an in-person interview. One needs to be even more careful in a video interview because letting one's gaze drift away and fidgeting may give the impression that one is referring to some notes. Technology is something on which one cannot rely completely; practicing beforehand can help in reducing anxiety or stress

6.6.8 Walk-in-Interview

A comparatively recent type of interview in which the interviewee need not apply for a certain position beforehand and directly walk in on the day of the interview as advertised by an organization. This type of interview is also called an open interview as no short listing is done beforehand and anyone interested in applying can come for the interview. These types of interviews are generally spontaneous and unplanned. Organizations prefer this type of interview when there are lots of positions to fill, instead of going through stacks of formal applications or resumes for screening they simply announce a mass interview day, where recruiters can meet the candidates face to face and make their decisions quickly and effectively. Walk-in or open interviews are generally shorter and less formal due to a large number of candidates. Since the interviewees have less time to prepare for such interviews, they should research the company, its policies, vision, and mission. However, the candidates need not apply for these types of interviews even then they must possess all the important documents as proof of their qualification and technical skills because after the selection they can be asked to show the documents. The interviewees need to keep their resumes updated for such types of interview.

Check Your Progress 2

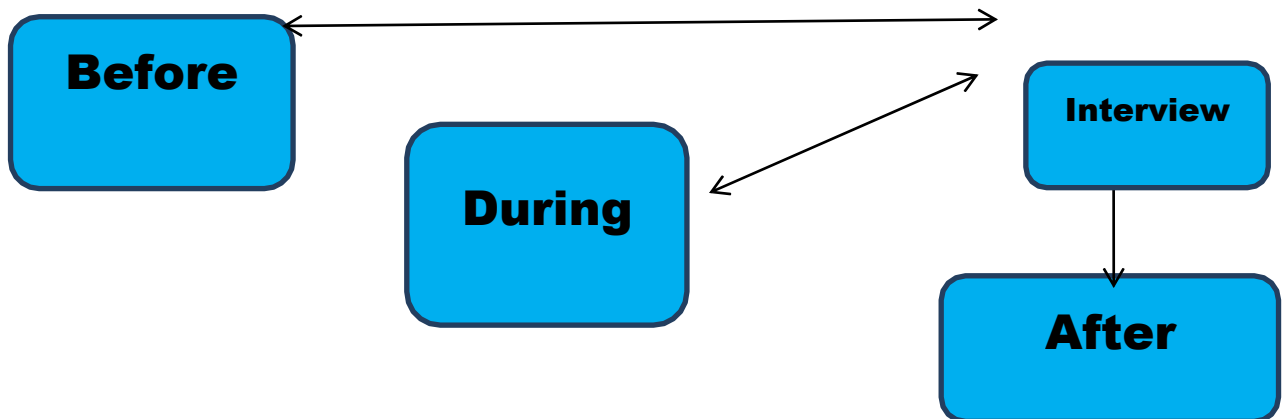
- 1) What is the difference between a Structured and an Unstructured Interview?
- 2) What is the difference between a Behavioral Interview and a Situational Interview?
- 3) Describe a Walk-in-Interview?

Fill in the blanks.

- a) A _____ situation is given to an interviewee in a situational interview.
- b) The questions in a Behavioral Interview are structured using _____ model.
- c) Stress Interviews can create _____.
- d) A Panel Interview is also called a _____ Interview.
- e) _____ interviews are generally spontaneous and unplanned.

6.7 HOW TO CRACK AN INTERVIEW?

As it is stated earlier an interview is a communication between an interviewer and an interviewee in which an interviewee is assessed by the interviewer from varied perspectives. An interview is not merely a test of the knowledge of the candidate rather it is an art in which non-verbal expressions play an equal part. There are certain things that an interviewee must keep in mind before, during, and after the interview



6.7.1 Before the Interview:

1. The Interviewee must know everything about the company or institution in which he is appearing for the interview- the policies of that company, ongoing projects, future plans, and goals.
2. Generating a list of probable questions and revising them will also prove helpful.
3. The candidate must know everything about his/her CV including the strengths and weaknesses. Before walking into the interview room one must have a fair idea of his likes, dislikes, and goals.
4. Punctuality is an important trait of an individual's personality. One must reach the interview venue well before time. It also helps in boosting the confidence level.
5. Even a full dress rehearsal can also prove beneficial as being comfortable in the clothes one wears adds to the confidence level.
6. One must know the route to the interview venue, it will help in reducing the stress.

7. Turning off or putting one's cell phone on silent mode before the interview is also a good practice.

6.7.2 During the Interview:

1. The interviewee must be on time on the day of the interview and should sit down only when asked to do so.
2. Answering the questions with a proper beginning, middle, and end and providing tangible examples is the best way. It becomes possible only when the interviewee would be focused.
3. Authenticity and honesty are the best traits of an individual's personality. An interviewee must never try to manipulate things. An honest candidate is always preferred. Interviewers can easily discover the misrepresentations so the best way to save oneself from misery and humiliation is to be authentic and honest.
4. **Body language** comprises all non-verbal expressions such as eye contact, eye movements, posture, facial and hand expressions, coupled with good communication skills they can lead to great efficacy. During the interview, an interviewee's body movements should be restricted. Unnecessary body movements such as waving hands continuously, changing postures too often, jerking head and shoulders, shaking legs, and so on make an adverse impression on the interviewer. Not only these, opening or closing the door with thunder, dragging the chair, and sitting without permission also speaks volumes about a person. Maintaining eye contact while answering the questions shows confidence and builds trust in whatever the interviewee is saying. Sitting straight and attentive with one's shoulders back and feet firmly placed on the ground without being stiff, changing posture stealthily, smiling, nodding, and showing confidence can attract the interviewer's attention. Good body language is just an aiding device, what counts most are the words spoken by a candidate being interviewed.
5. After Body language, the other important tool in the hands of the interviewee is the **modulation of voice and speech pattern. Volume, tone, pitch, and speed** play an important role in the expression and an interview is a verbal-oriented test to judge the ability of a candidate to express freely, eloquently, and impressively. A proper modulation of these four (volume, tone, pitch, and speed) can help an interviewee to hold the attention of his interviewers.
6. The interviewee's voice must be clearly audible to everyone present depending upon the distance between him and the interviewers. He can make his tone higher or lower for effect and emphasis because a monotone signifies indifference and disinterestedness. The pitch of the voice can be significantly used in giving dramatic effect to the entire communication. A candidate can effectively use the pitch of his voice to indicate to the interviewer that he has not finished yet and can give free flow to his ideas, otherwise the interviewer interrupts a candidate and start another question.

7. Speed of speech is also important. Some people speak faster and some take so many pauses while speaking, these acts create a distraction. An interviewee must know how to speak at varying speeds depending upon the situation. Speaking steadily so that the communication can be heard and understood is always better. During the interview, if a candidate makes a long statement about anything, he must summarize that in the end to make his point clear.
8. Another noticeable point while speaking is the way a candidate controls his breathing. It will be a little irritating to the interviewer if a candidate gushes out the wind with a great force. Constant and slow breathing is generally not noticed which can be easily done while speaking short sentences. Keeping the breath under control and releasing stress and nervousness at the same time is important for the candidate.
9. **The halo effect**- the immediate ‘gut reaction’ for a person or the –positive first impression is called the halo effect. The interviewee can create this halo effect from the moment he enters the interview room and if he creates that effect particularly through non-verbal skills, the interviewers usually ignore or minimize every evidence that contradicts that first impression.
10. Talking too quickly, digressing from the points, using slang and not knowing the meaning of certain words mar the impression so an interviewee must be careful while speaking.
11. The interviewee must not be too defensive if the interviewer points out some of his weaknesses. Being arrogant or defensive marks intolerance. He must admit that and show a willingness to improve those in the future.
12. Looking for something in common and mentioning the same before the interviewer can also make a difference.

6.7.3 After the Interview:

1. The interviewee must get the contact information of the organization in order to keep himself from staying in the dark.
2. Assessing one’s performance critically is also good training. It helps in identifying the weaknesses and can prove beneficial for future interviews.
3. Writing down the important points one remembers about the interview is also a good practice.
4. A note of gratitude to the employer who took the time to assess is also a fine gesture within twenty-four hours of the interview.
5. Establishing connection with the interviewers on social or business sites is also a good step, it would help them in learning about the candidate. Even if he didn’t join their organization it would open a window for future opportunities.

Check your Progress 3

1. List the things an interviewee must do before the interview?
2. How important are non-verbal expressions during an interview?
3. What is the most important step after the interview?
4. What is the halo effect?
5. A proper dress rehearsal before the interview is very important. Give your opinion.

State True or False:

- 1) A candidate need not know everything written in his CV. _____
- 2) An interviewee should not say everything truthfully as nobody would get to know. _____
- 3) _____ Non-verbal expressions are as important as verbal skills. _____
- 4) An interview must keep a monotone throughout the interview. _____
- 5) Self- evaluation is important. _____

Activity

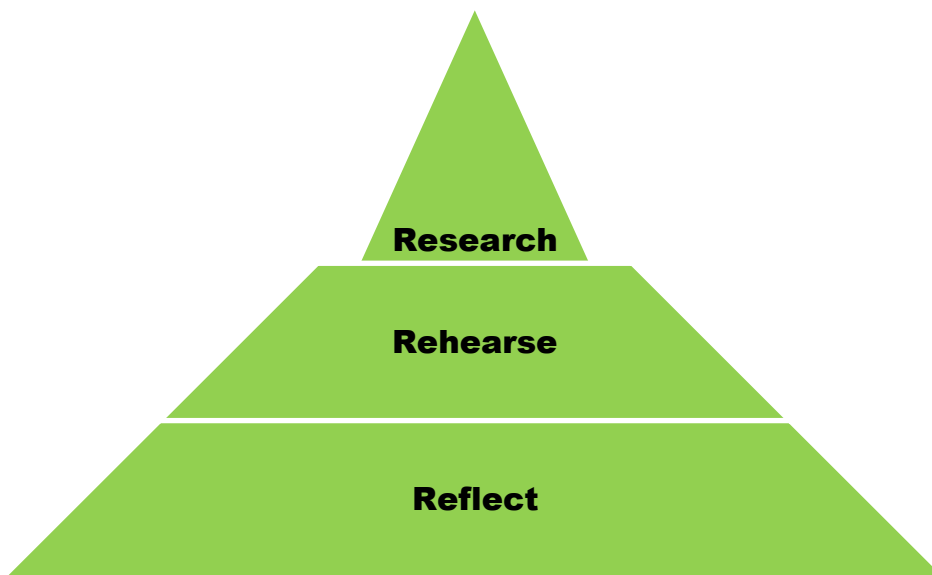
- A mock interview can be conducted with friends in whom one person can be an interviewer and another interviewee.

These questions can be practiced in that:

- What is your biggest accomplishment to date?
- Why do you want to work here?
- Where do you see yourself in five years?
- Why should we hire you?
- Tell me about a time you demonstrated leadership skills?
- Do you consider yourself successful?
- What's your dream job?
- What can you do for us that other candidate's can't?
- What are the three positive things about you?
- What salary are you seeking?

ADDITIONAL TIPS FOR SUCCESS

The interview is a process of exchanging information. Preparation, practice, and self-evaluation are keys to a successful interview. Required research, rehearsal of the same, and final reflection during the interview are necessary steps for a positive and successful interviewing experience.



1. Preparing oneself well by having all the necessary information about the organization as well as one's own self is the key to success. One must not look into the copy of the resume when asked to explain anything. One must be clear about each and everything that is written in his CV.
2. As it is said that -The first impression is the last impression,|| try to make that impression lasting as one can never get a second chance. That impression can be made with the help of one's dressing, body language, posture, and confidence.
3. Positivity is another key to success. One must never mention anything negative related to the previous employers and focus on positive achievements. It adds charm to one's personality. Steering away from negative descriptions and mentioning lessons learned, skills developed and relevant experiences make a significant impression on the interviewer.
4. Eye contact is the most important aspect of nonverbal communication; it can make a significant impression on the prospective employer during the interview and symbolizes confidence and truthfulness of the candidate.
5. Self-evaluation is important and during self-evaluation, one must try to find out one's strengths, weaknesses, skills that one wants to improve, priorities, expectations, and future goals.
6. Giving specific rather than general examples also demonstrates that one has the ability to perform one's job well.
7. A flexible, adaptive, responsible, progressive, creative, active, decisive, and cooperative candidate is always preferred. Demonstrating these qualities can be helpful.

6.8 SUMMARY

Interview skills actually comprise the art of selling oneself well. One who knows this art and presents oneself efficiently and effectively can easily excel in this and those who do not know can be successful by preparing and practicing. During an interview, the interviewer tries to secure the maximum amount of information from the candidate by asking him certain questions and at the same time keenly observing the behavior, body language, manners, appearance, etc. Different types of interview techniques are adopted by different employers based on the nature of the job and requirements. A truthful, flexible, seeker of knowledge, adaptive, patient, good communicator, and well-informed candidate can easily excel in this.

6.9 SUGGESTED READING:

- Higgins, Jessica. *10 Skills for Effective Business Communication*. Paperback, 2018.
- Joshi, Manmohan. *Soft Skills*. Bookboon, 2017.
- Mitra, Barun. *Personality Development and Soft Skills*. Oxford University Press, 2012.
- Setch, Fiona. *The Art of Interview Skills*. Bookboon, 2014.
- Storey, James. *The Art of the Interview*. Paperback, 2016.

6.10 LIST OF IMPORTANT QUESTIONS

- What is an Interview?
- List the Qualities of a good interviewer and an interviewee.
- Describe the different types of Interviews.
- What is the difference between a Behavioral and a Situational Interview?
- What is the difference between a Panel interview and a one-on-one Interview?
- What are the basic necessities for a Video Interview?
- Differentiate between a Structured and Unstructured Interview.
- What are the things that a candidate must keep in mind before, during, and after the interview?
- Describe the importance of non-verbal elements in an Interview.
- How can one excel in an interview?

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT 7: PRESENTATION SKILLS

STRUCTURE

7.0 Objectives

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Effective Presentation Strategy: 4 -Ps for Effective Presentations

7.3 Plan your presentation

7.3 Define the purpose

7.3.2 Analyse the audience and Locale

7.4 Prepare your presentation

7.4.1 Organising the content

7.4.2 Use of Audio-Visual Aids

7.5 Practice is the key

7.6 Perform and Win the day

7.6.1 Choosing Appropriate Delivery Method

7.7 Handling Stage Fright

7.8 The Power of Body Language

7.9 Presentation Matrix

7.10 Let's sum up

7.11 Further Readings

7.12 Answers to Check your Progress

7.0 OBJECTIVES:

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

1. Describe the importance of presentation skills.
2. Explain and follow different pre-presentation planning and preparation steps.

3. Organize your presentation using appropriate Introduction, visual aids and memorable conclusion.
4. Present your ideas effectively by handling stage fright and using dynamic movement and gestures.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Great Speakers aren't born, they are trained.

Dale Carnegie.

Presentation skills have become one of the most sought-after skills in the contemporary era. Emerging as the most important tool of business, academic and professional interaction, they are being acquired at a fast pace in order to excel in one's career. Whether you are a student, or you work in an educational institution or a business organisation or run your own enterprise, you may be required to present your ideas in innumerable situations. For example: at a seminar, in a conference, in a business meeting, at a job interview or while sharing the annual reports and so forth. Though these situations differ in purpose, the strategies you need to make presentations do not differ much. All of them call for effective, memorable speeches without being faltered. Even school students these days, in an attempt to be prepared for their upcoming opportunities, are trained to present their views on scores of subjects in front of their class or may be entire school on some occasions.

7.2 EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION STRATEGY: 4-PS FOR EFFECTIVE PRESENTATIONS

The four key steps to remember before you set off on a journey to present on a topic are:

- Planning
- Preparation
- Practice
- Performance/Presentation



Master these steps to stand out among others. People assigned with the task to make speeches, give presentations or elevator talks often become flummoxed. Most of the times they don't know what to talk about, or ramble without making a point, or simply sound confusing to listen to. Following these four steps will make you shine where others falter. You'll learn how to organize your presentations clearly, write them memorably, and deliver them confidently. Here we go with step no.1

7.3: PLAN YOUR PRESENTATION:

Planning is the most essential ingredient of an effective presentation. Presentation is generally given in a formal situation that demands the sharing of information in a precise yet persuasive manner. Hence, planning is the first step to a well-structured and systematic presentation of a message to an audience. It involves

- Identification of the purpose of the presentation
- Analysis of the audience



7.3.1 : Purpose: Why do I need to give this presentation? What purpose will it fulfil? Planning starts with the answers to these questions. It is important for a presenter to identify the general purpose and the specific purpose in order to make a focused presentation with clear objectives.

Usually general purposes may include:

- To persuade: to convince some one
- To educate: to share information
- To demonstrate: to make audience understand how to do something

Besides identification of general purpose, it is imperative to state a specific objective in order to meet the expectations, knowledge, needs and interests of the audience. Study the following examples:

- Informative presentation: My presentation will enable the audience to describe three advantages of using web 2.0 tools like blogs and wikis in the classroom.
- Persuasive presentation: My presentation will make the audience believe that the use of web 2.0 tools like blogs and wikis is better than using mere chalk and paper in the classroom.
- Demonstrative presentation: My presentation will enable them to make use of web 2.0 tools like blogs and wikis themselves for their students.

7.3.2 Analyse the Audience and Locale:

Grabbing the attention of the audience is the most important factor in conveying your message. Hence, before preparing your script it is wise to identify audience characteristics, to

analyse their needs and expectations. The nature of the audience has the direct impact on the strategy you devise for your presentation

An international professional speaker, Lenny Laskowski uses the word AUDIENCE as an acronym and suggests to make the analysis accordingly will always lead to the successful achievement of the aim of your presentation:

- **A_audience-** Who are the members? How many will be at the event?
- **U_understanding-** What is their level of knowledge about the topic I am going to address?
- **D_emographics-** What is their age, gender, educational background etc?
- **I_nterests-** Why do they want to attend the event?
- **E_nvironment-** How will be the seating arrangement? Where will I stand and speak? Will I be clearly visible and audible to all?
- **N_eeds-** What are the listener's needs? What are my needs as a speaker?
- **C_ustomised-** How can I custom fit my message to this audience?
- **E_xpectations-** What do listeners expect to learn from me?

By finding answers to the above given questions, the presenter can deal with the topic from the perspective of the audience. The message can remain the same yet the appealing way to communicate can be chosen to make it more focused and audience-oriented.

In addition to the overall understanding of the audience, it is equally important to find out about the locale as well. Every location has its unique physical environment. You may be asked to present in a big hall, large auditorium or a small conference room can be the venue too. Arriving in time at the venue to assess the event location yourself can be of great help as you can either ask for alternative arrangements or modify your materials, visual aids and style to suit the environment.

7.4 PREPARE YOUR PRESENTATION

-Today's preparation determines tomorrow's achievements.¶

-Anonymous

Once the planning stage is over, it is time to begin preparing for it. Preparation involves giving a suitable title to the presentation, developing the central idea and the main points, thereafter gathering some relevant information in the forms of facts and figures to support your ideas.

7.4.1 Organising Content

Wondering how to organize a presentation to persuade the audience? Use this approach to know how to start a speech, how to end a speech powerfully, and create maximum engagement in between! Follow the thumb rule of 3 Ts:

Tell the audience what you are going to tell.

Tell it.

Tell them what you have told.

Hence, to achieve this purpose, divide your presentation into three distinct parts: the introduction, body and conclusion.

Organising Content	Key Functions
Introduction	Primarily serves five purposes: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Get the audience's attention by using startling statement/short story/question/ quotation or humour 2. Introduce the subject 3. Give the audience a reason to listen 4. Establish the rapport 5. Preview the main ideas
Body	Any of the following organizational patterns may be used: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chronological 2. Categorical 3. Cause and Effect

	4. Problem-solution
Conclusion	<p>The conclusion of the presentation should accomplish the following four specific objectives:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Summarize the presentation 2. Reemphasise the central Idea 3. Motivate the audience to respond 4. Provide Closure

7.4.2. Use of Audio-Visual Aids

Spoken words are like bubbles as soon as they come out of our mouth they vanish in the air. Owing to this limitation, presentations often need strong visual support-handouts, chalk boards, flip charts, computer generated presentations, etc. If an audio-visual aid being used is simple, clear and appropriate to its purpose, it will deliver its message more accurately and quickly than a mere verbal explanation.

The importance of Audio-Visual Aids

- Increase Audience Interest
- serve as Speech Notes
- Help listeners retain information
- Illustrate key points
- Give Confidence
- help Focus on the theme of the presentation
- Give clarity and Precision

Audio-Visual aids used in Presentations. Any of the following types of visual aids may be used:

Types of Audio-Visual Aids	
Objects	Power point Presentations
Models	Charts
Photographs	Maps

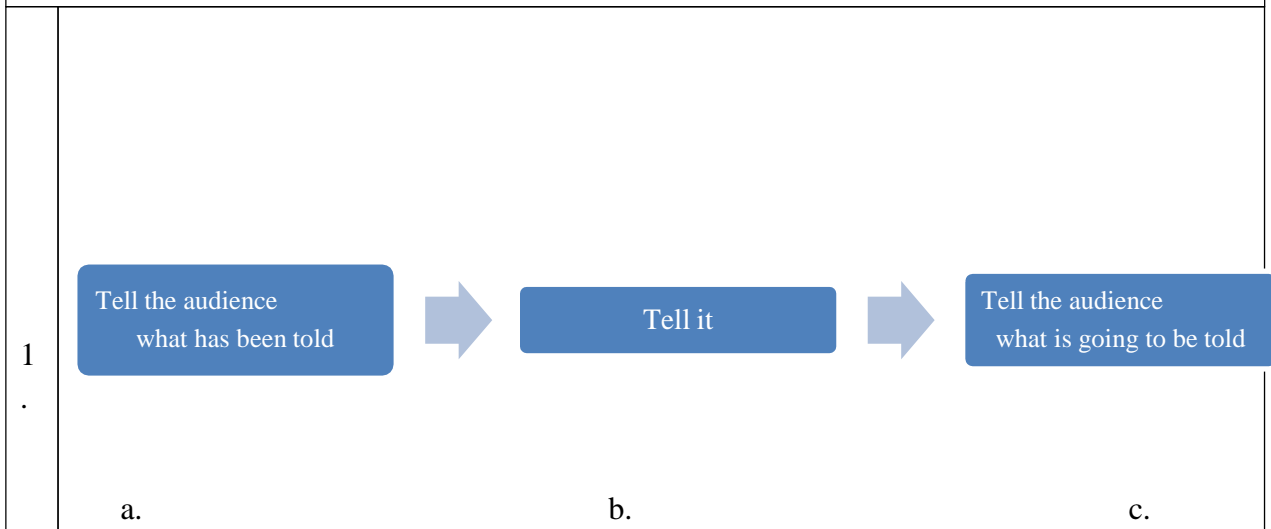
Graphs	Chalkboards
Overhead Transparencies	Audio/Video Clips

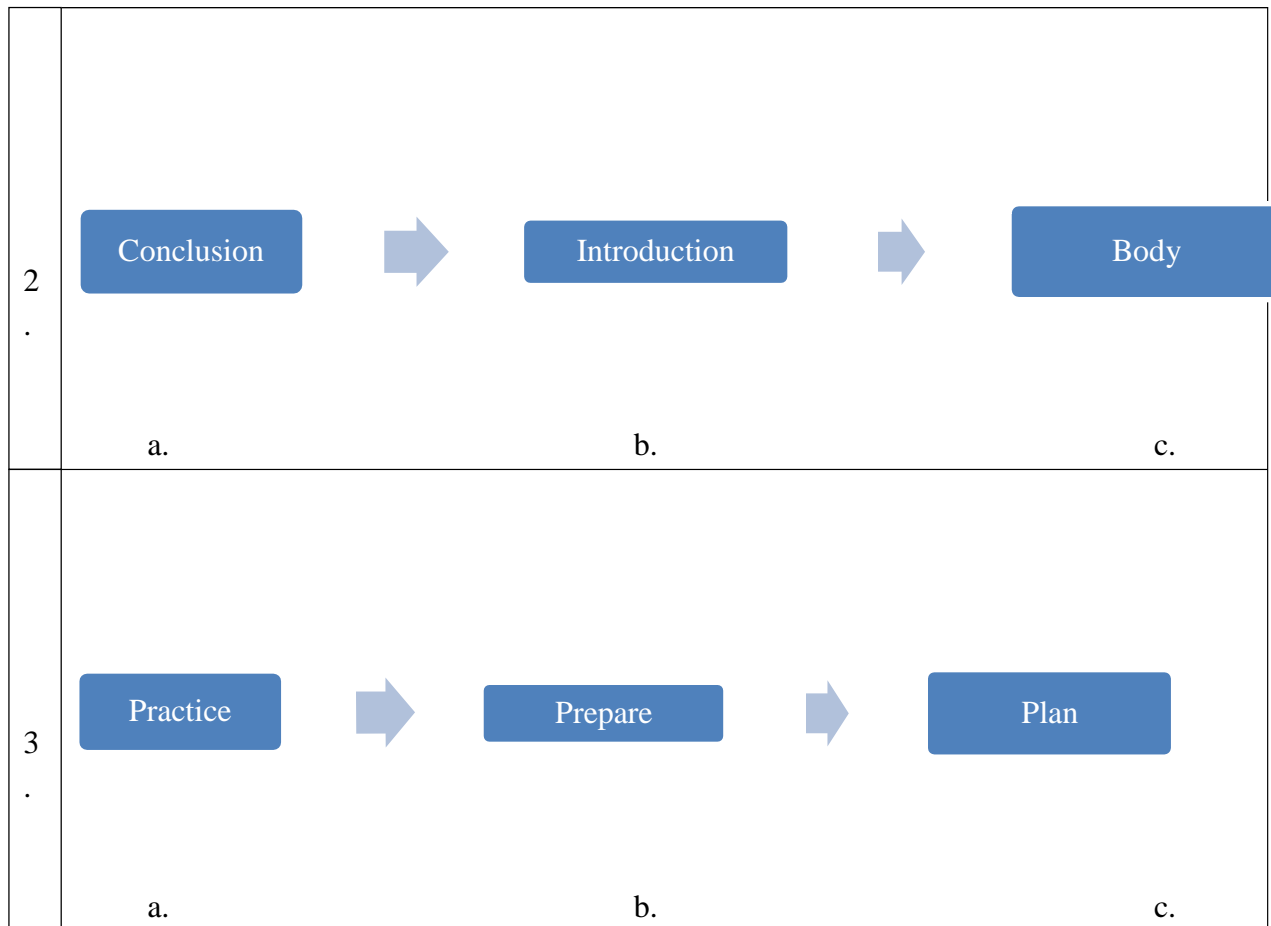
Guidelines to make effective use of audio- visual aids

1. Relevant visual aids must be chosen and fit them into the plan.
2. The presenter must be familiar with the visual aids being used and rehearse presentation using the same.
3. Eye contact should be thoroughly maintained. Talk to the audience not to the visual aids. Look at them only when the audience should look at them.
4. Handouts may be distributed that is presentation abstracts, summaries brochures, pamphlets, outlines and so on in order to complement the presentation.
5. Be familiar with the basic operations of the electronic devices which you would use for your presentations.
6. Use enough visual aids to make your points clear but don't overdo it.
7. Avoid blocking the listeners view of the visual aids. Make sure that podiums, charts, pillars and such don't block anyone's view.
8. The presenter must take care not to stand in anyone's line of vision.

Check your Progress-1

Correct the following flow diagrams:





7.5 PRACTICE IS THE KEY

As a common adage goes, –Practice makes a person perfect, it is pertinent to rehearse the presentation several times. It not only gives enough confidence to the speaker but also enhances one’s command on the subject. It helps in dealing with the discussions and answering of the questions in a much better way. Rehearsals should be planned and conducted properly and systematically. Practice helps the presenter:

- To deal with speech anxiety effectively.
- To develop the confidence

The following suggestions may help in achieving the desired results:

1. **Plan the rehearsal** well in advance before the actual presentation so that you have enough time to make the required modifications.

2. **Rehearse before a live audience** in order to get feedback, comments and suggestions needed to improve your presentation. Classmates, friends, colleagues or roommates can make up the audience.
3. **Timing during practice** is another important factor to be taken care of. Appropriate rate of speech can infuse new life to your presentation. Although the rate of delivering the presentation depends on the communicative situation, delivery technique and style of speaking, a rate that varies between 120 to 180 words per minute is generally considered to be ideal.
4. **The Power of pauses** during the presentation cannot be overlooked. Though simple yet one of the most versatile tools, pauses holds the significance to make or mar your presentation. A pause, if used correctly, can be used to add emphasis to key points and indicate a change in tone or topic.



7.6 PERFORM AND CARRY THE DAY

Once the presentation is well planned, prepared and practised enough, then comes the time of delivering the presentation. But wait! before we proceed, let's understand the nuances of delivery. Your manner of presentation actually decides the fate of your presentation. So, be careful while choosing method of delivery for your presentation. If you want to hold the attention and interest of the audience, then choose the appropriate delivery method:

7.6.1 Methods of Presentation Delivery

Method of Delivery	Key features	Disadvantages
Memorising Method	<p>Entire presentation is to be learnt by heart.</p> <p>Eye-contact can be maintained throughout the presentation.</p> <p>Possible to finish the speech on allotted time.</p>	<p>Memorization requires too much of time.</p> <p>Forgetting even a single word may prevent you from completing the presentation.</p> <p>May not sound spontaneous and natural.</p> <p>May not be able to involve the audience in the presentation</p>
Reading Method	<p>Delivered by reading from the manuscript.</p> <p>Useful while presenting a technical paper or report that may contain complex technical information for statistical data.</p> <p>Helps control nervousness</p> <p>Gives the speaker confidence.</p>	<p>Less eye-contact with the audience.</p> <p>Limited conversational tone and voice inflection</p> <p>May not sound spontaneous and natural.</p>
Outlining Method	<p>Note cards are used to write the key words and phrases.</p> <p>Most popular and effective method</p> <p>Demands full preparation and practice</p> <p>Chance to establish good rapport with the audience through eye-contact and gestures</p> <p>Enables one to move freely and with ease.</p>	<p>May feel uncomfortable if preparation is inadequate.</p> <p>Relying too much on Note cards can make your speech monotonous.</p>

Among the above discussed modes of delivery, outlining method is the best because of its flexible nature and its effectiveness. Hence it is always better to use this method to make your presentation lively, effective and memorable.

7.7 HANDLING STAGE FRIGHT

-The mind is a wonderful thing. It starts working the minute you are born and never stops until you get up to speak in public. - **Roscoe Drummond**

Stage Fright or fear of speaking on stage generally arises when a person is required to perform in front of an audience. Some degree of Stage Fright is quite normal. In fact, seasoned speakers experience butterflies in their stomachs when they mount the stage. Do you know?

- You feel more nervous than you appear
- The more you think that you are nervous, the more nervous you will feel.
- Your audience cannot easily detect your stage fright

But why does nervousness try to dominate us? What are the reasons behind it?

Top 5 Reasons to Have Stage Fright

1. Self-consciousness in front of large groups.

The most common reason to have performance anxiety is to present before a large audience. The best way to deal with this kind of obstacle is to remember that the people in a big audience are the same ones you talk to often individually, and thorough preparation of the subject can give you enough confidence to put your views across.

2. Fear of appearing nervous. Most of the people experience nervousness in such type of situations. However, the secret is known only to your heart and not to others. So, try to keep yourself composed by putting a smile on your face and taking deep breaths.

3. Inadequate preparation. Don't blame others but yourself if you haven't done your homework (including knowing your audience). Nothing undermines public speaking confidence like being unprepared. However, nothing gives you as much confidence as being ready. Hence choice is yours!

4. Poor breathing habits. Only the trained actors or singers have the knack of breathing for speech, others probably are unaware of the innumerable benefits of deep breathing. Public speaking requires more air than "vegetative breathing", hence it is important to master this yoga technique. Deep breathing not only calms your galloping heart but also helps you to control your exhalation to sustain sound through the end of your speech.

5. **Comparing yourself to others.** Don't be judgemental! Believe in yourself and your abilities. You have a unique identity in the universe. It is good to be motivated from others but do not lose your own self in a bid to compare yourself with others.

Tips to Overcome Nervousness:

When nervousness is in top gear, some physiological changes take place in our bodies like dryness of the mouth, sweating of palms, racing of heartbeat etc which further enhance our anxiety and lead to the stage fright. However, by following the given strategies, one can easily win over the nervousness and become a confident presenter:

1 **Focus on the three Ps: planning preparation and practice:** As already mentioned, presentations should be well planned, thoroughly prepared and rehearsed repeatedly. Knowing the purpose, analysis of the audience and occasion helps in reducing speech anxiety. Effective preparation familiarises the speaker with his or her message and reduces stage fear. Well-organised content which is practised enough gives the speaker confidence to control the stage fear before and during the presentation.

2. **Avoid negative thoughts:** It is important to remain positive by having faith in yourself and your abilities. Do not entertain negative thoughts that may sneak in before your presentation to make you more anxious. Hence, avoid thoughts such as -I am going to fail, -I can't speak my topic, -I am not well prepared, -Audience may not like me and my ideas, -I am not fluent, I may not be able to handle the discussion well and so on. Instead positive self-talk such as -I really know this presentation and believe in what I am saying, -the topic of my presentation is very interesting, -I am well prepared and confident will boost your confidence and level of energy.

3. **Begin the presentation with a smile and positive body language:** It is common to have feelings of nervousness and excitement at the beginning of the presentations. This can be controlled by taking a few moments to make yourself feel comfortable. Do not be in a hurry to start rather try to establish rapport with the audience by maintaining eye contact with them, by having a smile on your face and by maintain good posture. Place your note cards confidently yet calmly on the podium and then begin your presentation.

4. **Speak at the right place:** Do not ever do the blunder to rush through your speech. It is quite common for speakers to naturally enhance the rate of speech while presenting themselves before the audience in order to finish their turn. But practice enough to cultivate your pace so as to fit in the reasonable limit of 120-150 words per minute. A well-paced speech laced with wise pauses suggests enthusiasm, self-assurance and awareness of the audience

5. **Practice stress reduction techniques** like deep breathing. It is the preferred method of breathing for speech. It calms and relaxes you, improves your focus, and helps give you a strong well-supported sound.

Check your Progress-2

Analyse the following statements and mark True/False against each of them in light of the above discussion:

1. Good speakers don't feel nervous at all while giving a presentation.
2. Knowing your audience helps to control stage fear.
3. Planning and practice reduce stage fear.
4. Stage fright is quite normal.
5. Deep breathing does not help nervous speakers.

7.8 THE POWER OF BODY LANGUAGE

Body language plays a vital role in influencing the listeners and getting your message across. When a speaker presents him/herself we see him before we hear them. Immediately, we begin developing impressions of his abilities and attitudes based on the non-verbal signals he sends. This is why body language is so critical in oral communication.

It includes every aspect of your appearance from what you wear, how you stand, look and move, to your facial expressions and physical habits such as nodding your head, jingling change in your pocket or pulling your necktie. Your use of space and gestures are other key concerns. Let us understand them in detail.

Personal Appearance:

-First impression is the last impression.¶

Personal appearance plays an important role. Even before a speaker utters the first word we begin to form an opinion about him and visualise the way he is going to talk. Hence, it becomes imperative to dress appropriately on the day of your presentation as appearances communicate how we feel about ourselves and how you want to be viewed. Appearance includes type and colour of clothes, hair do, accessories you carry and so on. It is important to look clean and well-groomed with light make up and simple accessories on and conform to the need of the occasion to establish a good rapport with the audience.

Posture:

Posture generally refers to the way we stand, sit or walk. Standing in an upright position by placing your hands on the podium is considered to be a good posture for presentation. It is important to move occasionally to hold attention and to emphasise a point. Your posture reveals a lot about you and your personality. Here are a few examples:

1. Slumped posture indicates low spirits
2. Upright posture indicates high spirits, energy and confidence.
3. Leaning forward shows honesty and interest.
4. Lean backward suggest defensive or disinterest
5. Crossed arms indicate defensive and non- cooperative attitude.
6. Uncrossed arms mean willingness to listen.

Gesture:

Gestures are the movements made by hands, arms, shoulders, head and torso. A well-timed gesture not only drives a point home but also adds greater value to what is being conveyed. They clarify your ideas, reinforce them and should be well-suited to the audience and occasion. Gestures should not be too loud to divert the attention of the listener and distract them from the message to sink in. In fact, they should be quite natural and spontaneous. Be aware of avoiding irritating gestures like playing with the ring, twisting a key chain, clasping the hands tightly, or cracking your knuckles.

Facial Expressions:

Face is considered to be an index of mind. It is perhaps the most expressive part of our body. A variety of facial expressions can be used to add or inhibit or complement your communication: such as a smile stands for friendliness, a frown for discontent, raised eyebrows for disbelief and tightened jaw muscles for anger or revenge etc. Hence, in order to look relaxed and express pleasure for the audience, it is important to start your presentation with a smile on your face. It not only complements your message but also relaxes the muscles of your face.

Eye-contact:

Eyes, the windows of the soul, can be used in a very effective manner to enhance the impact of your presentation. By maintaining eye-contact, a speaker can show sincerity and elicit a feeling of trust.

Eye-contact is a direct and powerful form of non-verbal communication. It is a rich source of feedback. Though looking directly at the listeners helps in building rapport with them, how do you look at them also counts? In the professional world it is important to make pleasant eye contact with the listeners. While giving presentations, avoid looking outside the windows,

towards the roof of floor or at any one particular section instead try to establish uniform eye contact with one and all present at the event.

7.9 PRESENTATION MATRIX

This presentation matrix will extend a great deal of help in organising, writing and preparing your presentation. A wonderful ready reckoner indeed which is used extensively by the novice presenters, even the seasoned presenters don't mind using it for achieving good and expected results.

(1). Suitable Title of your Presentation:

(2). Purpose: To inform/ To persuade/ To entertain

(i) Specific purpose: My presentation will enable the audience to.....

(3) Audience:

(i) Expected Number.....

(ii) Age.....

(iii) Type of audience: Interested/Uninterested/Neutral

(4). Central idea:

.....
.....

(5). Main Ideas:

.....
.....
.....

(6) Supporting Material

.....
.....
.....

(7) Organisation

(i) Introduction

(ii) Body

(iii) Conclusion

7.10 SUMMARY

- Start with confidence and a smile
- Be organised
- Stay relaxed
- Use appropriate Visual Aids
- Pay attention to all details
- Mind your body language
- Close in a memorable way

Check your Progress-3

1. Which of the following is not one of the functions of introduction in an oral presentation:

1. Get the audience's attention
2. Demotivate the audience
3. Introduce the subject
4. Give the audience a reason to listen

2. The techniques used to capture audience attention does not include the use of:

- a. a question
- b. a joke
- c. an essay
- d. a startling statement

3. In order to involve the audience with the topic of presentation the speaker should.

4. Which of the following is false:

- a. the speaker should include as many points in his presentation as he can.
- b. The audience will understand a simple message easily.

- c. the audience we concentrate better if the message is short t
 - d. The speaker should focus on a few main ideas.
5. Which of the following is not one of the functions of the conclusion in an oral presentation:
- a. summarizing the presentation
 - b. Reemphasizing the central idea
 - c. motivates the audience to respond
 - d. introduces the subject

7.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Koneru, Aruna. Professional Communication. Delhi: McGraw, 2008.
- Mahanand, Anand. English for Academic and Professional Skills Delhi: McGraw, 2013. Print.
- Rani, D Sudha, TVS Reddy, D Ravi, and AS Jyotsna, A Workbook on English Grammar and Composition. Delhi: McGraw, 2016.
- Rizvi, M. Ashraf. Effective Technical Communication, Delhi: McGraw, 2018.
- Pease, Allan and Barbara Pease. The Definitive Book of Body Language, New Delhi: Manjul Publishing House, 2005.
- Sharma, R.C. and Krishna Mohan, Business Correspondence and Report Writing, Delhi: McGraw, 2013.

BACHELOR OF ARTS (LIBERAL ARTS)

SEMESTER-IV

SKILL ENHANCEMENT COURSE (SEC): SOFT SKILLS

UNIT-8 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

STRUCTURE

- 8.0 Objectives**
- 8.1 Introduction**
- 8.2 Meaning and Nature of Personality**
- 8.3 Definitions**
- 8.4 Features of Personality**
- 8.5 Personality Development**
- 8.6 Approaches of Personality**
 - 8.6.1 Trait approach**
 - 8.6.2 Trait – type approach**
 - 8.6.3 Psychoanalytic Perspective**
 - 8.6.4 Humanistic Perspective**
 - 8.6.5 Social- cognitive perspective**
- 8.7 Big Five Model of Personality**
- 8.8 Stages of Personality Development**
 - 8.8.1 Psychosexual stages of development**
 - 8.8.2 Psycho-social stages of development**
- 8.9 Personality Development and Soft Skills**
- 8.10 Learning Skills**
 - 8.10.1 Adaptability skills**
 - 8.10.2 Why adaptability matters**
 - 8.10.2.1 Types of adaptability skills**
 - 8.10.2.2 How to improve adaptability skills**
- 8.11 Summary**
- 8.12 Keywords**
- 8.13 Model Answers**

8.14 References

8.0 OBJECTIVES

- To help reader understand meaning and nature of personality.
- To explain various features and approaches of personality.
- To explain meaning of personality development.
- To explain staged models of personality development
- To provide brief introduction to learning skills.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The term personality is not new to anyone. Majority of the people think it is the measure of outer beauty or appearance. However; this is just a narrow outlook at such a broader concept. The scope of personality and its development is quite broad. It involves outer as well as internal makeup of an individual. It includes social graces, grooming, speech and interpersonal skills. Whatever you do, you choose, you learn, you create at both personal and professional front is your personality. In the current unit will discuss the boarder explanation of personality, it's nature, various viewpoints on structure and components of personality and stages of personality development.

8.2 MEANING AND NATURE OF PERSONALITY

To know the meaning, of personality we have to trace the historical roots of the term. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word ‘_Persona’ which means theatrical mask worn by actors while performing a character on the stage. Thus the layman’s perspective of personality is confined to physical appearance only. Generally by personality people mean the degree of attractiveness a person holds. This notion makes us believe that there can be good, bad or no personality at all. However, this is a limited view of the concept; personality is much deeper than just physical appearance of a person.

Thus by the term personality means the characteristic style of behaviour of an individual revealed from his external appearance. The external appearance of a person includes dressing, speech, gestures, postures, habits and expressions. Thus a person endowed with good external appearance is considered to possess a good personality and vice versa. But this is not the reality.

In social psychology, the term personality indicates an integrated whole. It is considered as all inclusive of all characteristics and qualities that a person holds. Thus, personality is the sum total of the ideas, attitudes, and values of a person which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. Personality is not something that is self created but it is acquired as a result of individual participation in group life.

Personality shows behavioural characteristics that vary from one person to another. Each person's behaviour exhibits a certain degree of consistency across situations over time. It would seem that a person's personality represents his or her largely acquired style of coping with the world. Understanding someone's personality gives the clues about how the person is likely to act in a given situation. In the field of organizational behavior, an understanding of different employees' personalities is helpful. Having this knowledge is also useful for placing people in jobs and organizations. A person with a positive attitude can direct his thoughts, control his emotions and regulate his attitude.

Personality is basically the sum total of all that an individual possess. It refers to the behavioural characteristics of a person. It includes memories, knowledge, habits, goals, aspirations, interest, thinking, attitudes, beliefs, and values, self, emotional and temperamental makeup. All that a person is and aspires to become is part of personality.

Personality is a dynamic in nature. Individuals are different from each other even at birth, in physique, chemique, motivation and temperament resulted from the interaction with the environment. With age these differences become more pronounced as behavioural characteristics.

8.3 DEFINITIONS

-Personality is the sum of activities that can be discovered by actual observations over a long enough period of time to give reliable information.¶

Watson

-Personality is a dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.¶

Allport.

-Personality is the more or less stable and enduing organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment.¶

Eysenk

<p style="text-align: center;">Reputation is what people think you are</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Personality is what you seem to be</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Character is what you really are</p>

Source: Personality Development and Soft Skills (Mitra, 2016)

Thus we can conclude the following points about personality from above definitions:

1. The personality is an entity which makes individuals unique. No two individuals behave in same manner over any similar situation.
2. Personality constitutes everything that a person possesses such as behaviour patterns, i.e., conative, cognitive and affective and covers not only conscious activities but goes deeper into sub-conscious and unconscious also.
3. It is an organisation of some psychophysical systems or some behaviour characteristics and functions as a unified whole.
4. Personality is not static, it is dynamic in nature. The behaviour undergoes modification in the face of changing circumstances.
5. Every personality is the product of heredity, environment and situations and contributes towards the overall development.
6. Learning contributes in personality development. In other words personality is the end product of learning and acquisition.

8.4 FEATURES OF PERSONALITY

1. **Nature and nurture-** Personality is the product of nature and nurture. Both the factors contribute significantly in development of personality. Personality is developed with continuous interaction of an individual with the environment.
2. **Assessment-** personality is an assessable attribute. On the basis of different theoretical perspectives numerous scales, tests have been devised such as TAT, CAT, MMPI, NEO-PI, 16PF to name a few.
3. **Goal oriented-** personality is an entity that aims towards fulfilling some specific goals. Adler, a profound personologist suggested that a person's personality can be easily known through the study and interpretation of the goals he set.
4. **Personality and Character-** character of a person is a moral concept while personality is a psychological construct. Personality is a broader construct and character is one of its components.
5. **Consistency-** consistency means a person will behave consistently in similar situations such as a lazy person will exhibit laziness at home, work, sleeping and eating etc. and an honest person will express the characteristics of honesty in all situations.
6. **Unique-** every person has its own unique adjustment to time and place. Activities of two seemingly alike persons are actually very different in quality. It is the personality that makes every individual unique.
7. **Dynamic-** Personality is dynamic in nature as it keeps on evolving with motivation and self regulation.
8. **Self-** Personality develops out of our interaction with the environment. This interaction results in formation of concept of self and it includes self identity, self efficacy, self

regulation or self esteem. All the responses of a human being are oriented towards protection of the self concept.

9. **Multiple expressions** - Personality is displayed in more than just behavior. It can also be seen in our thoughts, feelings, close relationships, and other social interactions.
10. **Potentiality for change**- it is another major feature of personality. Modern humanistic perspective contradicts the statement that personality is a rigid structure. They suggested not only the human has the capacity for reorganisation but also the conditions do foster change.

8.5 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

As the personality refers to the stable and enduring behavioural characteristics of an individual, it becomes matter of curiosity to know how these characteristics develop. Personality development occurs throughout life. However some theorists have proposed a stage model like Freud's psycho sexual stages and Erikson's psycho social stages to account for personality development in a person's life. Still other theorists emphasize the role of parent child relationship, in understanding personality development. Rogers, for instance placed importance on how an individual's self concept is modeled. The development of personality is influenced by a lot of factors. We call them the 'determinants of personality'. These factors can be classified under three heads:

- Physiological factors- role of neurotransmitters or hormones, health, genetic makeup etc.
- Psychological factors- traits, cognitions, emotional intelligence etc.
- Environmental factors- family settings, culture, economic status etc.

8.6 APPROACHES OF PERSONALITY

There are a number of different schools of thought in psychology explaining nature and structure of personality. In order to understand how personality evolves with time we need to know the components of personality. Some of these major perspectives on personality are the following:-

8.6.1 Trait Perspective

An important school of thought of personality is centered on identifying, describing, and measuring the specific traits that make up human personality. The lexical approach to personality is based on the assumption that qualities can be expressed using single adjectives or descriptive

phrases. By traits, it means persistent and enduring behavioural patterns that make every individual unique. These are the building blocks of personality. It includes honesty, shy, aggressive, calm, polite, dependent, and lazy to name a few.

Major Theorists of this perspective are Gordon Allport and Raymond Cattell. Gordon Allport classified traits into three categories: cardinal (that dominates the personality like patriotism in Bhagat Singh), central (habitual way of responding like being funny, rude or aggressive) and secondary traits (tastes and preferences. These are subjective preferences like favourite colours, preferences for food, clothes etc). Cattell performed a statistical method (factor analysis) to generate sixteen dimensions of human personality traits: abstractedness, warmth, apprehension, emotional stability, and liveliness, openness to change, perfectionism, privacy, intelligence, rule consciousness, tension, sensitivity, social boldness, self-reliance, vigilance, and dominance. He has also developed a tool to assess these dimensions known as 16PF.

8.6.2 Trait type approach

Hans Eysenck: Suggested that there are three dimensions of personality:

- 1) Extraversion-Introversion- Eysenck believed that there are no pure introverts or extroverts. A person can be high on either of the dimension but still have traits of other type. Extraversion are the people who are sociable, talkative, party going etc. while the ones who are opposite with traits of shyness, solitary etc. are introverts.
- 2) Emotional stability-Neuroticism- another category Eysenck suggested is emotionality of a person. People who are moody, anxious or restless are high on neuroticism while emotionally stable people possess trait such as calmness, even tempered, easy going etc.
- 3) Psychoticism- the person high on this dimension tends to be egocentric, impulsive, insensitive, opposes social norms while the one who scores low on this dimension found to be empathetic, bold and less adventurous.

To assess these types Eysenck developed a well known inventory named as Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI).

8.6.3 Psychoanalytic Perspective

This perspective of personality psychology emphasizes the importance of early childhood experiences and the unconscious mind. The key spokesperson of this perspective was Sigmund Freud who believed that things hidden in the unconscious could be revealed in a number of different ways, including through dreams, free association, and slips of the tongue. Neo-Freudian personality theorists namely Erik Erikson, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, and Karen Horney, believed in the importance of the unconscious but disagreed with other aspects of Freud's theories.

Major Theorists of psychoanalytic perspective:

- **Sigmund Freud:** Father of psychoanalysis stressed the importance of early childhood experiences, the influence of the unconscious and sexual instincts in the development and formation of personality. He also suggested structure of personality involves three components i.e. id, ego and superego.
- **Carl Jung:** Focused on concepts such as the personal unconsciousness, collective unconscious, archetypes, self, and psychological types.
- **Erik Erikson:** Emphasized the social elements of personality development, the identity crisis, and psycho- social stages of development.
- **Alfred Adler:** stressed the core motive by which personality evolves is striving for superiority, or the desire to overcome inferiority complex and move closer toward self-realization.
- **Karen Horney:** her theory is centred on the need to overcome basic anxiety, the sense of being isolated and alone in the world. She emphasized the role of societal and cultural factors including parent- child relationship in personality development.

8.6.4 Humanistic Perspective

The humanistic perspective of personality focuses on psychological growth. It takes a more positive outlook on human nature and is centred on theme of achieving actual human potential.

Major Theorists

- **Carl Rogers:** emphasis the role of unconditional positive regard, free will and self (ideal and real). He believed people are inherited with goodness and suggested that the actualizing tendency is the driving force behind human behavior.
- **Abraham Maslow:** central theme of the theory is actualization. He suggested a hierarchical model of needs. The most basic needs are centred on things necessary for survival such as food and water, but as people move up the hierarchy; these needs become centered on higher goals such as self esteem and self-actualization. He stressed that the ultimate goal of life is to attain self actualization.

8.6.5 Social- Cognitive Perspective

The social cognitive perspective stressed upon the role of observational learning, self-efficacy, situational influences, and cognitive processes in personality development.

Major Theorists

- **Albert Bandura:** he emphasized the importance of social learning, or modeling (learning through observation). His theory emphasized the role of conscious thoughts including self-efficacy, reciprocal determinism and our beliefs in shaping personality.

8.7 BIG FIVE MODEL OF PERSONALITY

Big 5 Factor model of Personality

Many independent researchers contributed to the development of the Big Five paradigm. Gordon Allport's personality characteristic words laid the groundwork for later psychologists to start figuring out the fundamental characteristics of personality. Raymond Cattell and his colleagues utilised component analysis (a statistical method) to reduce Allport's list of qualities to sixteen in the 1940s. Several psychologists looked at Cattell's list and discovered that it could be condensed to only five features. McCrae & Costa were among these psychologists.

Lewis Goldberg, in particular, was a strong supporter of five major personality traits (Ackerman, 2017). McCrae and Costa built on his study, identified five key dimensions of personality. Robert McCrae and Paul CostaThe Five-Factor or the Big Five Model, is the most widely recognised personality model. Unlike previous characteristic theories that categorize people as either introverts or extroverts, the Big Five Model claims that each personality attribute exists on a spectrum. As a result, people are graded on a scale between the two extremes. For example, when testing Extraversion, one is placed on a scale between introversion or extroversion rather than being defined as merely extroverted or introverted. Individual differences in personality can be efficiently measured by ranking individuals on each of the five attributes of personality. According to the model, personality can be broken down to five main characteristics, abbreviated as OCEAN. These five factors include:

- **Openness to experience-** The readiness to explore new things characterises the openness to experience dimension of personality. People with higher levels of openness are more receptive to new ideas and views, particularly those that contradict their preconceptions. They enjoy visiting art galleries, museums, and theatres, listening to music, and travelling to new places for creative and cultural experiences. They are more receptive to other cultures and habits. People who have a low level of openness - who are resistant to new experiences - are afraid of uncertainty and the unknown. Unfamiliar situations make them uneasy, thus they want to be in familiar surroundings. Individuals who are less open appreciate predictability and prefer to stick to well-established customs and habits. Individual levels of openness to experience vary widely, and a person's own openness to experience can change. Openness to new experiences, for example, has been proven to fluctuate with age. Costa et al (1986) found that participants' openness to experience declined as they grew older.
- **Conscientiousness-** People who are conscientious are more conscious of their activities and the implications of their acts than those who are not. They have a strong sense of duty for

others and are often meticulous in carrying out the tasks that have been entrusted to them. Conscientious people like to maintain their surroundings clean and ordered. They are very conscientious about keeping track of time. People with high degrees of conscientiousness are also more goal-oriented. They establish lofty objectives for themselves and are driven to attain them. They are unafraid of hard work and are eager to excel in all aspects of their lives, including academic successes and career advancement. Low levels of conscientiousness are associated with lower levels of motivation. This may cause individuals to be late for appointments and meetings, as well as to be more laidback when setting life goals. People who are less conscientious are more likely to act rashly. They will act on a whim rather than thinking about the ramifications of their decisions.

- **Extraversion-** Extraversion is defined as outgoing, self-assured social demeanour. In social situations, extraverts are gregarious, conversational, and generally outgoing. They appreciate being the centre of attention and will frequently seek it out. Extraverts thrive in the company of others and enjoy meeting new people. They are happy to introduce themselves to strangers. On a scale of introversion to extraversion, this personality attribute is measured. Ambiverts are people who fall somewhere in the middle of the two personality types. Introverts, or persons with low degrees of extraversion, behave in a unique way. They are quieter and often feel self-conscious around others. They may be intimidated by large groups, such as parties, and will often avoid social situations that are difficult. Introverts prefer to be in small social groups, ideally with individuals they know. As a result of this tendency, introverts prefer smaller social networks and instead have a limited circle of trustworthy pals.
- **Agreeableness-** Individuals that perform well on agreeability tests are nice and cooperative. Agreeable people are more trusting of others and more generous, prepared to help others in times of need. They are often deemed more liked by their peers and colleagues. Because of their capacity to collaborate with others, they frequently perform effectively as members of a team. Arguments, disagreement with others, and other forms of confrontation irritate agreeable people. They function as the group's mediating 'peace-maker,' seeking to placate and calm others. Individuals that are disagreeable get a lower score on this personality trait. They aren't as preoccupied with impressing others or gaining friends as they formerly were. Disagreeable people are less compassionate and more skeptical of other people's motives. Instead, they are driven to act in their own best interests, with little regard for the needs of others. While unpleasant people have an easier time promoting their own interests, agreeable people have stronger relationships with others. This can be useful from a young age: Jensen-Campbell et al. (2002) discovered that children with greater levels of agreeableness were less likely to be bullied at school.
- **Neuroticism-** This personality trait is graded on a scale ranging from emotional stability to emotional instability, also known as neuroticism. People with high neuroticism levels are frequently chronic worriers. They are more scared and worried, overthinking and

exaggerating the importance of their difficulties. They may focus on the bad features of a situation rather than the favourable parts. Neuroticism can make it difficult for a person to cope with normal pressures in their daily lives. Instead, they are frequently frustrated with others and may become enraged if events do not go as planned. These negative concerns are less preoccupied in people with low neuroticism levels. They can maintain their composure in stressful situations and assess problems in proportion to their importance. As a result, they tend to be less concerned about such issues.

People's Big Five scores are mostly steady for the majority of their lives, with occasional minor variations from childhood to maturity. Soto and John (2012) attempted to follow the Big Five qualities' developmental tendencies. Overall agreeableness and conscientiousness grew with age, according to the researchers. Although gregariousness dropped and assertiveness increased, there was no significant trend for extraversion overall. From adolescent to middle life, openness to experience and neuroticism both reduced slightly. The researchers discovered that some features (such as adventurousness and sadness) had more significant trends than the Big Five qualities as a whole.

Fig. 1: Five Dimensions of Personality



Source: <https://agile-mercurial.com/>

The above discussion helps us in learning how different theories explain personality and its components. The above explained models provide an insight on different views of personality development. There is not a single standardized mechanism that act as a perfect foundation for understanding personality development. Internal and external forces, which Allport refers to as genotypes and phenotypes, are thought to influence an individual's behaviour and personality. Genotypes are internal forces that influence how a person retains information and interacts with the outside world. External forces that influence how an individual accepts his or her surroundings and how others impact his or her conduct are referred to as phenotypes.

Freud has given staged model of personality development that is explained in section below. Post Freudian theorists have adopted different approach in explaining personality

development. Jung emphasized the role of innate tendencies known as archetype in shaping personality. Further, he describe the goal of personality development is self realization. He explained self realization as the harmonious blending of all the components of human personality. He believed that humans are constantly evolving and progressing to realize their *self*. On the other hand Adler highlighted the role of person's never ending battle to strive for superiority as the basis of personality whereas Karen Horney believed personality is an entity influenced by culture and society.

Bandura a social- cognitive psychologist emphasized the role of observational learning in shaping personality. He believed changes in behaviour occur as one goes on observing other's responses and consequences. This phenomenon eventually influences personality. Although theorists in humanistic perspective believed that human beings possess an inherent tendency to evolve but this is subjected to environment influences. Rogers highlighted the role of evaluations of self by others. He suggested that an individual tends to change as per the evaluations by others. If a person's personality aspect is negatively evaluated by others he/she excluded these unapproved experiences from his self concept.

There is no such thing as a good or bad personality. It varies depending on the function and scenario. In some contexts, having an aggressive disposition is necessary for success, but it can be harmful in others. In the same way, an introverted personality may be better suited for some roles than an outgoing personality. It's also crucial to be aware that one's personality sends out a signal that others can interpret. As a result, it's critical to have a clear understanding of the position one wants to play and the expectations that come with it—and to concentrate on developing the desirable personality qualities. Whatever personality one selects, the most important thing to remember is that one's personality sends out a signal in every direction. Others, more than one realises, are watching it in minute detail. Making this reality work in one's favour can be a major factor in achieving professional success

Self check exercise 1

1. _____ traits are the dominant characteristics of a person.
2. _____ are outgoing, friendly and talkative people.
3. The psychic energy manifested by the life instincts is the_____.
4. Cattell has developed_____ to assess personality.
5. _____ emphasis the role of observational learning in personality development.

8.8 STAGES OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

8.8.1 Psychosexual stages of development

According to Freud everyone has to go through sequence of stages for development. To understand staged of personality development by Freud, it is necessary to understand two basic concepts i.e. Libido and Fixation.

- **Libido-** It is the instinctual psychic energy that powers all mental activities. It is the life force that energises Id (primitive, innate urges). The id work on pleasure principle and seeks immediate gratification of its desires. Expression of libido varies as a person moves through different developmental stages. Freud demonstrated that psychiatric symptoms are the result of inadequate discharge of libido.
- **Fixation-** The expression of libido depends upon the stage of development a person is in. At each stage, the libido is focused on a specific area. Too much or too little investment of libido in any particular stage can result in fixation. This means that the focus of a person's libidinal energy may remain fixed at an earlier stage of development. As a result the person will remain "fixed" in that stage until the conflict is resolved. If handled successfully, the child moves to the next stage of development and eventually grows into a healthy, successful adult. For instance, in the first stage i.e. the oral stage of psychosexual development the libido is centered on the mouth, so activities such as eating, sucking, and drinking are important. If fixation occurs, in this stage, it might result in problems such as nail-biting, drinking, smoking, and other habits.

Stage 1 – Oral Stage: It is the first stage of psycho sexual development occurs during the first 12 to 18 months of age. In this stage the focus of pleasure is mouth and children sucks or bites anything that fits in their mouth.

Stage 2- Anal stage: It begins from 12 to 18 months and lasts till 3 years of age. In this stage the major source of pleasure is anal region and children enjoys both retention and expulsion of feces. In most cultures during this stage the emphasis is placed on toilet training. If the fixation occurs during this stage it may lead to an adult personality with unusual rigidity, sloppiness, orderliness, punctuality or extreme disorderliness.

Stage 3- Phallic stage: At about 3 years of age the child enters phallic stage of development. In this stage the pleasure is derived from playing with genitals. In this stage according to Freud, Oedipal conflict occurs. The difference between male and female anatomy become more salient, as the children focus their attention on genitals. Furthermore, Freud believes that in this stage the male child develops sexual interest in his mother and see father as rival figure – this phenomenon is known as Oedipus conflict. In parallel to this a conflict arises in girl child known as Electra complex. In this conflict the girl child begin to feel sexually aroused towards her father and competes with her mother. If the conflict is resolved the child moves on to the next stage of

development. If fixation might occur it may result in improper sex role behaviour and failure to develop a conscience.

Stage 4- Latency period: Following the resolution of conflict in phallic stage, the child moves on the latency period at around 5 – 6 years of age and lasts until puberty. In this stage Freud suggested sexual or pleasure seeking concerns are to put to rest even in unconscious mind.

Stage 5- Genital stage: This is the last stage of psycho sexual development. During this stage the sexual feeling reemerge in child after latency period. According to Freud this stage lasts till death and the focus of pleasure is on maturity and sexual intercourse.

8.8.2 Psycho- social stages of development

Erik Erikson was a developmental psychologist who specialized in child psychoanalysis and was best known for his theory of psychosocial development. Psychosocial development is a sequence of stages that refers to how a person's individual needs (psycho) interact with the needs or demands of society (social). Erikson has given eight developmental stages a person passes through across lifespan. At each stage there is a crisis and personality develops by resolving the crisis.

Stage 1: Trust vs. mistrust (Birth to 12 – 18 months)

The child in this stage is totally dependent upon parents for everything they need say food, comfort, cleaning to name a few. In this stage psychological strength of trust emerges, by being there for the baby and fulfilling all the basic needs Children whose needs aren't met will look at the world with anxiety, fear, and mistrust.

Stage 2: Autonomy vs. shame and doubt (18 months to 3 years)

In this stage the children starts to assert their independence. They realize they are not dependent upon others for everything and can do few things by themselves. By this stage the child began to exhibit food, cloth and other preferences. Hence, letting the child choose for himself means helping them build their self-esteem. In this stage toilet training should be practiced as learning to control bodily functions gives child a feeling of independence or autonomy. According to Erikson, children who are not given the opportunity to assert themselves (within the boundaries you set) will struggle with feelings of inadequacy and self-doubt.

Stage 3: Initiative vs. guilt (3 to 5 years old)

In this stage child began to interact socially and plays with others, they learn to take initiatives. In this stage the child should be encouraged to achieve goals and take responsibilities. Give the child a chance to play roles such as teacher, doctor, or pilot while you act the student, patient, or customer. Child in this stage develops self-confidence and learns to enjoy having a sense of

purpose. However, if the parents don't support the child in decision making or setting goals, the child may not be equipped to take the initiative and could be filled with guilt which may lead to deter their creativity.

Stage 4: Industry vs. inferiority (5 to 12 years old)

By this time the child has hit elementary school and began to learn new skills. The children in this stage have plenty of social interactions and they start comparing themselves to others. They will even compare their family to other families. If you notice that your child struggles in one area, look for another area in which they can shine. If a child succeeds in fulfilling a goal he feels industrious while the failure to do so has repeated negative experiences and develops feelings of inferiority.

Stage 5: Identity vs. confusion (12 to 18 years old)

In this stage comes the adolescence period where the child faces the challenge of developing a sense of self. Identity is formed in this stage by examining beliefs, goals, and values an individual adheres in life. The one who passes this stage successfully forms a strong sense of identity. If the parents in this stage force the child to conform to their values and beliefs it will lead to sense of confusion.

Stage 6: Intimacy vs. isolation (18 to 40 years old)

In this stage people are ready to share their lives with others. This is the time when relationship commitments are made. The psychosocial challenge of this stage is to build long-term loving and safe relationships. When people complete this stage successfully, usually have life relationships filled with commitment and love whereas the lack of security and warmth left them to experience loneliness and depression.

Stage 7: Generativity vs. stagnation (40 to 65 years old)

This stage of psycho social development is characterized by a need to give to others. This includes the responsibility of raising children, contributions towards community and charities etc. On the work front it is characterized by doing well and productive. People who accomplish this stage successfully have the satisfaction of knowing that they are valued in life. What can hold people back in this stage is the lack of positive feedback from friends, family and they may experience stagnation. Frustrated with the feeling of inability to do well for family, work, or they may invest in personal growth or in productivity.

Stage 8: Integrity vs. despair (Over 65 years old)

This is the last stage of Erikson's development theory. This is the stage of reflection. It is when the pace of life went down, people look back to assess their achievements in life. People who are

proud of their doings experience satisfaction while the others left with feelings of loss and regret. According to Erikson, this stage is one of flux as people often alternate between feelings of satisfaction and regret.

8.9 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT AND SOFT SKILLS

Soft skills, sometimes known as "people skills," are personal characteristics that improve a person's interactions with others, job performance, and career opportunities. Unlike hard skills, such as technical or occupational skills, which are often tied to a single task or activity, soft skills can be applied to a wide range of situations. Soft talents are divided into two categories: personal traits and interpersonal abilities.

Overall personality development is only possible if both hard and soft abilities are developed together. Hard talents alone are insufficient to bring out the best in you and secure success. Combining technical expertise with the process of putting that expertise into practice would result in overall personality development and progress. For example, a person may need to work on his personality in order to prepare for an interview or advance in his professional job.

Every character comes with its own set of personality requirements. One can create a very tangible change to his original self to meet the expectations by intentionally working on the desired attributes over time and projecting the desirable ones. Hence, by inculcating the desired personality traits one can excel in soft skills such as communication, reasoning, planning etc.

Personality is a fluid concept. Every person is made up of a variety of personalities. However, it is critical to consider one's work goals and develop a personality profile that is appropriate for the situation over time. It's also worth noting that personality differs depending on the role. At the start of his profession, the same guy may be more introverted. Later in his career, when his role changes, he may gain the extraversion trait. Similarly, while interacting with children, one individual may be highly sensitive and have a more touchy-feely personality, yet when driving a project, he may be very analytical and of the thinking type.

8.10 LEARNING SKILLS

The abilities involved in gathering knowledge and increasing understanding, especially those abilities demonstrated in educational settings and developed through study, classroom instruction, and the like. APA defines learning skills as –the abilities involved in gathering knowledge and increasing understanding, especially those abilities demonstrated in educational settings and developed through study, classroom instruction, and the like. |

Personality impacts the process of learning through attitudes and motives which create particular conceptions of learning and preferred ways to learn. As the world of work becomes

more flexible, people need to enhance their ability to adapt to new situations and acquire new skills.

8.10.1 Adaptability Skills

Adaptability skills refer to the qualities that allow an individual to adjust to changes in the environment. Being adaptable at work includes quick response to changing ideas, trends, plans, goals, strategies and other processes. Adaptability skills are important when working on projects, developing strategies or implementing different approaches at any given task in hand as they reveal how motivated you are to try new things and acquire new skills.

8.10.1.1 Why Adaptability Skills Matters

The life is ever changing, sometimes it's a stream, sometimes a river, and sometimes a tidal wave however, we must be flexible in our personal lives. What makes it more challenging is that keeping abreast of these means staying informed and knowing when to take advantage of opportunities. Being able to adapt to change in all its forms keeps us constantly prepared to survive and succeed no matter what climate we're in.

8.10.1.2 Types of adaptability skills

Adaptability skills can include a variety of skill sets that can essentially help you adapt to and deal with change positively and proactively. Some examples of these important skills include:

1. **Communication skills-** Communication skills are necessary for adaptability. It includes active listening, non verbal as well as verbal communication. It shows you are attentive, ready to take a new direction, and navigate dynamics in the environment.
2. **Interpersonal skills-** Having excellent interpersonal skills play a key role in overall adaptability. Being able to interact with others in healthy and positive ways avoid miscommunication and conflicts in both personal and professional relationships.
3. **Problem-solving skills-** Adapting to changing circumstances relies on problem-solving skills to find creative solutions to challenges. It also reflects the willingness to make adjustments or improvements to the ways one used to solve problems earlier.
4. **Creative thinking skills-** Adaptability also require creative thinking skills. In case of developing new strategies, ideas or plans implementing methods to improve and develop new strategies can all showcase your overall adaptability skills.
5. **Teamwork skills-** Teamwork skills make an individual able to adapt to different working dynamics. Being able to work with a team of diverse people and deal with conflicts, can positively benefit how adaptive you are in a team environment.

6. **Organizational skills-** This expertise is important to improve your adaptability skills because it can prevent chaos caused by disorganized environment. If you keep your work organised, including documentation, digital data, and other aspects of your job; you can be better prepare to adapt to any changes that occur at work.

8.10.1.3 How to improve adaptability skills

Being adaptable and open to change may not always be easy, however, you might consider the following steps to help you develop and improve your adaptability skills:

1. Identify weak areas.
2. Practice better habits in your daily life.
3. Take a communication skills course.
4. Participate in volunteer opportunities.
5. Be aware of changes in your environment
6. Develop a growth mindset
7. Set goals for yourself
8. Ask for feedback
9. Learn to acknowledge and accept change

Self Check Exercise 2

1. Describe the nature of Personality

.....
.....

2. Explain the psycho-sexual stages of development.

.....
.....

3What are the different types of adaptability skills?

.....
.....

8.11 SUMMARY

This chapter discusses the meaning of personality in broader sense. Various approaches such as trait, type, humanistic, psycho analytic and social cognitive to study personality are

explained. These approaches are helpful in understanding different components a personality is made of. Second, we discussed psychosexual stages of personality and where; each stage represents the fixation of libido (roughly translated as sexual drives or instincts) on a different area of the body. As a person grows physically certain areas of their body become important as sources of potential frustration, pleasure or both. Third, we consider Erikson's psychosocial theory of personality development suggested that how we interact with others is what affects our sense of self, or what he called the ego identity. Fourth, we touch upon the contemporary interests of studying learning skills.

8.12 KEYWORDS

Personality Development: Personality development is the development of the organized pattern of behaviors and attitudes that makes a person distinctive. Personality development occurs by the ongoing interaction of temperament, character, and environment.

Trait Approach: Trait theorists believe personality can be understood by positing that all people have certain traits, or characteristic ways of behaving.

Temperament: Temperament refers to emotional aspect of the personality like changes in mood, tensions, excitement, etc.

Psychoanalytic Perspective : The psychoanalytic perspective of personality emphasizes the importance of early childhood experiences and the unconscious mind.

Humanistic Perspective: The humanistic perspective of personality focuses on psychological growth, free will, and personal awareness. It takes a more positive outlook on human nature and is centered on how each person can achieve their individual potential.

Social-Cognitive Perspective: The social cognitive perspective of personality emphasizes the importance of observational learning, self-efficacy, situational influences, and cognitive processes.

Adaptability skills: Adaptability skills refer to the qualities that allow an individual to adjust to changes in the environment. They are also important when working on projects, developing strategies or implementing different approaches at any given task in hand as they reveal how motivated you are to try new things and acquire new skills.

8.13 Model Answers

Self Check Exercise 1

1. Cardinal 2. Extroverts 3. Libido 4.16 PF 5. Albert Bandura

MEANING AND NATURE OF PERSONALITY

To know the meaning, of personality we have to trace the historical roots of the term. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word ‘_Persona’ which means theatrical mask worn by actors while performing a character on the stage. Thus the layman’s perspective of personality is confined to physical appearance only. Generally by personality people mean the degree of attractiveness a person holds. This notion makes us believe that there can be good, bad or no personality at all. However, this is a limited view of the concept; personality is much deeper than just physical appearance of a person.

Thus by the term personality means the characteristic style of behaviour of an individual revealed from his external appearance. The external appearance of a person includes dressing, speech, gestures, postures, habits and expressions. Thus a person endowed with good external appearance is considered to possess a good personality and vice versa. But this is not the reality. The personality is neither wholly physical nor mental construct. But it entails operations of both body and mind, intractably fused into a whole individual. Persons like Mahatma Gandhi, Lal Bahadur Shastri and George Bernard Shaw and many others whose external appearance was not highly endowed had very good personality indeed. These persons are certainly not favored by nature in external properties. Therefore, the concept of external appearance in personality was relegated to background.

In social psychology, the term personality indicates an integrated whole. It is considered as all inclusive of all characteristics and qualities that a person holds. Thus, personality is the sum total of the ideas, attitudes, and values of a person which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. Personality is not something that is self created but it is acquired as a result of individual participation in group life.

Personality shows behavioural characteristics that vary from one person to another. Each person’s behaviour exhibits a certain degree of consistency across situations over time. It would seem that a person’s personality represents his or her largely acquired style of coping with the world.

Understanding someone’s personality gives the clues about how the person is likely to act in a given situation. In the field of organizational behavior, an understanding of different employees’ personalities is helpful. Having this knowledge is also useful for placing people in jobs and organizations. A person with a positive attitude can direct his thoughts, control his emotions and regulate his attitude.

Personality is basically the sum total of all that an individual possess. It refers to the behavioural characteristics of a person. It includes memories, knowledge, habits, goals, aspirations, interest, thinking, attitudes, beliefs, values, self, emotional and temperamental makeup. All that a person is and aspires to become is part of personality.

Personality is a dynamic in nature. Individuals are different from each other even at birth, in physique, chemique, motivation and temperament resulted from the interaction with the environment. With age these differences become more pronounced as behavioural characteristics.

2. Psycho-sexual Stages of Development

Stage 1 – Oral Stage: It is the first stage of psycho sexual development occurs during the first 12 to 18 months of age. In this stage the focus of pleasure is mouth and children sucks or bites anything that fits in their mouth.

Stage 2- Anal stage: It begins from 12 to 18 months and lasts till 3 years of age. In this stage the major source of pleasure is anal region and children enjoys both retention and expulsion of feces. In most cultures during this stage the emphasis is placed on toilet training. If the fixation occurs during this stage it may lead to an adult personality with unusual rigidity, sloppiness, orderliness, punctuality or extreme disorderliness.

Stage 3- Phallic stage: At about 3 years of age the child enters phallic stage of development. In this stage the pleasure is derived from playing with genitals. In this stage according to Freud, Oedipal conflict occurs. The difference between male and female anatomy become more salient, as the children focus their attention on genitals. Furthermore, Freud believes that in this stage the male child develops sexual interest in his mother and see father as rival figure – this phenomenon is known as Oedipus conflict. In parallel to this a conflict arises in girl child known as Electra complex. In this conflict the girl child begin to feel sexually aroused towards her father and competes with her mother. If the conflict is resolved the child moves on to the next stage of development. If fixation might occur it may result in improper sex role behaviour and failure to develop a conscience.

Stage 4- Latency period: Following the resolution of conflict in phallic stage, the child moves on the latency period at around 5 – 6 years of age and lasts until puberty. In this stage Freud suggested sexual or pleasure seeking concerns are to put to rest even in unconscious mind.

Stage 5- Genital stage: This is the last stage of psycho sexual development. During this stage the sexual feeling reemerge in child after latency period. According to Freud this stage lasts till death and the focus of pleasure is on maturity and sexual intercourse.

3. Types of adaptability skills

Adaptability skills can include a variety of skill sets that can essentially help you adapt to and deal with change positively and proactively. Some examples of these important skills include:

1. **Communication skills-** Communication skills are necessary for adaptability. It includes active listening, non verbal as well as verbal communication. It shows you are attentive, ready to take a new direction, and navigate dynamics in the environment.
2. **Interpersonal skills-** Having excellent interpersonal skills play a key role in overall adaptability. Being able to interact with others in healthy and positive ways avoid miscommunication and conflicts in both personal and professional relationships.
3. **Problem-solving skills-** Adapting to changing circumstances relies on problem-solving skills to find creative solutions to challenges. It also reflects the willingness to make adjustments or improvements to the ways one used to solve problems earlier.
4. **Creative thinking skills-** Adaptability also require creative thinking skills. In case of developing new strategies, ideas or plans implementing methods to improve and develop new strategies can all showcase your overall adaptability skills.
5. **Teamwork skills-** Teamwork skills make an individual able to adapt to different working dynamics. Being able to work on a diverse team of people and deal with conflict, differing ideas and other dynamics that can occur can positively benefit how adaptive you are in a team environment.
6. **Organizational skills-** This expertise is important to improve your adaptability skills because it can involve many different aspects. You can be better prepared if organisational changes occur at work if you keep your work area organised, which includes documentation, digital data, and other aspects of your job.

8.14 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

- Crowne, D. (2007). *Personality theory* (1st ed.). Don Mills, Ont.: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, A., Abrams, M., & Abrams, L. D. (2009). *Personality theories: Critical perspectives*. SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Hall, C.S., and G. Lindzey. (1970). *Theories of Personality*. New York, New York: Wiley.
- Hine F.R., Maddox G.L., Williams R.B., Carson R.C., Williams R.B. (2004) *The Nature of Personality*. In: *Introduction to Behavioral Science in Medicine*. Springer, New York, NY.
- Holzman, P. S. (2020, February 24). *Personality*. *Encyclopedia Britannica*.
- Larsen, R. J., & Buss, D. M. (2017). *Personality psychology: Domains of knowledge about human nature* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.
- Mitra, B. (2012). *Personality Development and Soft Skills*. Oxford University Press.
- Ryckman, R. (2013). *Theories of Personality, 10th ed* (10th ed.). London: Centage Learning.

Web Links

<https://www.artofliving.org/in-en/personality-development>

<https://www.indeed.com/career-advice/finding-a-job/learning-skills#:~:text=Learning%20skills%20are%20habits%20that,That%20Require%20Creative%20Thinking%20Skills>

<https://www.indeed.com/career-advice/career-development/adaptability-skills>

8.15 QUESTIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. What do you mean by Adaptability Skills? What are its different types?
2. What are the different stages of Personality Development?
3. Explain the approaches of Personality in detail?