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

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

**CERTIFICATE COURSE
IN
THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT
WORK PLACE**

CSHAW3

MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

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

WEBSITE: www.pson.ac.in

SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL STUDY MATERIAL FOR JGND PSOU

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JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY, PATIALA
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CSHAW3: MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

Syllabus

MAX.MARKS: 100

EXTERNAL: 70

INTERNAL: 30

PASS: 35%

Credits: 4

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CANDIDATES:

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

Section A

Measures of Happiness at Workplace: Job satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Affective Engagement, Motivation.

Happiness Index: life satisfaction, Quality of life, Micro and Macro happiness measures. Paradox of happiness.

Section B

Surveys and Questionnaires: Happiness at work (HAW) scale, The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire, Work related quality of life (WRQOL) scale.

Role of organizations in employees' happiness: case studies.

Suggested Readings:

1. Burnett, B. (2020). Designing Your Work Life: How to Thrive and Change and Find Happiness at Work. Knopf; Illustrated edition
2. Gielan, M. (2015). Broadcasting Happiness: The Science of Igniting and Sustaining Positive. BenBella Books Inc.
3. Karpinski, E. (2020). Put Happiness to Work: 7 Strategies to Elevate Engagement for Optimal Performance. New York: McGraw Hill Ltd.
4. Moss, J. (2016). Unlocking Happiness at Work: How a Data-driven Happiness Strategy Fuels Purpose, Passion and Performance. United States. Kogan Page Ltd.
5. Robert Bismas-Diener. (2010). Positive Psychology Coaching: Assessment, Activities and Strategies for Success. New Jersey. John Wiley and sons. Inc.



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CERTIFICATE COURSE

IN

THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

COURSE COORDINATOR AND EDITOR: DR. GURLEEN AHLUWALIA

SECTION A

UNIT NO:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 1	MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE: JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
UNIT 2	MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE: AFFECTIVE ENGAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION
UNIT 3	HAPPINESS INDEX

SECTION B

UNIT NO:	UNIT NAME
UNIT 4	MICRO AND MACRO HAPPINESS MEASURES
UNIT 5	SURVEYS AND QUESTIONNAIRES
UNIT 6	ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS IN EMPLOYEES' HAPPINESS

Section-A

CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

UNIT 1: MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE: JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

STRUCTURE

1.0 OBJECTIVES

1.1 INTRODUCTION

1.2 HAPPINESS

1.3 WORKPLACE HAPPINESS

1.4 WHY WORKPLACE HAPPINESS IS IMPORTANT?

1.5 HAPPINESS AT WORK: JOB SATISFACTION

1.5.1 TYPES OF JOB SATISFACTION

1.5.2 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

1.6 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

1.7 HAPPINESS AT WORK: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1.7.1 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1.8 MAJOR CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1.9 WAYS TO ENHANCE JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1.10 LET US SUM UP

1.11 KEYWORDS

1.12 REFERENCES

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain what workplace happiness is
- Understand the concept of job satisfaction and organizational commitment
- Discuss the importance of job satisfaction in workplace happiness
- Discuss organizational commitment in context of workplace happiness
- Learn ways to increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Happiness at the workplace is crucial for improving productivity in any organization. Happy people are productive people. It is believed that organizations which are able to maintain long-term happiness at the workplace could probably increase and sustain productivity. Happiness and productivity are important to both individuals and the organizations. When employees feel productive and are given the opportunity to actually contribute to the overall organisation, they gain a sense of purpose whereas productivity is important to organizations because increasing productivity it can increase revenue using the same or fewer resources. The profits earned through productivity ultimately lead to continued business success and organizational growth.

In this unit we will discuss the measures of happiness at workplace viz. job satisfaction and organizational commitment in detail. Also, the relationship between workplace happiness and job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be discussed.

1.2 HAPPINESS

Happiness is a sought after and valued state. The happiness has captivated the devotion of thinkers since the history has begun. The word ‘Happiness’ is a wider concept that comprises of a huge number of paradigms which range from temporary dispositions and sentiments to fairly constant attitudes and possessing firm individual characters at the individual level. It is very important to live happily as it is regarded the most fundamental aim in most of the societies. As defined by the Oxford English Dictionary (Hawker and Waite. 2007, p. 420) happiness is “a state of mind or feeling comprising contentment, satisfaction, pleasure or joy.” It is further described as the state of pleasurable content of mind, which results from success or the attainment of what is considered good (Dictionary.com. 2009).

1.3 WORKPLACE HAPPINESS

Work is one of the important aspects of people’s lives. People perform their work in exchange for either monetary (e.g. salary and benefits) or non-monetary rewards (e.g. psychological fulfilment from work). In today’s changing world, the world of work has been changing rapidly. In present days maximising employee wellbeing has become a challenge for managers. The current economic climate of austerity and the resulting financial constraints within the public sector increase this challenge.

Promoting happiness in the workplace is potentially relevant to improving productivity, creativity and retention of staff. Besides, happy employees in comparison with unhappy employees are more willing to help fellow workers and customers, have higher performance and greater loyalty to the organization and also they are able to do more of the work itself. The research of Cropanzano, and Wright (1999), showed that happy employees have a superior performance also they are more sensitive to the opportunities in the workplace, more open and help fellow workers and more positive and confident (Gupta, 2012; Januwarsono, 2015).

Within the workplace literature the term happiness is used interchangeably with that of job satisfaction and terms such as affect at work, organisational commitment, organisational engagement and flow. According to Maenapothi (2007) and Januwarsono (2015), happiness at work is when someone enjoys his work and loves what he does at work. The term “happiness at work” is related with job satisfaction because happy employees are more satisfied with their jobs than employees who are unhappy. From human resource management (HRM) perspective, HRM practices (e.g. downsizing, outsourcing, and temporary employment) influence the nature and scope of work. Corporate restructuring and downsizing which aim to reduce the workforce for improving organizational performance probably can make employees feel unsatisfied with their jobs. Employees who perceive job insecurity have lower commitment to their organizations and they intend to leave their jobs. Unhappiness at the workplace may reduce productivity of the organization and also increase a higher level of absenteeism at work place. Employees’ job satisfaction has an impact on organizational performance. If they are satisfied with work, their productivity would be increased. A review of more than 300 research studies suggested a quite strong correlation between job satisfaction and job performance. This conclusion also appears to be generalizable across international contexts. The correlation is higher for complex jobs that provide employees with more discretion to act on their attitudes. Moving from the individual to the organizational level, strong support is available for the satisfaction-performance relationship. Looking at satisfaction and productivity data for the organization as a whole, it is observed that organizations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with fewer.

1.4 WHY WORKPLACE HAPPINESS IS IMPORTANT?

The question of whether happy workers matter to firm performance has been asked for nearly a century. Recent work by the University of Nevada's Tom Wright and the University of Arizona's Russell Cropanzano makes the case that happy employees demonstrate superior job performance that is, happy employees are better employees. In addition, they suggest that

happy employees are more sensitive to opportunities in the work environment, more outgoing and helpful to co-workers, and more optimistic and confident-all of which are positive features for the organization. A study by Northwestern University's Forum for People Performance Management and Measurement broke ground by focusing on employees who do not have direct contact with customers. It nevertheless showed a direct relationship between how employees feel and customer attitudes, concluding that any company that wants to directly impact its bottom line can measure employee satisfaction and know that improvements to it will drive profitability.

1.5 HAPPINESS AT WORK: JOB SATISFACTION

One of the concepts related to happiness studied most extensively in the workplace is that of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction consists of the feelings and attitudes one has about one's job. The investigators have defined job satisfaction as the general behavior and employee's attitudes towards his/her job. The common definition of job satisfaction-a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics-is broad. Yet that breadth is appropriate. A job is more than just shuffling papers, writing programming code, waiting on customers, or driving a truck. Jobs require interacting with coworkers and bosses, following organizational rules and policies, determining the power structure, meeting performance standards, living with less-than-ideal working conditions, adapting to new technology, and so forth. It is also important to note that job satisfaction is multifaceted. That is, employees may be satisfied with one facet of work (e.g., their pay) but not another (e.g., their coworkers). The most commonly studied facets of job satisfaction are pay, supervision, coworkers, work, and promotion opportunities. Many other facets such as satisfaction with equipment, the work facility, the worksite, and company policy are also important but have not received as much research attention.

1.5.1 TYPES OF JOB SATISFACTION

The concept of job satisfaction is bifurcated into two kinds i.e. intrinsic job satisfaction that covers people's affective reactions to job features that are integral to the work itself (e.g. variety, opportunity to use one's skills, autonomy); and extrinsic job satisfaction that covers features external to the work itself (e.g. pay, the way the firm is managed). A person with high job satisfaction holds positive feelings about the work, while a person with low satisfaction holds negative feelings.

1.5.2 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

1. Workplace Environment

The location of the work, where the employee performs his duties and daily activities, such as office or site of construction, is included in workplace environment. Generally other factors like, noise level, fresh air, refreshment and the incentives e.g. child care, also become a part of workplace environment. Workplace environment may have either positive or negative impact on the satisfaction level of employees depending upon the nature of working environment. The employees can perform better if they are provided good environment. The working outcomes are directly interlinked with working environment; the more it (environment) is conducive the better the outcome will be. Employee satisfaction plays an important part in the success of organization. The employees will perform better if they are provided good environment. There are various aspects of the physical environment satisfaction that contribute in employee's satisfaction. Researchers asked the question from the employees that may include that how much you are satisfied with your working environment. When an employee is given higher level of satisfaction then it reduces turnover and in turn enhances the morale of an employee. Previous research shows that satisfaction with workplace is optimistically associated with job accomplishment and it is indirectly connected with turnovers for better future. The current workplace environment of various organizations has positive association with satisfaction of its employees.

2. Job conditions

Generally, interesting jobs that provide training, variety, independence, and control satisfy most employees. Interdependence, feedback, social support, and interaction with coworkers outside the workplace are also strongly related to job satisfaction, even after accounting for characteristics of the work itself. As you may have guessed, managers also play a big role in employees' job satisfaction. Employees who feel empowered by their leaders experience higher job satisfaction, one study of a large Hong Kong telecommunications corporation found. Research in Israel suggested that a manager's attentiveness, responsiveness, and support increase the employee's job satisfaction. Thus, job conditions-especially the intrinsic nature of the work itself, social interactions, and supervision-are important predictors of job satisfaction. Although each is important, and although their relative value will vary across employees, the intrinsic nature of the work is most important.

3. Personality

As important as job conditions are to job satisfaction, personality also plays an important role. People who have positive core self-evaluations (CSEs)-who believe in their inner worth and basic competence-are more satisfied with their jobs than people with negative CSEs. Additionally, in the context of career commitment, CSE influences job satisfaction as people with high levels of both CSE and career commitment may realize particularly high job satisfaction. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) have hypothesized that four personality variables are related to people's predisposition to be satisfied with their life and jobs: emotional stability, self-esteem, self-efficacy (perceived ability to master their environment), and internal locus of control (perceived ability to control their environment). That is, people prone to be satisfied with their jobs and with life in general have high self-esteem and a feeling of being competent, are emotionally stable, and believe they have control over their lives, especially their work lives. This view is supported by several meta-analyses and studies.

4. Nature of the job

The SHRM 2014 Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement survey found that 51% of employees indicated that the nature of the work itself was a very important factor in their level of job satisfaction. Given that the nature of the work itself was ranked as the seventh most important factor, employers should take innovative steps to make work more interesting. What were the top three factors? Opportunity for the employee to use his or her skills and abilities, job security, and compensation/pay. You've probably noticed that pay comes up often when people discuss job satisfaction. Pay does correlate with job satisfaction and overall happiness for many people.

5. Supervisors and Co-workers

Research indicates that people who enjoy working with their supervisors and co-workers will be more satisfied with their jobs (Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Repetti & Cosmas, 1991). Such findings certainly make sense. We all have had coworkers and supervisors who made our jobs unbearable, and we all have had coworkers and supervisors who made our jobs fun to have.

6. Co-workers' job satisfaction and motivation levels

Social information processing theory, also called social learning theory, postulates that employees observe the levels of motivation and satisfaction of other employees and then model those levels (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Thus, if an organization's older employees work hard and talk positively about their jobs and their employer, new employees will model this behavior

and be both productive and satisfied. The reverse is also true: If veteran employees work slowly and complain about their jobs, so will new employees.

7. Equity

One factor related to both job satisfaction and employee motivation is the extent to which employees perceive that they are being treated fairly. Equity theory is based on the premise that our levels of job satisfaction and motivation are related to how fairly we believe we are treated in comparison with others. If we believe we are treated unfairly, we attempt to change our beliefs or behaviors until the situation appears to be fair. Also, organizations that are able to maintain complete internal equity also makes it possible for the employees to compare their input/output ratios with those of employees from other organizations.

8. Culture

Workers in different countries tend to have different levels of job satisfaction. The 2013 Randstad Workmonitor Global Press Report found that, of 32 countries surveyed, employees in Denmark, Norway, and Mexico were the most satisfied and employees in Hong Kong, Hungary, and Japan the least. U.S. employees ranked 11th in the survey, and employees in the United Kingdom ranked 23rd.

9. Intelligence

In 1997, a police department in New London, Connecticut, created controversy when it announced that applicants who were “too smart” would not be hired. The police chief’s reasoning was that really smart people would be bored and have low job satisfaction. Though there has been little research on the topic, a study by Ganzach (1998) suggests that bright people have slightly lower job satisfaction than do less intelligent employees in jobs that are not complex. In complex jobs, the relationship between intelligence and satisfaction is negligible. A metaanalysis of seven studies by Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) found that intelligence and turnover were not significantly related.

10. Genetic Predispositions

An interesting and controversial set of studies (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Arvey, McCall, Bouchard, Taubman, & Cavanaugh, 1994; Keller, Bouchard, Arvey, Segal, & Dawis, 1992) suggests that job satisfaction not only may be fairly stable across jobs but also may in part be genetically determined. Arvey and his colleagues arrived at this conclusion by

comparing the levels of job satisfaction of 34 sets of identical twins who were separated from each other at an early age. If job satisfaction is purely environmental, there should be no significant correlation between levels of job satisfaction for identical twins who were raised in different environments and who are now working at different types of jobs. But if identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction despite being reared apart and despite working at dissimilar jobs, then a genetic predisposition for job satisfaction is likely. On the basis of their three studies, Arvey and his colleagues found that approximately 30% of job satisfaction appears to be explainable by genetic factors. Such a finding does not of course mean that there is a “job satisfaction gene.” Instead, inherited personality traits such as negative affectivity (the tendency to have negative emotions such as fear, hostility, and anger) are related to our tendency to be satisfied with jobs (Ilies & Judge, 2003).

11. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

An organization’s commitment to corporate social responsibility (CSR), or its self-regulated actions to benefit society or the environment beyond what is required by law, increasingly affects employee job satisfaction. Organizations practice CSR in a number of ways, including environmental sustainability initiatives, nonprofit work, and charitable giving. CSR is good for the planet and good for people. Employees whose personal values fit with the organization’s CSR mission are often more satisfied. The relationship between CSR and job satisfaction is particularly strong for Millennials. “The next generation of employees is seeking out employers that are focused on the triple bottom line: people, planet, and revenue,” said Susan Cooney, founder of philanthropy firm Givelocity. CSR allows workers to serve a higher purpose or contribute to a mission. According to researcher Amy Wrzesniewski, people who view their work as part of a higher purpose often realize higher job satisfaction. However, an organization’s CSR efforts must be well governed and its initiatives must be sustainable for long-term job satisfaction benefits. Although the link between CSR and job satisfaction is strengthening, not all employees find value in CSR. Therefore, organizations need to address a few issues in order to be most effective. First, not all projects are equally meaningful for every person’s job satisfaction, yet participation for all employees is.

12. Employees’ Job Expectations

Employees come to a job with certain needs, values, and expectations. If there is a discrepancy between these needs, values, and expectations and the reality of the job, employees will become

dissatisfied and less motivated. In a test of this *discrepancy theory*, a meta-analysis by Wanous, Poland, Premack, and Davis (1992) concluded that when an employee's expectations are not met, the results are lower job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment ($r .39$), and an increased intent to leave the organization. These results support the importance of ensuring that applicants have realistic job expectations.

13. Employee and Job Fit

When employees consider how well they “fit” with a job or an organization, they consider the extent to which their values, interests, personality, lifestyle, and skills match those of their *vocation* (e.g., a career such as nursing, law enforcement, or psychology), *job* (its particular tasks), *organization*, *co-workers*, and *supervisor*. In addition to these five aspects of fit, Cable and DeRue (2002) believe that needs/supplies fit is also important. Needs/supplies fit is the extent to which the rewards, salary, and benefits received by employees are perceived to be consistent with their efforts and performance. Employees who perceive a good fit with their organization, job, co-workers, and supervisor tend to be satisfied with their jobs, identify with the organization, remain with the organization, perform better, and engage in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs). Also, the extent to which employees' desire for a particular work schedule (e.g., shift, number of hours) matches their actual schedule has been shown to be related to job satisfaction and commitment. As one would expect, the better the fit between an employee's desired schedule and his actual schedule, the greater an employee's job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and the likelihood to remain with the organization.

14. Opportunities for challenge and growth

For many employees, job satisfaction is affected by opportunities for challenge and growth. Maslow thought that the need for growth and challenge, which he labeled as *self-actualization*, is important only after low-level needs (e.g., safety, social) have been met. To help satisfy employee self-actualization needs, organizations can do many things. The easiest and most common are **job rotation**, **job enlargement**, and **job enrichment**. With job rotation and job enlargement, an employee learns how to use several different machines or conduct several different tasks within an organization. With job rotation, the employee is given the same number of tasks to do at one time, but the tasks change from time to time. With job enlargement, an employee is given more tasks to do at one time.

A job can be enlarged in two ways: knowledge used and tasks performed. With knowledge enlargement, employees are allowed to make more complex decisions. With task enlargement, they are given more tasks of the same difficulty level to perform. As one might imagine, satisfaction increases with knowledge enlargement and decreases with task enlargement (Campion & McClelland, 1993).

Job rotation and job enlargement accomplish two main objectives. First, they challenge employees by requiring them to learn to operate several different machines or perform several different tasks. Thus, once employees have mastered one task or machine, they can work toward mastering another. Second, job rotation helps to alleviate boredom by allowing an employee to change tasks. Thus, if an employee welds parts one day, assembles bumpers on another, and tightens screws on a third, the boredom caused by performing the same task every day should be reduced. Perhaps an even better way to satisfy self-actualization needs is through job enrichment. The main difference between job rotation and job enrichment is that with job rotation an employee performs different tasks, and with job enrichment the employee assumes more responsibility over the tasks.

In their job characteristics theory by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976), suggesting that certain characteristics of a job will make the job more or less satisfying, depending on the particular needs of the worker, theorized that enriched jobs are the most satisfying. Enriched jobs allow a variety of skills to be used, allow employees to complete an entire task (e.g., process a loan application from start to finish) rather than parts of a task, involve tasks that have meaning or importance, allow employees to make decisions, and provide feedback about performance. Hackman and Oldham developed the **Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)** to measure the extent to which these characteristics are present in a given job. If we look again at the job of college professor, job enrichment is clearly an inherent part of the job. That is, the professor decides what she will research and what she will teach in a particular course. This authority to make decisions about one's own work leads to higher job satisfaction. One method is to give workers more responsibility over their jobs. For example, when an employee first begins working for a company, her work is checked by a quality control inspector. After she has been with the company long enough for the first four needs levels to be satisfied, she is given responsibility for checking her own quality. Likewise, more control can be given to the employee about where and when she will eat lunch, when she will take vacation time, or how fast she will accomplish her work. Another method to increase the level of job enrichment is showing employees that their jobs have meaning and that they are meeting some worthwhile goal through their work. The final method for increasing employees' self-actualization needs

that we will discuss here is the use of self-directed teams, or quality circles. With quality circles, employees meet as a group to discuss and make recommendations about work issues. These issues range from something as trivial as the music played in the work area to something as important as reducing waste or improving productivity. In an extensive review of the literature, Wagner (1994) concluded that allowing employees to participate in making decisions results in small but significant increases in performance and job satisfaction. Arthur (1994) found lower turnover in steel mills that allowed employees to make decisions on their own than in steel mills with a more controlling style. In a more recent study, Rentsch and Steel (1998) found that job enrichment resulted in decreased absenteeism (the practice of regularly staying away from work) .

15. The Spill Over effect

Judge et al. (1998), Judge and Watanabe (1993), and Tait et al. (1989) have theorized not only that job satisfaction is consistent across time but that the extent to which a person is satisfied with all aspects of life (e.g., marriage, friends, job, family, and geographic location) is consistent as well. Furthermore, people who are satisfied with their jobs tend to be satisfied with life. These researchers found support for their theory, as their data indicate that job satisfaction is significantly correlated with life satisfaction. Thus people happy in life tend to be happy in their jobs and vice versa. In an interesting study, Judge and Watanabe (1994) found that for about two thirds of participants, high levels of life satisfaction are associated with high levels of job satisfaction. In other words, satisfaction with one's job "spills over" into other aspects of life, and satisfaction with other aspects of life spills over into satisfaction with one's job. For the remaining 30% or so of the population, either there is no relationship between life and job satisfaction or there is a negative relationship.

1.6 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

1. Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

As several studies have concluded, happy workers are more likely to be productive workers. Some researchers used to believe the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was a myth. But a review of 300 studies suggested the correlation is quite strong. As we move from the individual to the organizational level, we also find support for the satisfaction–performance relationship.⁵² When we gather satisfaction and productivity data for the organization as a whole, we find, organizations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with fewer satisfied employees.

2. Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee's formal job requirements, and is not usually rewarded, but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization. Individuals who are high in OCB will go beyond their usual job duties, providing performance that is beyond expectations. Examples of such behaviour include helping colleagues with their workloads, taking only limited breaks, and alerting others to work-related problems. More recently, OCB has been associated with the following workplace behaviours: "altruism, conscientiousness, loyalty, civic virtue, voice, functional participation, sportsmanship, courtesy, and advocacy participation." OCB is important, as it can help the organization function more efficiently and more effectively. It seems logical to assume that job satisfaction should be a major determinant of an employee's OCB. Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about an organization, help others, and go beyond the normal expectations in their jobs because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences.

Consistent with this thinking, evidence suggests that job satisfaction is moderately correlated with OCB; people who are more satisfied with their jobs are more likely to engage in OCB. Why? Fairness perceptions help explain the relationship. Those who feel their co-workers support them are more likely to engage in helpful behaviours, whereas those who have antagonistic relationships with co-workers are less likely to do so. Individuals with certain personality traits are also more satisfied with their work, which in turn leads them to engage in more OCBs. Finally, research shows that when people are in a good mood, they are more likely to engage in OCBs.

3. Job Satisfaction and Customer Satisfaction

Employees in service jobs often interact with customers. Because service organization managers should be concerned with pleasing customers, it's reasonable to ask: Is employee satisfaction related to positive customer outcomes? For front-line employees who have regular contact with customers, the answer is yes. Satisfied employees increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. A number of companies are acting on this evidence.

4. Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism and Turnover

We find a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. It certainly makes sense that dissatisfied employees are more likely to miss work. Also, one can find work satisfying yet still want to enjoy a three-day weekend if those days come free with

no penalties. When numerous alternative jobs are available, dissatisfied employees have high absence rates, but when there are few they have the same (low) rate of absence as satisfied employees.

The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is stronger than between job satisfaction and absenteeism. Employees with low job satisfaction and low organizational commitment are more likely to quit their jobs and change careers than are employees with high job satisfaction and high organizational commitment. Turnover rates fluctuate from year to year. Recent research suggests that managers looking to determine who might be likely to leave should focus on employees' job satisfaction levels over time, because levels do change. A pattern of lowered job satisfaction is a predictor of possible intent to leave.

Job satisfaction has an environmental connection too. If the climate within an employee's immediate workplace is one of low job satisfaction, there will be a "contagion effect." This research suggests managers should consider the job satisfaction patterns of co-workers when assigning new workers to a new area for this reason.

The satisfaction-turnover relationship also is affected by alternative job prospects. If an employee is presented with an unsolicited job offer, job dissatisfaction is less predictive of turnover because the employee is more likely leaving in response to "pull" (the lure of the other job) than "push" (the unattractiveness of the current job). Similarly, job dissatisfaction is more likely to translate into turnover when employment opportunities are plentiful because employees perceive it is easy to move. Also, when employees have high "human capital" (high education, high ability), job dissatisfaction is more likely to translate into turnover because they have, or perceive, many available alternatives. Finally, employees' embeddedness in their jobs and communities can help lower the probability of turnover, particularly in collectivistic cultures.

5. Job Satisfaction and Tardiness

Employee lateness or tardiness can be defined as the start of work after the scheduled starting time as agreed to by employee and employer. In a university setting, for example, if the first period class is required to begin at nine o'clock, an employee would be considered late if arriving at one minute past nine. Lateness can be sorted into two types of categories- avoidable and unavoidable. Avoidable lateness is employee controlled and refers to when employees have more important or better things to do rather than be on time. This could range from sleeping in or reading a newspaper in the morning, to chatting to co-workers in the coffee room. Unavoidable lateness tends to be circumstance controlled and is characterized by less

controllable factors such as late trains, bad weather, or personal illness. One of the many potential causes affecting employee lateness are related to the job itself. Lateness is often an indication of job withdrawal behavior, that is, employees use tardiness as a negative response to conditions stemming at the workplace, and therefore, attempt to remove themselves from their jobs. Hence, the employee starting work late is consciously or unconsciously expressing dissatisfaction or negative feelings with the employer. Low job satisfaction and a lack of organizational commitment have been found to contribute to the job withdrawal behavior of lateness. If a job is not challenging to an individual or lacks meaningfulness and achievement, it may lead to tedium. When one is no longer satisfied with the working conditions, he or she may resist spending the required maximum amount of time at the place of employment. Dwyer and Ganster (1991) found that when employees perceive that they have little or no control over their work and working environment job satisfaction is lowered which in turn led to higher instances of tardiness. Adler and Golan (1981) also examined the relationship between lateness and job satisfaction at work and found high measures of feelings of tedium could predict subsequent duration and frequency of lateness.

6. Job Satisfaction and Counterproductive Behaviors

Employees, who are unhappy with their jobs miss work, are late to work, and quit their jobs at higher rates than employees who are satisfied with their jobs and are committed to the organization. Dissatisfied employees, especially those who are unable to change jobs, also engage in a variety of other counterproductive behaviors in organizations. These counterproductive behaviors can be separated into two types of behaviors: those aimed at individuals and those aimed at the organization (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Behaviors aimed at individuals include gossip, playing negative politics, harassment, incivility, workplace violence, and bullying. Behaviors aimed at the organization include theft and sabotage. Though such behaviors are not limited to unhappy employees, they provide ways for employees to “get back” at the organization or the coworkers they believe are responsible for their lack of happiness.

For example, Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) found that employees who were unhappy with the way in which they were treated by their supervisors had an increased likelihood of stealing from their employers. The interesting finding of this study was that the employees tended to take things that were of value to the organization but not to them. That is, they didn’t steal because they wanted an item, they stole because they wanted to hurt the organization.

7. Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Employees who engage in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) are motivated to help the organization and their coworkers by doing the “little things” that they are not required to do. Examples of OCBs include staying late to get a project done, helping a coworker who is behind in her job, mentoring a new employee, volunteering for committees, and flying in coach when the employee might be entitled to first class. As one would expect, a meta-analysis has demonstrated that job satisfaction is related to OCBs. That is, employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the organization are more likely to “go the extra mile” than are employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs (LePine et al., 2002). Also not surprisingly, meta-analysis results show that there is a negative correlation between OCBs and employee counterproductive behavior (Dalal, 2005).

In brief, job satisfaction is central to happiness in the workplace and as such is one of the defining attributes of happiness in the workplace.

Check your progress

- Based on what you’ve learned so far, explain how coworkers (peers, not supervisors) influence job satisfaction?
- What can the average employee do on his or her own to make the workplace a more satisfying and engaging place?
- Are some employees “destined” to always be dissatisfied with their job? Why or why not?
- What do most employees value and need in a job?

1.7 HAPPINESS AT WORK: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment is another important work related attitude. Organisational commitment is a concept that has received increasing attention in the workplace happiness literature. It refers to the extent to which an employee identifies with and is involved with an organization. In brief, it is the degree of loyalty an individual feels toward the organization. In the fields of organizational behavior (OB) and industrial and organizational psychology (I/O), organizational commitment is an individual’s psychological attachment to the organization. Individuals with a high organizational commitment identify strongly with the organization and take pride in considering themselves members. Most research has focused on emotional attachment to an organization and belief in its values as the “gold standard” for employee

commitment. Organizational commitment is one of essential elements in achieving organization's goals.

It is thought that there are three motivational facets to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). **Affective commitment** is the extent to which an employee wants to remain with the organization, cares about the organization, and is willing to exert effort on its behalf. For example, an employee of the Red Cross might like her coworkers and her boss, share the altruistic goals of the organization, and realize that her efforts will result in better organizational performance. **Continuance commitment** is the extent to which an employee believes she must remain with the organization due to the time, expense, and effort that she has already put into it or the difficulty she would have in finding another job. Take, for example, a chamber of commerce director who spent 10 years making business contacts, getting funding for a new building, and earning the trust of the local city council. Though she could take a new job with a chamber in a different city, she would need to spend another 10 years with that chamber just to make the gains she has already made. As another example, an employee might hate her job and want to leave, but realizes that no other organization would hire her or give her the salary she desires. **Normative commitment** is the extent to which an employee feels obligated to the organization and, as a result of this obligation, must remain with the organization. A good example of normative commitment would be an employee who was given her first job by an organization, was mentored by her manager, and was trained at great cost to the organization. The employee may feel that she is ethically obligated to remain with the organization because of its extensive investment in her. Within this model commitment is defined as a force that binds an individual to a target (social or non-social) or to a course of action of relevance to that target.



Fig. 1.1: Facets of Organizational Commitment

Levels of commitment can range from being extremely high to extremely low, and people can have attitudes about various aspects of their organization such as the organization's promotion practices, the quality of the organization's products, and the organization's stance on ethical issues. Highly committed employees are enthusiastic about their jobs, dedicated to their work and the organization, and it is assumed that this state leads them to be more motivated, productive, and more likely to engage in positive work behaviors

1.7.1 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The model proposed by Meyer and Allen (2001) appears to offer a cogent argument for organisational commitment as it seems logical that many factors effect a person's commitment to an organisation including affect and judgement. Enjoyment of work and the pleasure achieved from doing something one likes alone may not be sufficient to guarantee on-going commitment. There are different contributors to organizational commitment discussed below:

1. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Employees may be more committed to organizations that behave in a socially responsible manner and contribute to society at large. It is easier to believe in and be committed to an organization that is doing good things for society rather than causing harm, such as polluting the atmosphere. Employees may also be more likely to be committed to an organization that shows that it cares about its employees and values them as individuals. Managers cannot expect employees to be committed to an organization if the organization is not committed to employees and society as a whole.

2. Role ambiguity

Work role is important in an organization in order to have a clear view on who works on a specific task. This factor plays a strong factor in affective commitment. When a person has clear work role, the commitment that naturally comes from the person would be higher. Whereas when the work role is vague and conflicting, the commitment to the organization would be lower. A study done by Judeh (2011) stated that when an individual face situation where the role is ambiguous, this could act trigger lower commitment in an organization.

3. Job control

Job control is one of crucial factors in order to improve the workers' health and comfort at work. Job control consists of the extent to which an individual participate in the work as well as how much autonomy is given to the individual over process of decision making. Prior research has found that when a worker has broader autonomy and high participation during

decision making process, it is likely that the level of commitment will be high. Previous research indicated that when a worker actively participates in decision making, it will boost their level of job performance, employee motivation, as well as organizational commitment.

4. Job insecurity

Like job control, job insecurity would predict the level of commitment shown by a worker in an organization. Job insecurity is defined as the feeling that someone could lose the current job. Ruokolainen (2005) indicated that an employee would show lower commitment levels if his fate in the organization is uncertain. When employees believe that there is no job security in the organization they are working, they would seek other available job. As a consequence of job insecurity, the workers would put less focus and commitment over work and tasks given to them. Nevertheless, a worker will be more committed to the organization when he or she believes that there is an opportunity to grow and learn in the organization they work for.

5. Career advancement

Career advancement is important for employees to plan their career. Having a clear career advancement and support from employers would help employees reach their desired position. Previous research has found that there is a positive correlation between career advancement and organizational commitment. When workers believe that they are able to plan their career in a particular organization, they would show higher commitment towards the organization. In addition, when promotion is available for workers to advance their career, the level of commitment tends to get higher.

6. Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is one of human resource management practices that evaluate employees' performance. Edgar and Geare (2005) found that performance appraisal using attitudinal surveys is important to evaluate employee's performance and to see whether they have completed the task efficiently or not. Previous study also indicated that from various human resource management practices, only performance appraisal has a significant correlation with organizational commitment.

7. Positive team experiences

Employees with positive team experiences are more likely to feel bonded to the company. Employee perceptions of team effectiveness directly and positively impact commitment to the organization and has a range of effects on turnover intentions via satisfaction, commitment, and perceptions of work overload. Higher levels of perceived effectiveness directly increase

perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment which, in turn, reduce reported turnover intentions. Strong social relationships in the team appear to exert a positive influence by reducing perceptions of work overload. Positive, strong relationships within the team also help the employee to feel supported in handling his/her day-to-day responsibilities. A strong social base within the team seems to have multiple positive effects which ultimately increase commitment to the organization and reinforce employee retention efforts.

8. Management support and work atmosphere

Besides having supportive management, work atmosphere could also potentially predict employee's commitment level through psychological climate perceived by worker as positive environment at work. Kahn (1990) found that there is a positive link between psychological climate and employee's commitment at work. Flexible and encouraging management, a well defined job description and work role, as well as ability to show self expression and share knowledge would give positive feeling to the worker which further enhances his level of commitment. In other words, when a worker gets recognition over his or her achievements and contribution to the organization, he or she would perceive the work atmosphere as positive thus resulting in higher levels of engagement.

9. Locus of control

Locus of control is defined as when a person believes that he or she has control over what happens to his or her life. Locus of control is divided into two types viz. external and internal. The external locus of control means that what happens in a person's life is influenced by some outside power like luck or chance etc., while the internal locus of control means that he or she is the one who has control over the events and the outcomes in his or her life. In terms of organizational commitment, research found that internal locus of control affects commitment (cf. Spector, 1988; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). People with high levels of internal locus of control believe that their career advancement, perk, as well as salary rise are in their control. In addition, these people perceive that they can control their working environment (Lau & Woodman, 1995) which makes them feel more involved and related with the organization; which eventually boosts their level of commitment. On the contrary, people with external locus of control believe that they have less control over the environment, they have few opportunities to find a new job; therefore they prefer to stay in their current job.

10. Tenure in the Organization

Previous research found that organizational tenure could affect the levels of organizational commitment. Research indicates that organizational tenure is positively related to organizational identification and commitment (Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; De Gieter et al., 2011, Imran et al., 2013). Individuals who have been in an organization for certain years would voluntarily make many sacrifices to meet the organization's objectives because the longer they stay the higher the sense of belonging they have.

11. Task self-efficacy

Task self-efficacy is described as a confidence shown by an individual in completing a given task. This factor affects the commitment of an individual at work, especially the affective component. A person with high task self-efficacy would normally possess higher level of commitment. This commitment would come from the good feeling of an individual in performing the given task. The higher the task self-efficacy the higher the levels of organizational commitment.

12. Culture

Culture also plays an important role in predicting the level of commitment an individual has toward the organization. People would differently perceive the organization they work for. Meyer et al. (2002) has studied organizational commitment rigorously and found that culture has a significant impact on organizational commitment. The component of culture in the studies is power distant and individualism vs collectivism. It is found that people who come from a country with individualistic cultures would have higher commitment toward normative component due to their responsibility to complete the duty assigned to them. By fulfilling the responsibility, they would feel joy and pleasure. The culture of individualism also affects normative commitment through the equal distribution of power between supervisors and subordinates. Collectivism is high in normative commitment as well; however, it only exhibits in a country where the group's goal is considered more important than member's individual goals.

13. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been one strong factor predicting commitment at work because it related to improved job performance, lower rates of absenteeism, and turnover. Numerous studies have

shown association between job satisfaction and the level of organizational commitment. Dubinsky et al. (1990) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as Ayeni and Phopoola (2007) indicated that job satisfaction strongly affects a worker's commitment at an organization. A study done by Coleman and Cooper (1997) also revealed that affective and normative aspects of commitment are influenced by job satisfaction. Likewise, Moser (1997) identified that dissatisfied workers had lower levels of commitment.

14. Employee engagement

Employee engagement is a psychological state that is characterized by vigor (energy), dedication, and absorption in one's work and organization. Various researchers have found a significant link between employee engagement and organizational commitment. Highly engaged employees are enthusiastic about their jobs, committed to their work and the organization, and it is assumed that this state leads them to be more motivated, productive, and more likely to engage in positive work behaviors.

1.8 MAJOR CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1. Organizational Commitment and Tardiness

An employee has a high level of organizational commitment if he or she has a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's values and goals. The employee would then exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization in order to remain employed by the organization. Research from Dishon-Berkovitz and Kolowsky (2002) found that punctual employees had significantly higher levels of organizational commitment than late employees had. They concluded that organizational commitment had the most impact on predicting whether an employee was punctual or late. The reason being punctual employees try not to behave in ways that may be seen as disrespectful to the organization.

2. Organizational commitment and productivity

A positive relationship appears to exist between organizational commitment and job productivity, but it is a modest one. A review of 27 studies suggested the relationship between organizational commitment and performance is strongest for new employees and considerably weaker for more experienced employees. Research indicates that employees who feel their employers fail to keep promises to them feel less committed, and these reductions in commitment, in turn, lead to lower levels of creative performance.

3. Organizational commitment, absenteeism and turnover

The research evidence demonstrates negative relationships between organizational commitment and both absenteeism and turnover. Theoretical models propose that employees who are committed will be less likely to engage in work withdrawal even if they are dissatisfied, because they have a sense of organizational loyalty or attachment. On the other hand, employees who are not committed, who feel less loyal to the organization, will tend to show lower levels of attendance at work across the board. Research confirms this theoretical proposition. It does appear that even if employees are not currently happy with their work, they are willing to make sacrifices for the organization if they are committed enough. Mowday (1984) also long back defended that a high level of commitment of employees may be one of the ways to minimize the consequences of the turnover.

4. **Meta-analyses** indicate that satisfied employees tend to be committed to an organization (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), and employees who are satisfied and committed are more likely to

1. attend work (Hackett, 1989),
2. stay with an organization (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000),
3. arrive at work on time (Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz, & Singer, 1997),
4. perform well (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001),
5. engage in behaviors helpful to the organization (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002),
6. not behave in counterproductive ways (Dalal, 2005),
7. and engage in ethical behavior (Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Treviño, 2010)

than are employees who are not satisfied or committed.

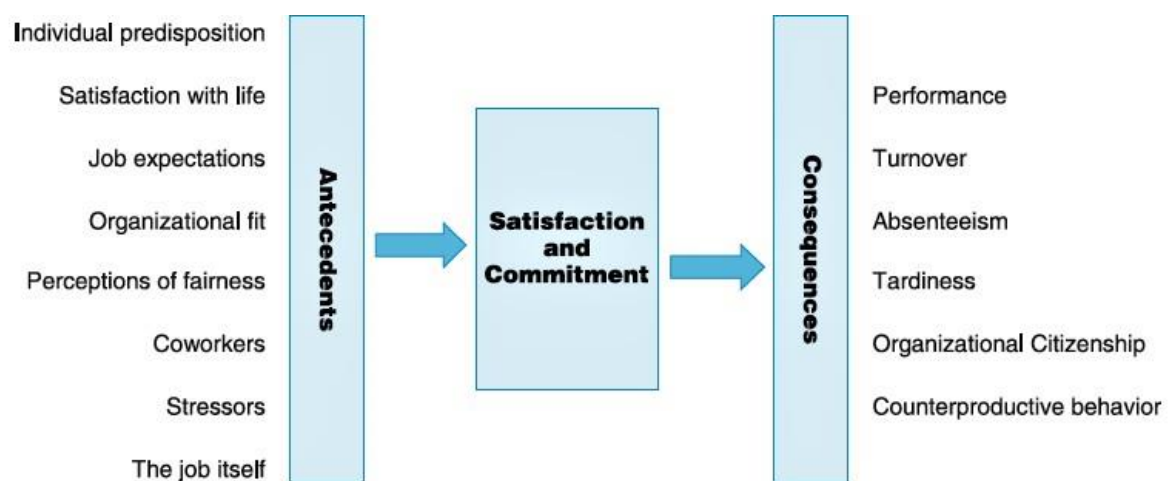


Fig. 1.2: Antecedents and Consequences of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Check your progress

- Based on what you've learned in this chapter, explain which type of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, or normative) do you think is most important to the majority of employees?
- Which facet of organizational commitment do you think is most important to you?

1.9 WAYS TO ENHANCE JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment (OC) are considered important by organizations because both are linked to costly absenteeism and turnover. Because of this, organizations have implemented a number of programs and techniques in an effort to increase employees' satisfaction and commitment. These programs take many forms. Some change the structure of work, others alter the methods of worker compensation, and still others offer innovative fringe benefit plans and packages. Some of these techniques are described below:

1. Job rotation

Job rotation involves moving workers from one specialized job to another. Although job rotation can be used to train workers in a variety of tasks, it can also be used to alleviate the monotony and boredom associated with performing the same work, day in and day out. For example, a receptionist in a large organization might rotate from greeting visitors and answering telephones to simple clerical duties such as filing and photocopying.

2. Job enlargement

Job enlargement is the practice of allowing workers to take on additional, varied tasks in an effort to make them feel that they are more valuable members of the organization. For example, a custodian who is responsible for the cleaning and upkeep of several rooms might progressively have the job enlarged until the job's duties involve the maintenance of an entire floor. Job enlargement is tricky to implement because it means that workers are required to do additional work, which some might perceive as negative. However, if used correctly, job enlargement can positively affect employee satisfaction and OC by giving an employee a greater sense of accomplishment and improving valuable work skills.

3. Job enrichment

Job enrichment involves raising the level of responsibility associated with a particular job by allowing workers a greater voice in the planning, execution, and evaluation of their own activities. It can also be used to increase employee commitment and job satisfaction. For example, in one such program, assembly-line workers were divided into teams, each of which was given many of the responsibilities that were previously held by frontline supervisors,

including ordering supplies, setting output rates, creating quality control inspection systems, and even appraising their own performance. This independence and increased responsibility can go a long way toward increasing motivation, job satisfaction and OC for many workers.

4. Changes in the pay structure

According to research, the perception of fairness in pay is associated with greater job satisfaction and OC. And although the relationship between pay and OC is not always a direct, positive one, there is some evidence that employees who are compensated well are less likely to search for jobs elsewhere. Although most innovative compensation programs are introduced primarily in an effort to improve job performance, many changes also increase levels of job satisfaction and OC. One innovative compensation program is **skill-based pay** (also known as knowledge-based pay), which involves paying employees an hourly rate based on their knowledge and skills rather than on the particular job to which they are assigned. In other words, workers are paid for the level of the job that they are able to perform rather than for the level of the position that they hold. **Merit pay** is a plan in which the amount of compensation is directly a function of an employee's performance. In merit pay plans, workers receive a financial bonus based on their individual output.

5. Gain sharing

Another strategy for the implementation of pay-for-performance systems is to make pay contingent on effective group performance. In gainsharing, if a work group or department reaches a certain performance goal, all members of the unit receive a bonus. Because the level of productivity among workers usually varies, the gainsharing program must be viewed as being fair to all involved.

6. Profit Sharing

A more common plan is profit sharing, in which all employees receive a small share of the organization's profits. The notion underlying profit sharing is to instill a sense of ownership in employees, to increase both commitment to the organization and to improve motivation and productivity.

7. Employee ownership

Employee ownership is a program where employees own all or part of an organization. Employee ownership can take one of two forms: **direct ownership** or **employee stock ownership**. In direct ownership, the employees are the sole owners of the organization. In employee stock ownership programs, which are the more common of the two, stock options are considered part of a benefit package whereby employees acquire shares of company stock

over time. Each employee eventually becomes a company stockholder and has voting rights in certain company decisions. Proponents of these programs claim that although they are expensive, the costs are offset by savings created by increased employee organizational commitment, productivity, work quality, and job satisfaction, and decreases in rates of absenteeism and turnover.

8. Flexible work schedules

Another strategy for improving worker satisfaction and commitment is to provide alternative or flexible work schedules. Flexible work schedules give workers greater control over their workday, which can be important in large urban areas, where workers are able to commute at nonpeak times, or for workers with child-care responsibilities. One type of flexible schedule is compressed workweeks, in which the number of workdays is decreased while the number of hours worked per day is increased. Most common are four 10-hour days, and certain groups, such as nurses, may work three 12-hour shifts per week. Workers may prefer a compressed schedule because the extra day off allows workers time to take care of tasks that need to be done Monday through Friday, such as going to the doctor, dentist, or tax accountant. Usually compressed workweeks include a three-day weekend, which allows workers more free time to take weekend vacations.

Flextime is a scheduling system whereby a worker is committed to a specified number of hours per week (usually 40) but has some flexibility concerning the starting and ending times of any particular workday. Often flextime schedules operate around a certain core of hours during which all workers must be on the job (such as 10 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.). However, the workers can decide when to begin and end the workday as long as they are present during the core period and work an 8-hour day. Some flextime schedules even allow workers to borrow and carry hours from one workday to the next or, in some extremely flexible programs, from one week to another. The only stipulation is that an average of 40 hours per week is maintained. Obviously, only certain types of jobs can accommodate flextime.

9. Benefit programs

Perhaps the most common way for employers to try to increase employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment is through various benefit programs. Benefit programs can include flexible working hours, a variety of health-care options, different retirement plans, profit sharing, career development programs, health promotion programs, and employee-sponsored child care. These programs has the potential of becoming one of the most popular and sought-

after benefits and may have the extra advantage of helping to decrease absenteeism caused by employees' occasional inability to find adequate child care.

Growing in popularity are flexible, or "cafeteria-style," benefit plans, where employees choose from a number of options. Lawler (1971) long ago argued that allowing employees to choose their own benefits led to increases in job satisfaction and ensured that the benefits suited each employee's unique needs.

Cafeteria-style benefits plan: This custom-selection option is an employee benefits plan that allows your employees to choose among a variety of offerings to create a benefits package that best meets their needs and those of their family. In a cafeteria-style plan, employees are allowed to select among various nontaxable benefits and cash.

1.10 LET US SUM UP

In conclusion, happiness at work includes job satisfaction, work engagement and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are key determinants of the experience of work and central to understanding and managing organizational behaviour. Studying these factors helps managers to understand employees' behavior toward the organization they work for. Attaining knowledge about these concepts could assist the management of an organization in providing strategies to boost satisfaction and commitment among employees.

1.11 KEY WORDS

Workplace Happiness: Happiness at work is when someone enjoys his work and loves what he does at work.

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction consists of the feelings and attitudes one has about one's job. It can be understood as the general behavior and employee's attitudes towards his/her job. It is commonly defined as a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics.

Organizational Commitment: it is the degree of loyalty an individual feels toward the organization.

Core Self-Evaluation (CSE): a stable personality trait which encompasses an individual's subconscious, fundamental evaluations about themselves, their own abilities and their own control.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): a type of business self-regulation that aims to contribute to societal goals of a philanthropic, activist, or charitable nature by engaging in or supporting volunteering or ethically-oriented practices.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee's formal job requirements, and is not usually rewarded, but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization.

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CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: Measures of Happiness at Work

UNIT 2: MEASURES OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE: AFFECTIVE ENGAGEMENT, MOTIVATION

STRUCTURE

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2.3 AFFECTIVE ENGAGEMENT

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2.17 LET US SUM UP

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2.0 INTRODUCTION

The mental health and well-being of employees are crucial factors in an organization's performance and success. The dynamics of employee well-being at work are pivotal for understanding the different components that affect their health, work behaviour and performance. There are resources on individual, group, managerial and organizational levels that are strongly related to employee well-being. Subjective well-being is connected with levels of workplace stress, absenteeism, intrinsic motivation, commitment, innovation, and satisfaction. Work-related well-being and workplace happiness have been identified as important factors in performance, job satisfaction, and susceptibility to burnout. Organizational programmes designed to reduce negative workplace outcomes like burnout or stress are often risk-based, problem-focused and negatively framed approaches to mental health. There are far fewer positively framed programs or interventions that aim to promote and to improve positive and inner aspects of employees' wellbeing at the primer level. Thus, the contributory factors of employee workplace well-being and happiness should be considered very important components of mental health and subjective well-being per se. Many work-related happiness constructs focus largely on the hedonic experiences of pleasure and liking, and/or positive beliefs about an object (e.g. job satisfaction, affective commitment, the experience of positive emotions while working etc.). Other constructs include both hedonic and eudaimonic content, the latter involving learning/development, growth, autonomy, and self-actualization etc. Two of these constructs employee engagement and motivation are discussed in detail in the given manuscript.

In this unit we will discuss the measures of happiness at workplace viz. affective engagement, motivation in detail. Also, the relationship between workplace happiness and affective engagement, motivation will be discussed.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain what employee engagement is

- Explain what affective engagement it
- Understand the concept of employee motivation
- Discuss the importance of employee engagement and employee motivation
- in workplace happiness
- Discuss how one can manage one's affect/emotions at workplace
- Learn ways to enhance employee engagement and employee motivation

2.2 EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Employee engagement is a multi-faceted, multi layered construct that can be defined as the intensity of productive involvement with an activity. A comprehensive definition of employee engagement includes one's involvement, focus, participation, and persistence on a task. Scholars have understood employee engagement as a work-related state of mind characterised by feelings of vigour, fulfilment, enthusiasm, absorption and dedication. The conceptualization of engagement as a multidimensional construct considers employee engagement consisting of three components viz. affective, behavioral, and cognitive which are conceptually separate, though related.

There are four approaches to employee engagement, these being *the need satisfying* approach; the *burnout-antithesis* approach, the *satisfaction engagement* approach, and the *multidimensional* approach. The breadth and depth of interpretations about employee engagement means that it resonates across multiple disciplines from psychology to sociology to management science and organisational behaviour. Influencing factors from each of these areas have an impact on how the constituent parts of the concept are perceived. Hence employee engagement can be summarised as:

- ✓ A state of being which includes vigour, dedication, and absorption
- ✓ Which encompasses satisfaction, enthusiasm, involvement and commitment-the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self
- ✓ Is part of a wider employee 'experience'
- ✓ Which in turn creates employees who are mentally and emotionally invested in their work-leading to a state of fulfillment in employees and increased discretionary effort
- ✓ It consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that is associated with individual role performance
- ✓ But also includes the inclination or orientation to experience the world from a particular vantage point

- ✓ It is influenced by the level of resources, including personal resources such as resilience, and organisational resources required to energize and motivate employees (and counteract hindrance demands, such as overly intense work, de-energize employees and deplete levels of engagement)
- ✓ It is dependent on contextual elements created by the team or organisational environment
- ✓ And is increasingly seen as part of a broader approach to workforce management.

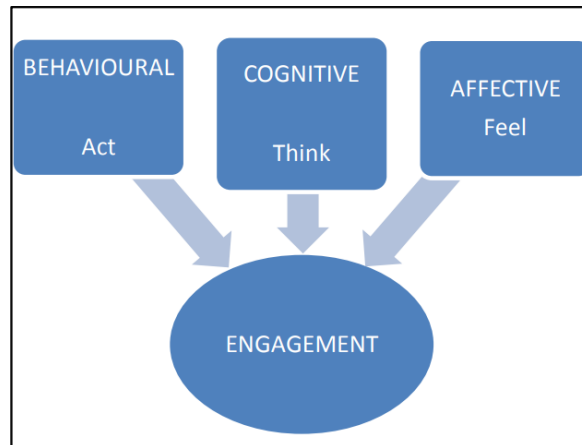


Fig. 2.1 Elements of Employee Engagement

2.3 AFFECTIVE ENGAGEMENT

The affective component of employee engagement describes emotional attachments to the organization (i.e., feeling included, valued, and part of the team). It essentially refers to whether people ‘love’ their job or not. But that is simplifying it. In less colloquial terms, affectively engaged employees are happy to be at work. This is perhaps one of the most important aspects of employee engagement. It is the difference between somebody sitting at their desk daydreaming about their next holiday, or being fully and happily focussed on the task in front of them. In fact, Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) reports that employees who are satisfied at work perform an average of 20 percent better than their dissatisfied counterparts. One way employees can experience emotional connectedness and optimism at work is through genuine relationships with others (e.g., managers, peers, customers). These are built in part through trust, which has been considered a critical antecedent of engagement. Lencioni (2002) suggests authentic relationships in the workplace occur when individuals make a choice to invest in these relationships, believing in their colleagues’ good intentions, valuing their ideas and seeking their opinions.

2.4 THE DRIVERS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Employee engagement is influenced by a variety of factors, in which the driving factors help increase the engagement level and hindering factors might challenge the level of engagement. There is numerous amount of driving factors which influence employee engagement. Typically, there are eight factors which are usually mentioned: -

1. **Trust and integrity:** this driver concerns with the attention and care from the employer, regarding the employees' well-being and communicating ability.
2. **Nature of the job:** this refers to the opportunities to take part in the jobs' routine and decision-making on a certain level.
3. **Line-of-Sight between individual performance and company performance:** this shows the relationship between the employees' understanding on the company's goals and the awareness of how their contribution impacts on the company's performance.
4. **Career growth opportunities:** this refers to the path in the employees' career development.
5. **Pride about the company:** this driver is about the self-esteem in correlation with the company, which is the desire to be a part of the organization and the willingness to develop with the organization.
6. **Coworkers/team members:** this implies on the level of engagement influenced by the relationship with the employees' colleagues.
7. **Employee development:** this driver is related to the employees' skills and their desire to develop in their work tasks.
8. **Personal relationship with one's manager:** this driver concerns with the relationship between the employees and their direct or first line managers.

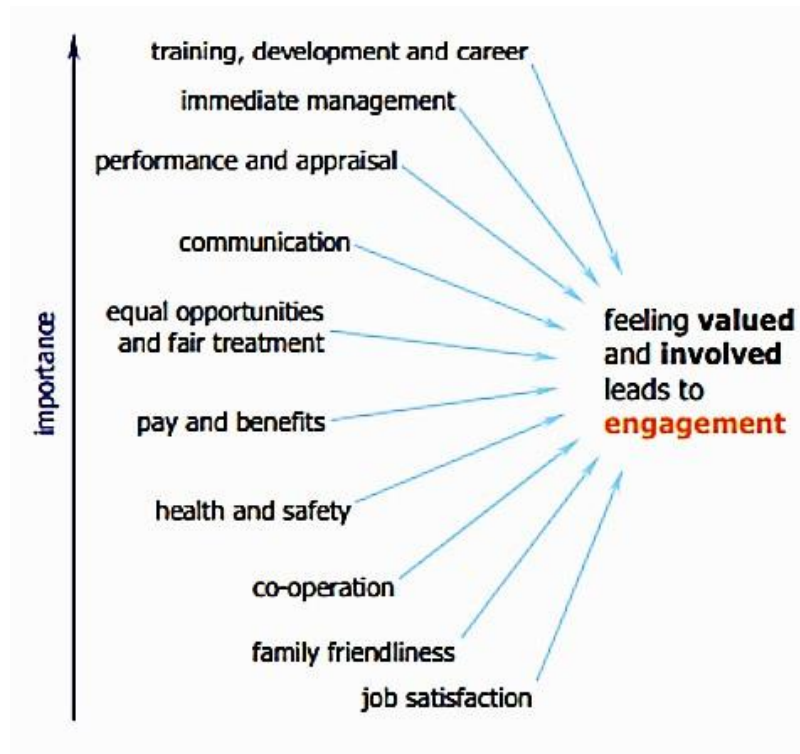


Fig. 2.2 Drivers of Employee Engagement

2.5 IMPORTANCE OF AFFECTIVE EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Throughout the research, employee engagement is consistently portrayed as something given by the employee which can benefit both the individual and the organisation through commitment, dedication and discretionary effort; as well as utilising talent to its fullest extent. It is argued that engagement occurs when people bring in or leave out their personal selves during their work and is characterised by physical, cognitive and emotional factors enabling engaged employees to contribute in a way that is psychologically beneficial leading to appreciation, affirmation, respect and greater meaningfulness in work.

An engaged employee achieves above average levels of productivity and contributes significantly to team effectiveness; an engaged team is a source of unit or departmental efficiency; but an engaged workforce is a potential source of organisation wide competitiveness and strategic advantage. Engaged employees are enthusiastic about their work, are committed to the organisation's mission and vision, and willing to go above and beyond their assigned duties to deliver it. Their collective output can have a disproportionate impact on the achievement of objectives, the strategies to do so and effective stewardship and policy in their delivery. The perceived benefits of employee engagement explain why it has been such a compelling issue over the past thirty years. There has been a good deal of practitioner-based

fact finding to demonstrate its effectiveness and the resulting outputs have linked employee engagement to better shareholder returns and income; revenue growth and higher profit margins on the one hand; and lower absenteeism and job stress, better health and overall well-being on the other. Consultancies and research firms argue that employee engagement is closely related to business outcomes because engaged employees ‘go the extra mile’ for their colleagues, their organisations and themselves. A nationwide study in the UK concluded that ‘it is our firm belief that it can be a triple win: for the individual at work, the enterprise or service, and for the country as a whole’.

Also, when a member of the workforce is clear about what is expected of them, is confident in having the knowledge and skills for the chosen role and has a positive attitude and behaviour; when they work in an organisation where leaders communicate clearly a vision for the future and who recognise individual contribution towards it; when values are lived, creating a sense of trust and integrity; and where there is a channel for the workforce to voice their views and concerns, then the possibilities of engagement are high.

Critical to organisational achievement is having the right people in the right place at the right time with the right level of skills and a workforce that is fully engaged with commitment and dedication as well as discretionary effort, using their talent to its fullest extent in support of the desired goals and values. Employers want engaged employees because, as well as being happier, healthier and more fulfilled, they are more motivated and deliver improved business performance; and are increasingly looking to provide positive engagement as part of an overall employee experience.

Kaur’s (2017) extensive literature review concluded that employee engagement was a distinctive and exclusive concept different from commitment and job satisfaction; and that it united three parts, these being physical, involving physical labour during work and displaying positive energy; emotional whereby an employee can connect individual ‘self’ and dedication with organisational objectives; and cognitive which includes awareness, experience and skills. By 2017, the UK Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development were able to conclude that ‘employees who have good quality jobs and are managed well, will not only be happier, healthier and more fulfilled, but are also more likely to drive productivity, better products or services, and innovation. This “mutual gains” view of motivation and people management lies at the heart of employee engagement’. Employee engagement is increasingly recognised as a contributor to positive outcomes at both individual and organisational level.

Studies have identified relationships between affective employee engagement and shareholder returns, operating income, revenue growth, profit margins, creativity and innovation and

customer or client satisfaction, whilst work engagement has been associated with turnover intention, task performance, contextual performance, and employee well-being. There is also evidence that affectively engaged employees outperformed non-engaged co-workers. The US based Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) put forward the view that ‘employees who are engaged in their work and committed to their organisations give companies crucial competitive advantages—including higher productivity and lower employee turnover’. In the UK, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) drew on research concerning links between people management and business performance, concluding that there were positive relationships with profit, revenue growth, customer satisfaction, productivity, innovation, staff retention and efficiency. The practice based case for employee engagement has been well-articulated and, ‘it is no wonder that employee engagement has become a high priority, if not the top priority for organisations and the key to competitiveness and effectiveness making it the most important issue among senior HR professionals’, especially where there is empirical evidence of links between employee engagement, its drivers and desired outcomes. The diversity of organisations seeking a model for engagement is reflected in the Glassdoor survey of employee perspectives on the best places to work which spanned organisations as diverse as Bain, and LinkedIn; Southwest Airlines and St. Jude’s Children’s Research Hospital.

2.6 STRATEGIES TO MANAGE ONE’S AFFECT/EMOTIONS AT WORKPLACE

It’s possible to become more aware of your emotions and to recognize and identify the feelings you’re having so that you understand what triggered them and learn to manage them more effectively.

- **Recognize your emotions in their early stages, before they feel out of control.** By reviewing your day’s activities and the feelings that were triggered by them, there’s a good chance you will discover the source of whatever difficult feelings you may have experienced. If writing things down helps you clarify your thoughts, you might try doing this as you’re reviewing your emotions and the work circumstances when they occurred.
- **Learn to express your emotions in appropriate ways.** Allow yourself to deal with difficult feelings in appropriate ways for the work place. If you feel angry, take the time to consider what may have triggered the feeling and consider actions you could take to diffuse such a situation in the future. You don’t need to pretend you’re not feeling the way you are, but you do need to deal with the emotions so that they do not affect your interactions with others. Kerry

Patterson's books *Crucial Conversations* and *Crucial Confrontations* contain practical advice for managing difficult emotions even when talking about difficult subjects.

- **Give appropriate feedback to clear the air.** For example, if a co-worker has said something in a meeting that offended you and this is bothering you, talk with the person about it, preferably soon after the event and in private. Be matter-of-fact and focus on what was said or done and how it made you feel, without attacking the person individually. Remember, even though expressing your emotions can be useful, it's never appropriate to do so at work by yelling at or demeaning others.

- **Remember how you managed a problem in the past.** If an event at work -- like a conflict with a co-worker or an unusually stressful workload -- is triggering an emotional challenge, consider how you overcame a similar problem in the past. What worked? What didn't?

- **Problem-solve by writing it down.** This can be especially helpful if a problem is keeping you awake at night. If you are having an ongoing conflict with a coworker, you might write: "Every time we talk, even about unimportant things, we end up arguing. Maybe I did something to offend him once but don't know it. Maybe ask him out for lunch and find out." This can help you come up with strategies, and can keep the problem from distracting you.

- **Seek support from your company's employee assistance program (EAP).** Talking to a professional can help you gain perspective on problems and come up with solutions as well as specific techniques that will help you manage your emotions more effectively.

- **Build up your emotional resilience.** Pay attention to your overall physical and psychological health. Eat well, get enough sleep, and exercise regularly. If you're well-rested, well-nourished, and physically strong, you'll have more energy to meet emotional challenges. This will help keep you "emotionally resilient" and help you feel more in control of your emotions and your life.

- **Maintain support systems outside of work.** Talking honestly about your concerns with close friends or your partner can help reduce your anxiety and keep problems in perspective. Choose someone you trust who knows you well enough to give you honest feedback when you need it.

- **Cultivate interests outside of work, including activities with good friends.** Remember, not all satisfaction comes from work accomplishments.

Researcher Sigal Barsade observes, "You bring your brain to work. You bring your emotions to work. Feelings drive performance." Emotions often have a positive impact at work. Learning to manage our most challenging emotions takes effort, but the payoff is big. We learn to deal with problems before they overwhelm us, we're better team participants, and, most

importantly, we increase our sense of control and effectiveness in our lives-both at work and outside of work.

Check your progress

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Based on what you've learned so far, explain why employee engagement is considered important for an organization's success?• What can an average employee do on his or her own to make the workplace a more emotionally engaging place? |
|--|

2.7 AFFECTIVE ENGAGEMENT AND WORK MOTIVATION

Until relatively recently, emotion has been a neglected topic in the organizational behavior literature. This may be because people tend to view emotion as the antithesis of rationality, thereby acting as a barrier to effective management, or because, more broadly, emotion has been somewhat neglected in many domains of behavioral science. However, management scholars have begun to direct much more attention to work-related emotion. Despite this recent focus of research, emotion is still largely neglected in existing organizational theories of work motivation that provide micro foundational explanations about why and how people behave in particular ways in their workplaces. Theories of motivation began to be developed as early as the 1930s and 1940s, focusing on “psychological processes involved with the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed”. Yet emotion has not been the main focus of any mainstream theories of work motivation. Rather, motivation theories emphasize factors such as basic human needs-for example, needs theories; various exogenous stimuli-for example, reinforcement theory; and thought processes and components, such as beliefs, perceptions, and goals-for example, expectancy theory, goal-setting theory, and equity theory. In general, so called cognitively based motivation theories (i.e., those that discuss “cold” rather than “hot” processes) have been predominant in scholarly understandings of work motivation. Recent theoretical and empirical advances in psychology and neurobiology make it evident that understandings of work motivation that fail to consider human emotion are incomplete. In an extensive body of research, scholars attest that human emotion is likely to influence the processes underlying motivation, and emotion constitutes an important source of influence on human thought and behavior.

2.8 MOTIVATION

Man's work, conduct and any other activities are significantly conditioned by the degree of his motivation, regardless of whether the origin of the motive is internal (impulse within man, the individual) or external (incentive by the external influences). Modern companies and other business entities pay great attention to improving the form, manner, technique and instruments of the employee motivation. Science and experience have shown that employees who are well motivated show more wishes, desires, creativity, innovation, greater company loyalty and increased satisfaction in their work. Good employee motivation creates a good business climate, strengthen relationships and builds a good and sustainable organizational behavior. Numerous studies in developed countries and large companies show that motivation is a key component of the organizational behavior and the organizational behavior is the main pillar of business dynamism, good enterprise management and successful and rapid organizational changes and the adaptation to the new business conditions and market requirements.

The word "motivation" comes from the Latin word "movere", which means move. Motivation is the driving force, internal energy and the engine of human needs. The needs are the basis, the foundation of the development of the man and society. They are the core strength of each generation, from their development depends directly the quality of society and the ability of the individual in society. Needs can be met, unrealized, suppressed or compensated by another (usually enforced) necessity. Needs and motives are not synonymous, but two different mental, and physical activities of the each individual. They exhibit synchronously and mutually encourage, cause, stop, start, develop, stagnate and disappear. What will happen to the man's (individual, group and societal) needs, depends on the degree of motivation that drives helps and influences those needs to be accomplished. Without the good motivation, many needs will remain unfulfilled or will be only partially realized. It has always raised the question- "what motivates someone to work, learn, create, launches something, gives ideas or continuously achieve success"? That is why we talk about the great importance of motivation in a person's work, business, creation and success.

2.9 DIFFERENT VIEWPOINTS OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is "the amount of energy and strength" that a person has during his activities. This is a "concern for the achievement of the set goals" that affect the man's activity, attention and "the overall cognitive activity". That motivation is the driver of wishes and needs to achieve something, confirms the view by Nazari and Guilan, who say that motivation is the "driving force with which people achieve their goals. In fact, it is a combination of effort plus the desire to achieve a goal that leads to a conscious decision to act "through continuous mental and / or

physical effort,” in order to achieve the pre-set objectives”. Motivation is “the force that directs behavior” and creates a tendency for an actor to “achieve something, to reach the goal that was previously set for himself.” Motivation is the internal driving force of physical and psychological resources of individuals who are focused on overcoming the shortcomings and the elimination of obstacles towards the realization of the set goal, the satisfaction of a need.

2.9.1. Psychological dimensions of Motivation

The motivation is seen as the driving force, receptor, guideline and the router of human behavior and performance. Motivation is primarily cognitive, contemplative and emotional dimension of every person, and that is why it is a bit mystical, hidden, secretive, and variable component of human behavior and performance. Motivation is the process of stimulating people to actions to accomplish the goals. In the work goal context the psychological factors stimulating the people’s behaviour can be-

- desire for money ● success ● recognition ● job-satisfaction ● team work, etc.

One of the most important functions of management is to create willingness amongst the employees to perform in the best of their abilities. Therefore the role of a leader is to arouse interest in performance of employees in their jobs. The word motivation is derived from the word “motive”, it means any idea, need, desire, want or drive within the individuals that encourages them to take an action.

2.10 ELEMENTS OF THE PROCESS OF MOTIVATION

Behavior: All behaviour is a series of activities. Behaviour is generally motivated by a desire to achieve a goal. In order to predict and control behaviour managers must understand the motives of people.

Motives: Motives prompt people to action. They are the primary energizers of behaviour. They are the ‘ways’ of behaviour and mainsprings of action. They are largely subjective and represent the mental feelings of human beings. They are cognitive variables. They cause behaviour in many ways. They arise continuously and determine the general direction of an individual’s behavior.

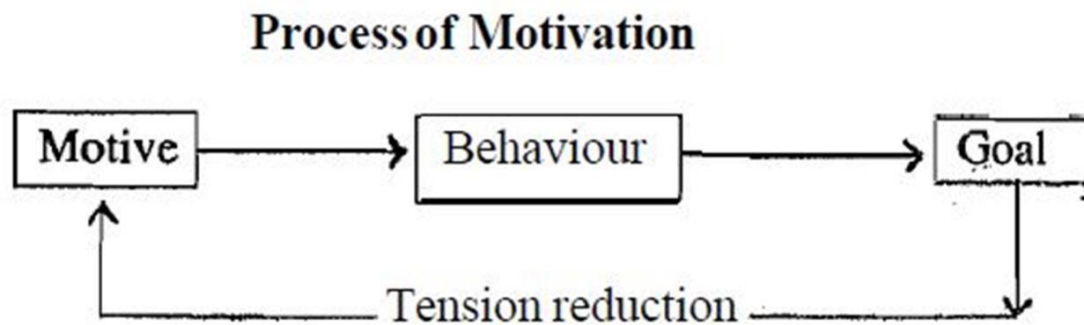


Fig. 2.3 The Process of Motivation

Goals: Motives are directed toward goals. Motives generally create a state of disequilibrium, physiological or psychological imbalance, within the individuals. Attaining a goal will tend to restore physiological or psychological balance. Goals are the ends which provide satisfaction of human wants. They are outside an individual; they are hoped for incentives toward which needs are directed. One person may satisfy his need for power by kicking subordinates and another by becoming the president of a company. Thus, a need can be satisfied by several alternate goals.

2.11 FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

1. Motivation is goal-oriented;
2. Motivation is a continuous process;
3. Motivation may be positive or negative;
4. Motivation may be monetary or non-monetary;
5. Motivation may be considered in totality, not in piecemeal;
6. Motivation is a psychological phenomenon that converts abilities into performance.

2.12 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation may be classified on following bases:

2.12.1. Positive or negative

Positive motivation: It is the process of attempting to influence the employees' behavior through recognition & appreciation of employees' efforts and contribution towards achievement of organisational goal. Examples of positive motivators are – taking interest in subordinate's benefits, appreciation and credit for work done, delegating the authority and responsibility of subordinates etc.

Negative motivation: It is based upon fear i.e. demotion, lay off etc. The fear of punishment affects the behaviour towards changes. Though punishment has resulted in controlling the

misbehaviour and contributed towards positive performance but it may also lead to poor performance & lower productivity.

2.12.2. Extrinsic and intrinsic

Extrinsic Motivation: It arises away from the job. It does not occur on the job. These factors include wages, fringe benefits, medical reimbursement, etc. Thus, they are generally associated with financial incentives

Intrinsic Motivation: This type of motivation occurs on the job and provides satisfaction during the performance of work itself. Intrinsic or internal motivators include recognition, status, authority, participation etc

2.12.3. Financial or non-financial

Financial Motivation: It is associated with money. It includes wages and salaries, fringe benefits, bonus, retirement benefits etc.

Non-financial Motivation: This type of motivation is not associated with monetary rewards. It includes intangible incentives like ego satisfaction, self-actualisation and responsibility.

2.13. PROCESS OF MOTIVATION IN THE WORLD OF WORK

5 Steps of Motivation Process

1. Identify Unsatisfied Needs and Motives.
2. Tension.
3. Action to satisfy needs and motives.
4. Goal accomplishment.
5. Feedback.

- 1. Identify Unsatisfied Needs and Motives:** The first process of motivation involves unsatisfied needs and motives. Unsatisfied needs activated by internal stimuli such as hunger and thirst. They can also be activated by external stimuli such as advertisement
- 2. Tension:** Unsatisfied needs to create tension in the individual. Such tension can be physical, psychological, and sociological. In this situation, people try to develop objects that will satisfy their needs.
- 3. Action to satisfy needs and motives:** Such tension creates a strong internal stimulus that calls for action. The individual engages in activities to satisfy needs and motives for tension reduction. For this purpose, alternatives are searched and choice is made, the action can be hard work for earning more money.

4. **Goal accomplishment:** Action to satisfy needs and motives accomplishes goals. It can be achieved through reward and punishment. When actions are carried out as per the tensions, then people are rewarded others are punished. Ultimately goals are accomplished.
5. **Feedback:** Feedback provides information for revision or improvement or modification of needs as needed. Depending on how well the goal is accomplished their needs and motives are modified.

Drastic changes in environment necessitate the revision and modification of needs. Usually, performance is determined by:

1. ability,
2. environment and
3. motivation.

If any of these three factors is missing or deficient, effective performance is impossible. A manager may have the most highly qualified employees under him and provide them with the best possible environment, but effective performance will not result unless the subordinates are motivated to perform well. Therefore, management can do its job effectively only through motivating employees to work for the accomplishment of organizational objectives.

2.14. FACTORS AFFECTING MOTIVATION

Many authors agree that motivation consists of two important factors: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. According to a self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (2000) there are two types of motivation which are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation that influence the performance of employees within an organization. This claim is supported by Chaudhary (2012). It is thus argued that motivation is an important aspect of getting the best out of employees, therefore, it is the responsibility of a manager to understand the effect of each of the above motivators and the mechanism between them, that is, how internal motivator leads to external and vice versa.

2.14.1. EXTRINSIC FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

1. **Monetary Compensation/Salaries-**The most significant motivational strategy. It has the supremacy to magnetize, retain and motivate individuals towards higher performance. Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate described money as the most fundamental factor in motivating the industrial workers to attain greater productivity.

Effective use of rewards to motivate employee can enhance the bottom line of any organization because when employees are motivated, their productivity level increases which has a multiplier effect on the organization.

2. **Good Leadership Relations**-Leadership is the ability and willingness to influence the way and thinking of other people without forcing them. Good leadership relation is an important factor in fostering employee motivation. Providing employees with the supports they needed such as helping them with job related problems, good communication, regular feedback about employee performance increases employee motivational level. Employee want to have sense of belonging, have inputs into decisions that affect them, feel important and appreciated. They want to be informed and involved at work place. Employees are motivated when a job brings recognition and respect for them.
3. **Job security**-Job security has become indispensable in employee and organization preference list, particularly due to economic reasons. Thus, it has become one of the most crucial and important factors driving employee motivation and performance. Researches show that globally about 75% of the employees preferred to keep their jobs compared to other factors in their preference list. The most desire of every employee is to keep their jobs for as long as they wish. In this view, it implied that job security is a determinant factor and key element influencing an employee's decision on whether to join an organization or not. Osuagwu (2002) found that job security has significant effect on employee performance and employees are less motivated to work when job security is low.
4. **Job Enrichment**-Job enrichment is a job redesign technique that allows employees to have autonomy on how they perform their own tasks, giving them more responsibility. As an alternative to job specialization, companies/organizations using job enrichment may experience positive outcomes such as increased motivation, reduced turnover, increased productivity, and reduced absences. This may be because employees who have the authority and responsibility over their own work can be more efficient, eliminate unnecessary tasks, take shortcuts, and overall increase their own performance.
5. **Information Availability and Communication**: Managers can stimulate motivation by giving relevant information and making it readily available to the employees. There is no known organization in which people do not usually feel there should be improvement in the way departments communicate, cooperate, and collaborate with one another. Information availability brings to bear a powerful peer pressure, where two or more people running

together will run faster than when running alone or running without awareness of the pace of the other runners. By sharing information, subordinates compete with one another hence lifting up each other's self confidence.

6. **Work Environment:** Employee level of motivation is also influenced by the quality of the working environment both its physical attributes and the degree to which it provides meaningful. Employees are concerned with a comfortable physical work environment that will ultimately provide extra optimistic level of motivation. Lack of favorable working conditions, amongst other things, can affect badly on the employee's mental and physical well-being. According to Arnold and Feldman (1996) factors such as working hours, temperature, ventilation, noise, hygiene, lighting, and resources are all part of working conditions. Negative performance will be provoked by poor working conditions since employees job demand mental and physical tranquility. Furthermore, when employees feel that management does not appreciate or acknowledge their efforts or work done they may use poor working conditions as an excuse to get back at management.

7. **Good Managerial Relations:** A good managerial relation is an important factor in fostering employee motivation. Those who act to maintain good relations with their employees exhibit following behaviors:

1. help with job related problems,
2. awareness of employee difficulties,
3. good communication,
4. and regular feed-back about the performance so that employees always know where they stand.
5. Employees want to have input into decisions that affect them, to feel important and appreciated.
 6. They want to be informed and involved at work place.
 7. When a job brings recognition and respect, employees are motivated with it. This is an easy condition to create with feedback.
 8. The evidence that "good management" plays a part in affecting employee motivation puts a responsibility on both the managers and the supervisors in the organization.
 9. Management needs information on employee motivation in order to make sound decisions, both in preventing and solving employee problems.
 10. A typical method used is employee motivation surveys, also known as a morale, opinion, attitude, or quality-of-work-life survey.

11. An employee motivation survey is a procedure by which employees report their feelings towards their jobs and work environment. Individual responses are then combined and analyzed.

8. Promotion Opportunities: Promotional opportunities affect employee motivation considerably. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, responsibility, independence and status among others. An average employee takes promotion as the ultimate achievement in their career and when it is realized, he/she feels extremely satisfied. If an organization provides employees the necessary factors for promotion such as facilities, ability and skills, then employees will be automatically motivated and satisfied. Promotion and satisfaction have a direct relationship.

9. Work Group: The work group does serve as source of motivation to individual employees. It does so primarily by providing group members with opportunities for interaction with each other. It is well known that for many employees work fills the need for social interaction. The work group is even stronger source of motivation when members have similar attitudes and values as it causes less friction on a day-to-day basis. Co-workers with similar attitudes and values can also provide some confirmation of a person's self-concept.

10. Nature of Job: Many years of research in different organizations and jobs have shown that nature of job itself becomes a dominant factor of job employee motivation when employees assess different aspects of their work, like supervision, growth opportunities, salaries, and colleagues and so on. When the job performed by an employee is perceived to be important, this will increase motivation level. Work challenges let employees utilize their skills, knowledge and intelligence to deal with complexities involved in their job.

11. Co-Workers

A co-worker is a person who holds a position or rank similar to that of an employee in the same company/organization. Co-workers are a distinct part of the working environment, and employees are expected to work harmoniously with other employees. People seek friendly, warm and cooperative relationships with others, not only for what these relationships produce in the immediate present, but also for what they provide in those times of need, such as social support. Bagraim, Cunningham, Potgieter and Viedge (2007) suggest that employees should be technically, emotionally and socially supportive of one another. Harmonious interactions

between an individual and their fellow employees, as well as relations between other fellow employees with each other, have a positive influence on an individual's level of organizational commitment and motivation. Pleasant associations with co-workers have been found to have a positive influence on an individual's level of motivation.

2.14.2. INTRINSIC FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Intrinsic motivation is the desire of an individual to perform his/her work well, in order to achieve the satisfaction of intrinsic needs. In other words, an individual performs a task in order to achieve certain types of internal states, which he/she experiences as intrinsic motivation relates to psychological rewards such as the recognition of a task completed. External rewards such as food, money, praise, and so on, are not the main reason for a person to engage in activities. Intrinsic motives can be satisfied by the work itself. In other words, the task itself is the main source of motivation, since it provides interest, stimulation, challenges, and opportunities for personal growth and achievement to the individual. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external products, pressures or reward. According to him, when intrinsically motivated, the individual will strive to satisfy three innate psychological needs, namely: autonomy, competence and relatedness. Intrinsically motivated employees like to have substantial freedom to make decisions, freedom to express creativity, opportunity for advancement, recognition for good work and so on. For such employees, external rewards such as food, money, praise and so on are not the main reason to engage in activities. Intrinsic motives can be satisfied by the work itself.

2.14.3. OTHER IMPORTANT DETERMINANTS OF MOTIVATION

1. Empowerment and Autonomy

Clutterbuck and Kernaghan (1994) defined empowerment as encouraging and allowing employees to take personal responsibility for any improvement brought about in the performance of their assigned task whilst contributing to the attainment of the overall objective of the organization. Employee empowerment and autonomy grants people with responsibility and ability to act as it put people in control of their own destiny. Empowerment and autonomy not only increase employee effectiveness, efficiency and innovation but also serves as a booster to employee fulfilment, work motivation and trust in the organization. According to a survey conducted by Sibson (1994), over half of the respondents to the study said that they draw much of their job satisfaction and work motivations from work characteristics which provide feelings of control over work and independence of decision making. Improving autonomy and

independence in the workplace can cause a transformation of the work experience leading to better performance. Overall, employee empowerment and participation consists of contribution of employees in management and decision making associated to policies, objectives and strategies of the organization. Empowerment results in motivating employees that leads to constant expansion and organizational growth.

2. Responsibility

According to Lai (2011), employee participation may enhance motivation and job satisfaction through power sharing, and increased responsibility. Employee participation can provide individuals an opportunity to make key managerial decisions that have an impact on other employees, thus increasing job satisfaction and performance.

3. Recognition and Employee Motivation

According to Kamalian, Yaghoubi and Moloudi, (2010, 165-171) rewards and recognition are essential factors in enhancing employee motivation and job satisfaction which is directly associated to organizational achievement. He posited that taking time to say you recognize them, makes the employees to do more than they would normally do. Recognition as an intrinsic motivation involves the psychological rewards gained by doing a job well. Recognition can be in the form verbal or written recognition of an employee's achievements, skills, or overall performance. He argued further that intrinsic rewards such as recognition tends to drive employee motivation on a day-to-day level, rather than the tangible rewards. Researches have shown that creating a workplace culture that celebrates and promotes the achievements of staffs through recognition and rewards are crucial for boosting employee motivation.

4. Fairness of Treatment

Perception of fairness deals with how people feel about the distribution of rewards, opportunities and the process by which these are allocated and how people are treated. It is vital for the success of every organization because it can affect the long-term viability of any organization in terms of the relationship between the employer and employees. Therefore, organizations must strive to make sure that there is always the spirit of trust, sense of

commitment and appreciable level of satisfaction among employees. Research has demonstrated that fair treatment has important effects on individual employee attitudes, such as motivation, satisfaction, commitment and individual behavior.

Trust is defined as the perception of one about others, decision to act based on communication, behavior and their decision. Trust as a concept is complex and in order it to work, it requires both trusting beliefs and trusting intentions. In a study that took 30 years, the result clearly proved that trust is a factor that keeps people together. Trust creates an invisible bond between trusted people, whether they are colleagues, friends or classmates. In other words, trust enables us to make transactions with other trustworthy people and seclude the untrustworthy. In business, transactions are, whether material or immaterial, vital. If a certain organization suffers from culture of distrust among its employees and employer, this will possibly lead the organization to eventually underachieve in its business markets. Put differently, organizations that foster trust are generally more profitable.

5. Opportunities for Personal Development

Personal development opportunities affect employee motivation considerably. The quality and variety of employee training and development available at a workplace are key for employee motivation. An employee perception of opportunities for personal growth and development is one of the important predictors of employee motivation. Many employees want to move forward with their career and not remain stagnant. In an empirical study conducted by Quantum Workplace, employees listed professional growth opportunities as one of their highest drivers of motivation. Conversely, existing employees listed lack of growth opportunities as the second highest reason for leaving. The implication of the study result is that organizations that offers opportunities for employee development are likely to have high retention rate while lack of employee development opportunities will likely result in employee turnover.

6. Total Life Space

The idea of “total life space” is a new concept for human resource managers, growing in importance as the number of employees grow. Employees want to be able to balance the

demands of work and home. To do this, they want their managers to expect a reasonable amount of work, but not so much that the job interferes with personal life.

7. Meaningful Work/Task Significance

The extent to which an employee perceives the job he or she is performing as having a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are within or outside the organization is called task significance (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2008). Most people work to earn a living, but also because of the other satisfactions that come with the job, such as doing something meaningful. Meaningful work is considered as a very important factor when it comes to intrinsic employee motivation. Employees want their work to be meaningful to them.

Meaningful work is an emerging factor for valued outcomes of organizations. Outcomes, task distinctiveness and meaningful work are important for such people who have the desire for achievement. Employee motivation cannot be separate from demand of meaningful work. It is the duty of managers to make work meaningful for their employees so that they can be motivated with their job and due to this, employees will show a positive response in the organization. Success, achievement and status are included in the meaningful work experiences.

8. Training and Development

Training provides chances to employees' growth and enhances their knowledge and skills for effective development. Trained workers are more motivated with their job as compared to untrained employees. By getting the training programs employees are able to get self assured, evolution of career, and have positive thought for their organizations/companies. The aim of these training and management programs is to amend employees' skills and organization potentialities.

2.15 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is very important for an organization because of the following benefits it provides:

- ✓ Puts human resources into action
- ✓ Improves level of efficiency of employees. Also, employee motivation leads to higher employee Productivity
- ✓ Leads to achievement of organizational goals
- ✓ Builds friendly relationship

- ✓ Leads to stability of workforce Employee Motivation leads to lower level of Absenteeism and lesser incidence of Employee Turnover
- ✓ Employee Motivation leads to lesser Unionization among employees
- ✓ Employee Motivation has a positive association with mental and physical health

1. **Proper utilization of production factor:** Motivation is the mechanism which is used to stimulate the employees. Stimulated employees are ready to use the production factor properly and efficiently. So it results in increase in production and productivity.

2. **Willingness and interest creation:** Motivation stimulates the employees in an organization. It influences the willingness of employees to work hard and help to present better performance. It is a process that acts according to desire of employees and increases the willingness and interest of employees to do work.

3. **High productivity:** When the employees are fully motivated there is better performance. It results high production and productivity increment.

4. **Organizational goals:** The machine, equipment, money cannot be effectively used when the employees are not motivated to do the work in an organization to the maximum extent.so it helps to achieve the organizational goals.

5. **Readiness for change:** Changes are required in every organization. Such changes may be in technology, environment etc. when the changes are introduced in the organization there is tendency to resist them by the employee or hesitate to accept the change. Motivated employees are already made ready to accept the change.

6. **Efficiency in work:** Motivated employees perform their duties according to the goals of the organization. They perform work efficiently and timely and increase the efficiency

7. **Reduce absenteeism:** Motivated employees don't want to be absent frequently. In other words, Motivated employees stay in the organization more and non-motivated employees are careless for the organizational goals.

8. **Employees' satisfaction:** employee's satisfaction is an important aspect for the managerial point of view. Employees may be motivated by fulfilling their needs and giving satisfaction in their work. In short, motivated employees are always satisfied.

9. **Fewer disputes and strikes:** disputes and strikes are harmful for organizational activities. When the employees are not motivates they are dissatisfies which creates disputes in the organization.

10. **Better human relations:** all employees must be treated as human beings by the organization. Motivation I mainly related to behave the human beings.

Check your progress

- Based on what you've learned in this chapter, explain which type of motivation (extrinsic or intrinsic) do you think is most important to the majority of employees?
- Which kind of motivation do you think is most important to you?

2.16 STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION

Below given are the nine strategies to help drive engagement and inspire your employees:

1. Set goals to create meaning

Goal-setting gives employees meaning in their day-to-day roles: employees who are brought along on the goal-setting journey are 3.6 times more likely to be engaged than those who are not. To motivate employees, you should:

- Establish what's expected of them
- Help them visualize what success in their role looks like
- Explain how their contribution makes a difference to the business

Creating the connection between your people's objectives and the goals of the organisation is particularly important. For example, if your organization's mission is 'Awesome customer service' how is this value reflected for an employee working in the finance department?

Recognizing that each team member has different sources of motivation, then linking these back to the overall goals of your organisation is key. In fact, surveys have shown that 55% of employees – regardless of age, sex, region or tenure – would be more motivated if they believed they were doing meaningful work. One-third said they would take more pride in their work and be willing to work extra hours to get the job done.

2. Celebrate milestones big and small

It's not just the big wins that should be acknowledged: setting and celebrating mini-milestones keeps employees motivated in their day-to-day roles.

In addition to yearly or quarterly goals, set goals to track what your people are achieving on a weekly or monthly basis. These don't have to be performance-driven or KPI-focused. They can be social or cultural, or they can focus on personal development – for example, setting a goal for dealing with challenging stakeholders.

Celebrating milestones is also about understanding the challenges your people are facing. When a mini-milestone isn't met, take the opportunity to see what's blocking your team's progress, how it can be overcome, and whether the end-goal needs to be re-assessed.

3. Provide meaningful feedback

Praise is always welcome, but becomes far more meaningful when it is linked to concrete examples. "Great presentation, well done," is nice feedback to receive, but "Great presentation, your explanation of how this impacts our customer base will help us improve customer loyalty," pinpoints exactly how someone's contribution benefits the company. Giving specific, targeted feedback tells your team that you're paying attention.

The same goes for providing constructive feedback on areas of improvement: keep this feedback personalized and actionable. Consider the golden ratio of 5:1, if you deliver five positive takeaways to one negative piece of feedback, people won't feel overwhelmed with criticism. The goal should be to help your people grow and develop, so providing ongoing, timely feedback is crucial.

4. Empower problem solving and learning

Create space for your people to solve their own problems. You can provide support and guidance, but it's important to let employees lead with their own ideas and solutions. That way, they'll know their skills and perspectives are valued. Of the 560 employees surveyed in Deloitte's Talent 2020 report 42% of respondents looking for a new role believed their current job did not make good use of their skills and abilities. Nurturing a culture where problem solving and learning is encouraged means:

- Listening to your team's ideas
- Embracing their unique skills
- Encouraging self-directed learning
- Allowing them to take ownership of their work
- Creating a safe space where failure is framed as a learning opportunity

5. Follow through on promises

Keep employees motivated by establishing an atmosphere of trust and consistency that's sustained from the top-down. Be mindful of the promises you make: these can have a direct impact on employee engagement because as a manager, you represent the organisation. Often, employees don't distinguish between the promises made by a manager and those made by the company, which means losing trust in a manager can mean losing trust in the whole organisation.

Going back on a promise violates an employee's psychological contract: this is the unwritten-but no less real-set of expectations of the employment relationship. This implicit contract exists as a two-way exchange: in return for hard work an employee gets the promotion, learning opportunities, conference trips, or opportunity to participate in the interesting project. If an employee's hard work is met without the promised reward, it's not just motivation that suffers. It can also lead to feelings of resentment and betrayal, which inevitably leads to increased employee turnover.

6. Experiment and learn

There is no magical, one-size-fits-all formula for keeping employees motivated. Maintaining motivation in your people is an ongoing task filled with opportunities to experiment and learn what works (and what doesn't work) for your team. These are just a few approaches to keep in mind as you look for better ways to keep your employees happy, engaged and energized.

7. Fear

In general, fear normally peaks when the economy is at a difficult time and when the number of available jobs in the market is less than the number of qualified workers in the labour market. The current difficult economic conditions due to COVID-19 represent a good case scenario. During this time, most workers will consciously work with their best effort and continuously expand the energy to produce towards the assigned tasks. For example, workers may get to work early, stay late at work and work more than what the assigned tasks requires. However, when a fear is the main factor that influences workers to work hard, they are not so much trying to achieve, but they are just trying to make sure that they can save their jobs. Thus, employers should expect to see a great performance to stay effective temporarily, but this will still give an increase in the organisational productivity.

This strategy might be good for employers, but the potential trap of using this approach is that the high performance from workers will not last and it could even backfire on the firm. This is because when managers use fear as a motivation to influence workers to work hard, staff will eventually get used to it and at one point, fear will become the key emotion that they connect to their job and work-life. This will in turn cause bitterness, resentment and hatred which will have a negative impact on communication and cooperation between managers and frontline staff. In the worst case scenario, it could cause damage and shortage like strike and taking the issues to the union.

8. Providing Incentives

Providing Incentives is one of the most popular tools to get workers to do what managers want. Many scholars refer offering incentives as 'dangling a carrot'. It is used to describe the practice of managers when they use some kind of incentives in front of workers to get them to work in the way they want or influence them to work towards to earn a reward. In other words, giving incentive is a technique to make rewards work over a long haul.

However, there is a downside of this motivation technique too. What will happen after employees get the desired rewards or incentives is the main question that managers should consider when using this tactic. The potential trap that managers should expect to encounter when using this motivation tactic is that their workers will continue to demand a reward to do any task or give their best effort towards the assigned responsibilities. Therefore, when using this motivation tactic, managers will need to come up with new and better rewards or incentives to get workers to do their jobs. At the same time, workers may expect more and more rewards from their employer and if the desired rewards cannot be provided, they will only do what it needs to finish the assigned task, but not to the best standard that they could give.

9. Personal Growth

Personal growth is a motivator that is difficult to do as it requires a lot of efforts from managers and leaders. However, if success, managers should expect see a great individual outcome which will in turn increase organisational performance. Using personal growth as a motivator involved with managers working harder to change their employees think about their jobs, give them supports to make them to become more capable and make them feel that their jobs are meaningful in order to make to come to work and feel happy with it. Evidence in the literature suggested that the opportunity for personal growth is one of the key factors to increase the level of employee motivation. This is because it the personal growth opportunity represents a tendency of human being to look out for ourselves. For instance, a person wants to move up at work because they want acceptance, while others may want their wages to be increased in order to support their families.

2.17 LET US SUM UP

To conclude it can be said that affective employee engagement is important because having an affectively engaged workforce is well established: staff turnover is lower, motivation and performance is higher and business results (including financial) typically out-perform the market average. It has also been demonstrated that ensuring employee engagement is a key

leadership responsibility. Also, the relationship between engagement and motivation is a two way street; improve one and you also improve the other. Truly engaged employees are often intrinsically motivated. They identify as being engaged with their work, love their jobs, and are dedicated to furthering their skills and ensuring company success. This type of engagement is achieved by creating an environment that provides support and improves your employees' work lives, both physically and mentally, in a genuine a thought-out process. Simply put, employee engagement and motivation are essential to realising a productive and engaged workforce that is crucial for both the personal and organizational success.

2.18 KEYWORDS

Employee engagement: Employee engagement is a multi-faceted, multi layered construct that can be defined as the intensity of productive involvement with an activity.

Affective engagement: The affective component of employee engagement describes emotional attachments to the organization (i.e., feeling included, valued, and part of the team). It essentially refers to whether people 'love' their job or not.

Motivation: the driving force with which people achieve their goals.

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CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: Measures of Happiness at Work

UNIT-3 HAPPINESS INDEX: LIFE SATISFACTION, QUALITY OF LIFE

STRUCTURE

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3.16 LET US SUM UP

3.17 KEYWORDS

3.18 REFERENCES

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the concept of happiness and subjective well-being
- Explain what life satisfaction and quality of life are
- Understand the concept of happiness index
- Describe various factors affecting life satisfaction and quality of life

- Discuss the importance of life satisfaction and quality of life
- Discuss how one can measure life satisfaction and quality of life

3.1 : INTRODUCTION

Since times immemorial, people's highest priority in life is to be happy. Happiness is defined as the degree a person assesses the quality of his or her whole life as good. It can also be defined as how much someone likes the life they lead. Basically, happiness is a multi-dimensional concept which consists of several fundamental parts; in the emotional part, the happy individual has a happy and glad disposition; from the social aspect, the happy individual has good social relations with others and can attain social support from them; finally, from a cognitive aspect, the happy person processes and interprets information with a special method so that in the end, he or she can have a feeling of happiness and optimism. Therefore, in happiness, people's evaluation of themselves and their lives can include cognitive aspects like judgments regarding contentment with life or emotional aspects including disposition or feelings in reaction to life's events. On a personal level, everyone wants to be happy. Those who are happy are healthier, relatively free of various diseases. Additionally, they also have a longer life expectancy.

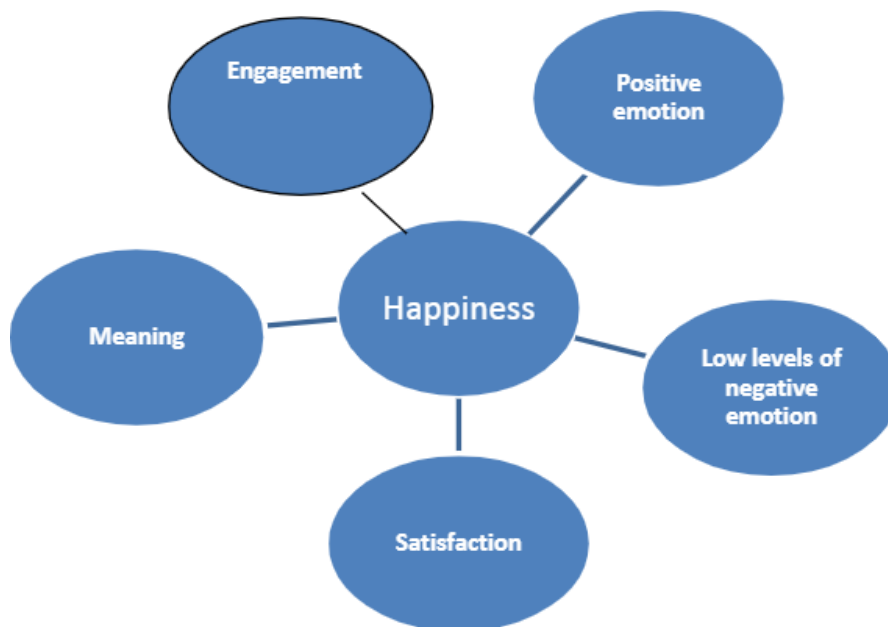


Fig. 3.1: A diagrammatic representation of the defining attributes of happiness

In this unit we will discuss the concept of happiness and subjective well-being (SWB). The concepts related to happiness, even sometimes used interchangeably with happiness, viz. life satisfaction and quality of life will be deliberated upon in detail.

3.2 DEFINING ATTRIBUTES OF HAPPINESS

Happiness is a state of mental well-being. It involves

- The presence of some positive emotions such as joy, contentment, hope
- Low levels of negative emotions
- High levels of satisfaction with life and particular domains of life
- The presence of meaning or purpose in life
- Engagement

3.3 ANTECEDENTS OF HAPPINESS

Happiness has been studied extensively within and across cultures with a particular interest in what causes happiness. Antecedents to happiness include previous history of happiness, relatively stable family and living conditions and history of affection. A significant debate within the realm of happiness studies is whether happiness is dispositional, genetically inherited and associated with positive traits or whether happiness is situational. A number of twin studies conducted by Tellegen et al. (1988) and Lykken and Tellegen (1996) concluded that happiness was in the main caused by genetic inheritance and the effects of an individual's own unique circumstances. In effect, either a person has a positive happy disposition or personality or a negative disposition. They suggest, furthermore, that there is a direct causal relationship between mood and behaviour but there is less of causal relationship from behaviour to mood. As a result of this they conclude that trying to be happier, that is changing one's behaviour in order to increase their happiness, may be in fact be futile. This set point for happiness, which is the relatively stable point for a person's mood over a prolonged period of time, is around 98% genetically inherited. Despite changes in the person's life circumstances after a period of time the individual will adapt and return to their natural genetically inherited set point for happiness. The set point theory concurs with the hedonic treadmill theory in relation to adaptation. Some examples of this are lottery winners or paraplegics who despite quite dramatic changes in their life circumstances returned to their normal happiness level prior to the change over time.

The adaptation position challenges the belief that happiness can be changed by either the individual or society and proposes that efforts to increase happiness are in effect "futile".

More recently however, these theories have been challenged by some empirical findings in relation to non-adjustment to unemployment, marriage and lottery wins. Life satisfaction levels can change after significant life events without adapting to previous levels and this has necessitated a call for review and modification of previous set point and hedonic treadmill theories. It has been argued that inherited happiness set point accounts for about 50% of an individual's happiness, 10% is due to life circumstances and 40% determined by intentional activity.

Positive disposition and personality traits have been associated with happiness particularly extraversion and neuroticism. Positive character traits associated with happiness have been classified under six particular virtues. These are: wisdom and knowledge, incorporating creativity, curiosity, love of learning, judgement and perspective; courage, incorporating honesty, bravery, persistence and zest; humanity, incorporating kindness, love and social intelligence; justice; temperance incorporating forgiveness modesty, prudence and self-regulation; and transcendence incorporating appreciation of beauty, gratitude, hope, humour and religiousness. Good personal relationships are also a strong predictor of happiness. Social relationships, particularly close friendships, have consistently been shown to have a direct correlation with happiness as has marriage and other forms of stable family relationships. Meaningful activity, including work and altruistic activity, including volunteering, have also been shown to have a positive impact on happiness. Participating in religious activity provides an opportunity for both meaningful activity and social support. The relationship between religion and happiness had been studied, with many studies indicating a strong positive correlation between religion and happiness.

3.4 CONSEQUENCES OF HAPPINESS

Happiness in the form of subjective well-being has a direct positive effect on people's quality of life and on their success in life across multiple domains including marriage, friendship, career, income level, and health. Fredrickson (2001) explored the relationship between frequent positive emotion and particular action tendencies when she developed the Broaden and Build Theory of positive emotion. She argued that positive emotions "broaden people's thought action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological ones". Taking an evolutionary psychological perspective she suggests that positive emotions lead to approach behaviours rather than avoidance behaviours and that their adaptive purpose helps prepare the

individual to face future challenges. Key characteristics related to positive affect include confidence, optimism, self-efficacy; likability and positive construal of others; sociability, activity and energy; pro social behaviour; immunity and physical well-being; effective coping with challenge and stress; and originality and flexibility. Positive emotions have been found to have a positive correlation with creativity. Subjective well-being and satisfaction with life has been shown to correlate with increased longevity. Additionally, happiness measures have been associated with health more generally. Positive affect has been shown to be significantly associated with lower risk of all-cause mortality in people with diabetes. Consequences of happiness indicate the importance of happiness to both physical and psychological health and wellbeing of individuals.

3.5 THE CONCEPT OF THE HAPPINESS INDEX

The Happiness Index measures life satisfaction, the feeling of happiness, and other happiness domains: psychological well-being, health, time balance, community, social support, education, arts and culture, environment, governance, material well-being, and work. The qualities measured in these domains are as follows:

- Psychological Well-Being: optimism, senses of purpose and of accomplishment;
- Health: energy level and ability to perform everyday activities;
- Time Balance: enjoyment, feeling rushed, and sense of leisure;
- Community: sense of belonging, volunteerism, and sense of safety;
- Social Support: satisfaction with friends and family, feeling loved, and feeling lonely;
- Education, Arts, and Culture: access to cultural and educational events and diversity;
- Environment: access to nature, pollution, and conservation;
- Governance: trust in government, sense of corruption, and competency;
- Material Well-Being: financial security and meeting basic needs; and
- Work: compensation, autonomy and productivity

3.6 HAPPINESS AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Happiness and life satisfaction are two concepts that are often used interchangeably and the term 'life-satisfaction' denotes the same meaning as 'happiness'. An advantage of the term life-satisfaction over the word 'happiness' is that it emphasizes the subjective character of the concept. Another current synonym is 'subjective well-being'. The Oxford dictionary defines satisfaction as "the feeling of pleasure that arises when you have the things you want or need or when the things you want to happen happen". There is an affective component

to satisfaction and there is also a cognitive evaluative component involving making a judgement regarding wants and needs and whether these have been achieved. Life satisfaction is found to be related to flexibility/resilience, healthy behavior, physical and mental health, and self-worth. Experts have widely studied various factors that affect happiness and life satisfaction. Some sociodemographic factors such as age, gender, education level, employment status, marital status, and perceived health status are associated with happiness and life satisfaction. Aside from sociodemographic factors, the following factors also determine happiness and life satisfaction: stages of development, personality, religiosity, and social capital.

3.7 COMPONENTS OF LIFE SATISFACTION

It has mainly two components such as:

- (1) **Affective Component:** It refers to one's emotional state which is temporary in nature. Immediate gratification is sought after the fulfillment of sensory needs.
- (2) **Cognitive Component:** It refers to "an information based assessment of one's life where people judge the extent to how their life so far measures up to their expectations and hence resembles their envisioned 'ideal' life".

In brief, life satisfaction refers to a judgmental and cognitive process in which people evaluate the quality of their life based on a series of criteria. Life satisfaction is the individual perspective, general evaluation of the totality of one's life or some aspects of life, such as family life and educational experience; life satisfaction is the reflection of balance between individual wishes and the present state of the individual. In other words, the greater the gap between the level of individual wishes and the present state of the person, the lower the satisfaction.

3.8 FACTORS AFFECTING LIFE SATISFACTION

A person's satisfaction with life is contingent upon following factors:

- (1) **Personality:** The profile of personality traits plays a pivotal role in determining one's satisfaction with life. The attributes of hope and optimism both are considered the latent motivating forces to help the person to reach the goals of their life. The other trait viz "neuroticism was found to be the robust predictor of life dissatisfaction and negative affect. On the contrary openness to experience was found as the strong predictor of life satisfaction and positive affect".

(2) **Culture:** The role of culture in determining one's satisfaction with life is remarkable. As in individualistic culture one's gratification with life is contingent upon one's own covert state of mind, whereas in collectivistic culture it depends upon overt sources such as "fulfilling one's duties". As Suh, Lucas and Smith, (1998) reported that "the correlation between life satisfaction and the prevalence of positive affect was higher in individualistic cultures, whereas in collectivistic cultures affect and adhering to norms were equally important for life satisfaction".

(3) **Age:** Age appears to be a major factor in deciding one's gratification with life. Palgi and Shmotkin (2009) reported that "the old people who were primarily in their nineties reported more life satisfaction as compared to older adults because as people grows they become wiser and more knowledgeable, so they begin to see that life will be better as they grow older and understand the important things in life more".

(4) **Education:** The level of education has been found significantly positively association with gratification with life. Studies on effect of education on life satisfaction reported that "satisfaction with life was maximum in countries where people were highly educated. Generally, as education and income level increase, life satisfaction also increases. However at individual level the association between education and life gratification has been found to be very low. This relationship between education and life gratification may be due to higher education which may be linked to the high income. Education appears to confer a lifelong advantage for healthy aging.

(5) **Employment:** Employment appears to be the basic requirement for fulfilling life. As it adds not only income but also enhances one's status in a society. In the existing scenario, it holds a specific value for men in order to enhance their sense of self and to establish their identity. Indeed it is also applicable to women also but does not appear to be a stringent requirement for satisfaction with life.

(6) **Gender:** As far as gratification with life matters, gender segregation can be observed. Women are found to be more satisfied than their male counterparts as they experience more both positive as well as negative affect than their male counterparts.

7) **Income:** The association between wealth and life satisfaction is controversial. As within poor countries the positive relationship between income and well-being has been reported whereas no such relationship has been reported in wealthier countries. On the contrary longitudinal studies have shown that there existed no correlation between people's income and increment in life satisfaction.

(8) **Religion:** It plays an influencing role in geriatric's life. There is a wealth of empirical evidence emphasizing upon positive relation between religion and satisfaction with life and vice versa.

(9) **Marital Status:** Marriage enhances one's level of happiness as reported by Diener, Gohm, Suh & Oishi (2000) who empirically proved that "married individuals consistently reported greater subjective wellbeing than never-married individuals, who in turn reported greater subjective well-being than previously married individuals (i.e. divorced, separated, or widowed), which may be attributed to a social contract that bonds individuals together in an intimate relationship that can be stressbuffering and socially integrative".

(10) **Socio-Cognitive Determinants:** There are numerous social cognitive determinants which affect level of life satisfaction such as "self efficacy, goal directed activity, outcome expectations, environmental support and individual's job, job satisfaction and leisure satisfaction".

(11) **Psychological factors:** Psychological factors such as perceived stress and emotional intelligence influence the life satisfaction of people. Loneliness, despite having health is the major hindrance to life satisfaction. Depression, sadness, loneliness, irritability, and pessimism are feelings that affected the life satisfaction.

(12) **Disability:** It is the most crucial factor which has physical, mental, emotional, social and psychological impact on one's life. 'International classification of functioning, disability and health' defined "disability not solely as a problem found in an individual, rather a health experience which occurs in a context". Among geriatrics the prevalence of sensory or developmental disabilities may be mild, moderate, severe and profound. Though as the degree of disabilities increases there is likelihood of adverse effect on the satisfaction level accordingly, yet it depends upon the willpower of the persons that how they perceive their disability. Some elderly are strong enough to bear the sufferings of life peacefully. They become resilient to face the hardships during old age, hence enjoy a graceful and successful aging. As Addabbo, Sarti and Sciulli (2016) reported that disability affected more severely to younger disable people than elderly disabled people. The power of hearing plays a stringent role in determining gratification with life among elderly. In today's scenario it has become crystal clear that impaired hearing adversely affect the course of life in terms of social, psychological reported that individuals with impaired hearing were less satisfied than those with intact hearing.

3.9 IMPORTANCE OF LIFE SATISFACTION

Happiness and life satisfaction are typically referred to collectively as subjective well-being (SWB). It feels good to be happy and satisfied with life, but enhancing people's sense of well-being and life satisfaction is not simply about making them feel better; enhancing subjective well-being has practical value. People with greater subjective well-being are more successful in many life domains, and their success is at least partly due to their greater sense of well-being. They are more social, altruistic, and active; they like themselves and other people better, have stronger bodies and immune systems, and have better conflict resolution skills. Higher SWB promotes creative thinking. People with higher SWB are likely to earn more money. They generally experience greater physical health than and live longer than people with lower SWB. They are less vulnerable to catching the common cold, and when they do, they report few symptoms and show fewer objective signs of illness. In a variety of practical ways, being relatively happy and relatively satisfied with one's life is better than being unhappy and dissatisfied.

Interest in SWB goes beyond an interest in the SWB of individuals. In the field of education, a "positive education" movement is well under way that is concerned with enhancing the well-being of all members of the education community and includes efforts in primary and secondary schools and universities. Organizational and employee well-being are of growing concern and interest in the fields of management and industrial/organizational psychology. Diener (2000) proposed an index for measuring a nation's SWB. The notion of "gross national happiness" originated in Bhutan in 1972 and is now incorporated in that government's economic and development planning. Concern for citizens' SWB has made its way into the constitutions of several nations, including Japan, South Korea, Ecuador, and Bolivia. The United Nations released its first annual *World Happiness Report* in 2011. In 2013, Santa Monica, California, became the first city in the United States to officially make its citizens' SWB a priority by launching its Well-Being Project (<https://wellbeing.smgov.net>). The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has endorsed the use of measures of SWB as indicators of economic and social progress (OECD, 2013), as has France's Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress. The United Arab Emirates has a Minister of State for Happiness, and Ecuador has a Minister of Good Living. The United States' Office of the Surgeon General's has launched an initiative to enhance SWB among the American people. The United Nations

relatively recently passed a resolution stating that the happiness of citizens should be a goal of governments. Economists and psychologists alike have endorsed the use of measures of SWB in guiding public policy.

3.10 MEASURES OF LIFE SATISFACTION

1. **The Satisfaction with Life Scale** (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) contains 5 items assessing overall life satisfaction. It has good internal consistency and test-retest reliability (Pavot & Diener, 1993b). It contains no items that assess affect (Pavot, 2008). It is one of the most frequently used scales in SWB research, with citations of the original article well into the multiple thousands.

2. **The Temporal Satisfaction with Life Scale** (TSWLS; Pavot, Diener, & Suh, 1998) is a 15-item version of the Satisfaction with Life Scale with each of the five items of the SWLS reworded to assess past, present, or expected future life satisfaction. It has the same good psychometric characteristics as the SWLS (Pavot et al., 1998; Pavot, 2008).

3. **Cantril's ladder** (Cantril, 1965) is a single-item measure that asks the respondent to rate how good his or her life is on a ladder-like figure with 11 rungs, where the top rung (10) represents the best possible life and the bottom rung (0) the worst possible life. It contains no items assessing affect. As noted previously, this scale is used in the United Nations' annual *World Happiness Report* (Helliwell et al., 2017).

4. **The Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale** (MSLSS; Huebner, 1994) is a 40-item scale for assessing the life satisfaction of preadolescents and includes factors pertaining to satisfaction with self, friends, family, school, and living environment. A brief version of the MSLSS has been shown to be useful with high school students (Seligson, Huebner, & Valois, 2003; Pavot, 2008).

5. **The Life Satisfaction Scale** was designed for older adults (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961). Similar scales include the **Life Satisfaction Index A**, the **Life Satisfaction Index B**, and the **Life Satisfaction Rating**. These are all multidimensional scales that assess qualities such as zest, fortitude, self-concept, mood, and congruence between desired and achieved goals (Pavot, 2008).

3.11 LIFE SATISFACTION DATA OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES

Below given is the overall satisfaction with life data for selected countries including India:

Table 1: Overall Satisfaction with Life: Data for Selected Countries					
	<i>Average Satisfaction with Life</i>	<i>Year</i>		<i>Average Satisfaction with Life</i>	<i>Year</i>
Africa			Former Soviet Union Countries		
Nigeria	4.78	2008	Azerbaijan	5.28	2008
South Africa	7.40	2009	Estonia	5.68	2011
			Lithuania	5.72	2013
			Latvia	5.77	2013
Central and South America			Georgia	4.26	2008
			Russia	5.50	2009
Argentina	7.14	2008	Armenia	5.03	2008
Mexico	7.76	2007	Belarus	5.46	2008
Brazil	7.52	2007	Ukraine	5.30	2007
Chile	6.45	2007			
Venezuela	7.80	2009			
Peru	5.98	2007	OECD Countries		
Uruguay	6.72	2007			
			Denmark	8.32	2013
Asia			Switzerland	8.13	2010
			Canada	9.01	2007
Philippines	5.47	2007	Ireland	6.55	2013
China	6.40	2009	Sweden	7.77	2013
South Korea	6.31	2007	Netherlands	7.65	2013
India	5.51	2007	Finland	7.26	2013
Bangladesh	5.25	2008	U.S.	6.96	2010
			Norway	7.94	2010
Central Europe			Belgium	7.21	2013
			Australia	7.88	2008
Poland	6.01	2013	Britain	7.26	2013
Czech Republic	6.34	2013	Italy	5.39	2013
Turkey	5.86	2013	Spain	5.75	2013
Slovakia	5.77	2013	Germany	6.96	2013
Hungary	4.80	2013	Portugal	4.01	2013
Romania	4.68	2013	Iceland	8.17	2013
Bulgaria	4.04	2013	France	6.32	2013
			Japan	6.14	2013
			Austria	6.65	2013

Source: Erasmus University Rotterdam (2013).

Table 3.1 Overall Satisfaction With Life: Data for Selected Countries

Check your progress

- Based on what you've learned so far, describe what do you understand by life satisfaction?
- What is subjective well-being?
- What are the various influences on one's life satisfaction?
- Why people value life satisfaction the most?
- How can you measure life satisfaction?

3.12 HAPPINESS AND QUALITY OF LIFE

Happiness, life satisfaction and subjective well-being are mutually interrelated and indeed they are all closely connected with the notion of quality of life. Perhaps the greatest strength of any approach to subjective well-being is that it pays serious attention to people's happiness and life satisfaction. Happiness may not be enough as a measure of quality of life as can be seen from the case of the 'happy poor'. But even though it cannot be a sufficient criterion of quality of life, any measure of quality of life that took no account at all of whether a person was miserable or dissatisfied would surely be lacking an important dimension. It is clear, though, that there is more to quality of life than just subjective attributes such as happiness or satisfaction. There are objective qualities too, and some of these, such as sufficient nutrition, a non-hazardous environment, and a long and healthy life are universally, or virtually universally uncontroversial as components of quality of life.

There is no universally accepted definition of quality of life. Usually it is referred to the definition of World health organization introduced in 1995-[Quality of life] is an individual's perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, values and concerns incorporating physical health, psychological state, level of independence, social relations, personal beliefs and their relationship to salient features of the environment. Quality of life refers to a subjective evaluation which is embedded in a cultural, social and environmental context (World Health Organization Quality of Life (WHOQOL Group, 1995).

Many factors influence quality of life, i.e. physical, spiritual and health state, independence level, social relationship with the environment and others. To put it in other words quality of life can be defined as satisfaction of a person with the current life dimensions in comparison with the pursued or ideal quality of life. Also the assessment of quality of life depends on person's value system as well as cultural environment to which he/she belongs to (Gilgeous, 1998; Suber, 1996; Fitzpatrick, 1996), when describing the quality of life concept, claims that it depend on external circumstances. Life conditions can determine high life value though after even a slight change of the latter a shift in understanding and assessment of quality of life occurs too.

3.13 FACTORS AFFECTING QUALITY OF LIFE

Quality of life is determined by a lot of factors and conditions: dwelling, employment, income and material well-being, moral attitudes, personal and family life, social support, stress and crisis, condition of health, prospects of health care, relationship with the environment, ecologic factors, etc. It is assessed with the help of both objective and subjective indicators. In quality

of life research, one often distinguishes between the subjective and objective quality of life. Subjective quality of life is about feeling good and being satisfied with things in general. Objective quality of life is about fulfilling the societal and cultural demands for material wealth, social status and physical well-being. Accordingly, objective indicators exist in the society and they can be monitored and assessed by their amount and frequency rate. Whereas subjective indicators exist in the consciousness of an individual and they can be identified only from the person's answers to important subjects to her/him. Comprehensive quality of life survey must include both types of indicators. This spectrum, from the subjective to the objective quality of life via the quality of life in the existential depths, incorporates a number of existing quality-of-life theories. Therefore this spectrum is called the integrative quality-of-life (IQOL) theory.

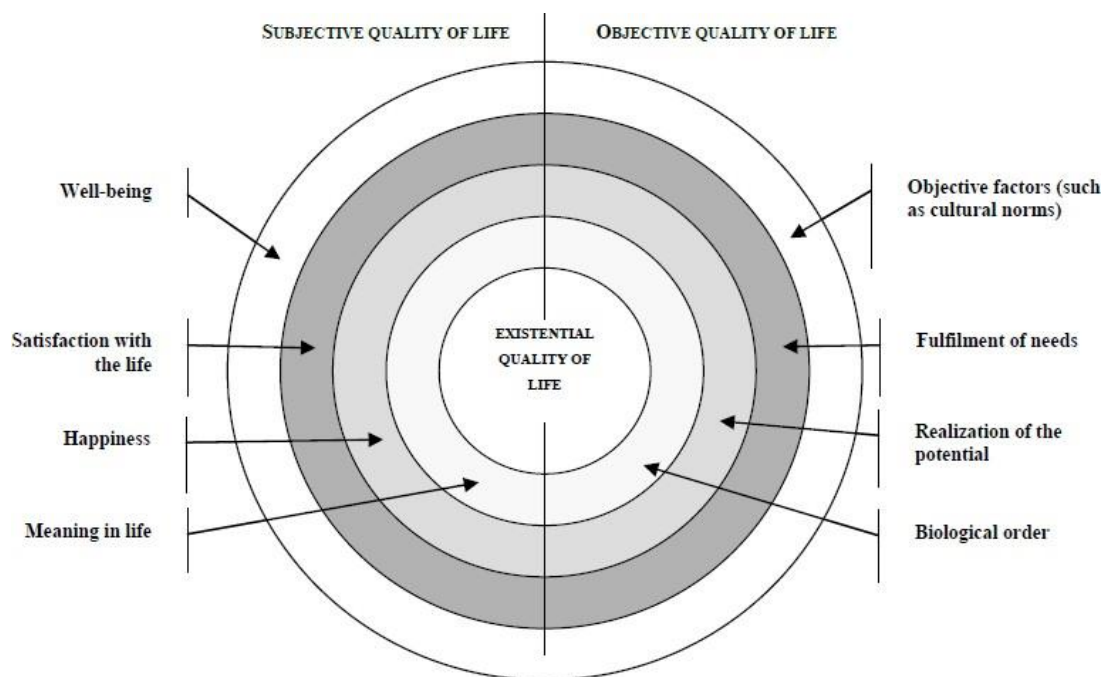


Fig. 3.2: The integrative theory of quality of life

Quality of life is often assessed by the following spillover theory, which maintains that person's satisfaction in one sphere of quality of life influences the level of satisfaction in other spheres. There is a certain hierarchy of life spheres in human consciousness: the highest is generally perceived as quality of life then depending on person itself follow other parts of quality of life (family, work, health, leisure, etc.). Greater satisfaction in one life sphere increases satisfaction level ranked higher in other sphere, e.g. high quality of work life increases the satisfaction with the whole quality of life (spillover rises from bottom to top). However being unsatisfied with one sphere of life can be not of great influence to satisfaction, if ever, in other spheres or can influence only one particular sphere. For example, if a person

is unsatisfied with his/her job, he/she can compensate it with greater attention to the family and experience, greater satisfaction with the quality of family life.

In 1993 Lindstrom introduced universal quality of life model (Table 3.1). It is recommended to it apply to a separate individual, group of people or to the whole population in the research of quality of life covering both objective conditions and subjective evaluation.

Sphere	Dimension	Examples
I. Global	1. <i>Macro-environment</i> 2. <i>Human rights</i> 3. <i>Politics</i>	Clean environment, democratic rights, etc.
II. External	1. <i>Work</i> 2. <i>Family standard of living</i> 3. <i>Residence, housing</i>	Inheritance, parent background – knowledge provided to a child, influence for child's further education and dependence to social class; family income, nutrition, residence, type of dwelling, etc.
III. Interpersonal	1. <i>Family</i> 2. <i>Close relationships</i> 3. <i>Interpersonal relationships</i>	Structure and function of social relationships – relationships with parents, other family members, relatives, friends, society, etc.
IV. Personal	1. <i>Physical</i> 2. <i>Psychological</i> 3. <i>Spiritual</i>	Growth, personality development, activeness, self-respect, meaning of life, etc.

Table 3.2: Showing the Universal Quality of Life Model (Bagdoniene, 2000)

Formerly, the material wellbeing was considered as the main ingredient of Quality of Life (QOL). Later other dimensions were added to it like work life, family relations, religious and spiritual beliefs, morals, values and expectations about life. There is an objective viewpoint as well as a subjective one about Quality of Life and the understanding about it varies according to the life situations and attitudes of the people concerned. The determinants of Quality of Life like the physical, psychological, social and other factors vary according to the population concerned. Currently, Quality of Life (QOL) is seen as the interaction of a number of different factors social, health, economic and environmental conditions which cumulatively and often in unknown ways, interact to affect both human and social development at the level of individual and societies. The major determinants of quality of life are discussed below:-

1. **Biological factors:** The physical and mental illnesses play a key role in determining one's quality of life. There is rich evidence that patients of chronic illness such as sugar and hypertension/high blood pressure have poor quality of life. Similarly, mental illness also had adverse impact on quality of life. An unhealthy body or mind doesn't let a person enjoy the various phases of life. Achieving a good health is the first milestone in the path of attaining a good quality of life and well-being.

2. **Social factors:** Social participation, social support and close relationships are proved to be the strong important pillars of quality of life. This includes interaction with friends, family and other individuals in school or at workplace. Since belongingness is one of the basic psychological needs, without having quality relationship and social support, one can't achieve life-satisfaction and well-being. According to Maslow (1943) and Baumeister and Leary (1995), need to belong is one of the fundamental motive that drive human's behavior. Various longitudinal studies have highlighted the health benefits and greater life expectancy among people having close and healthy relationships. The other reasons may be that people with close relationships get constant encouragement from their partners to follow healthy practices such as healthy food and exercise; also they are less likely to fall into bad habits such as smoking and heavy drinking etc. On the contrary, people who feel constant social rejection are more vulnerable to fall into unhealthy practices. Thus, relationships are the foundations of one's quality life.
3. **Environmental factors:** Exposure to stressful or traumatic events such as chronic condition can also have important implication for quality of life. Humans are constantly surrounded and influenced by some kind of environment be it physical, cultural or social environment. Environment provides us a platform for performing activities as well as setting up goals. It influences us both physically and mentally. The effects of exposure to adversity such as chronic conditions appear to be negatively associated with quality of life ratings. However, some studies have found that the negative effects of chronic conditions can be mediated by characteristics of family environment. In fact, some studies on patients even reported an increase in quality of life due to an increased ability to appreciate each new day, feelings of personal strength, self-assurance and compassion. Attaining all aspects of quality of life, e.g. better health, better relationships, positive interactions with the environment and society is an important goal for a person.
4. **Various demographic factors:** It includes age, gender, income, education, marital status, employment, family structure and family ties all have strong influence on quality of life. As Lee (1998) found higher quality of life among males than their female counterparts. Similarly, Arrington-Sanders, Yi, Tsevat, Wilmott, Mrus and Britto (2006) found lower level of physical and mental quality of life in females. Castro, Ponciano, Meneghetti, Kreling and Chem (2012) found the gender differences only in psychological and social domains of quality of life. Yet Collier, MacKinlay and Phillips (2000) found equal level of quality of life irrespective of gender. Easterly (1999) conducted a time series analysis on the role of income on quality of life and concluded that income of person consistently influenced his quality of life. Diener and

Suh (1997) reported that economic factors along with social indicators and subjective well-being measures are needed in unison to understand human quality of life. Various empirical studies have reported better quality of life among married individuals than unmarried and divorced people which may be due to having a life partner satisfying various psychological needs such as affection, belongingness, care and security etc. Most of the studies have found the lower quality of life in old people in comparison to young people. There are number of factors such as health issues, poor social support, loneliness that impact the life of old people. Education and income both have been reported to be strongly related with one's way of living in most of the studies. A better education enables individuals to manage enough resources required to meet basic needs of life. People with high income can indulge in leisure activities which improve the psychological health domain of quality of life.

5. **Personal Dispositions:** It includes one's moral attitude, spiritual state, wellbeing, health state and positive emotional as well as cognitive states.
6. **Positive emotional states:** Positive emotional states such as joy, contentment, happiness and savoring all lead to better quality of life than negative emotional bent of mind. It has been empirically proved that happiness and savoring both serve as reservoir of energy which buffer against the hardships of life and lead to better immune system which enhances physical, social as well as mental health. Savoring has been proved to be strong coping tool whenever a person is faced with stressful times or whenever he faces trouble in his interpersonal relationships. Happy people are also more likely to find greater social acceptance and have better chances of satisfying their partners. Happiness serves as an antidote to both physical and mental disease as well as enhances our immune system. Positive cognitive states: The positive cognitive states such as self-esteem, self-efficacy and hope etc., are proved to be the pillars of better quality of life. Self-efficacy as discussed earlier provides confidence to a person to face big hurdles in life and achieve his/ her goal. It has been proved to be linked with one's achievement in both academics as well as in job. Self-esteem ensures that a person maintains a strong relationship and plays a positive role in the society. Hope provides both motivation to achieve goals and helps in showing the paths to achieve those goals. Hope is found to be strongly associated with recovery time in chronic diseases.

3.14 IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY OF LIFE

Human life has fascinating characteristics when compared to other forms of life. When dealing with human life people consider the quality of life as a desirable and an important aspect. Quality really matters with regard to life. Many people live on this globe enjoying a reasonable

Quality of Life whereas many are lacking it owing to various reasons. When life is characterized by misery, pain or sickness, people find it difficult to live happily. Though some people may have physical pain or disability, but they tend to be mentally or emotionally very strong. But when people are mentally or emotionally not healthy, then even the physical wellness becomes irrelevant to them. The lower Quality of Life causes deterioration in human functioning. It can affect the physical, psychological, social and spiritual domains of one's life. It can lead to financial, occupational, interpersonal and even familial disintegration. So it is very important to maintain a healthy Quality of Life. The Collins Dictionary defines Quality of Life as 'the general wellbeing of a person or society, defined in terms of health and happiness rather than wealth' (Collins Dictionary, 2017). This definition gives importance to what people are rather than what people have. It covers the emotional side rather than the material side. It counts more the comfort or happiness of a person or society than wealth. At the same time it is clear that the gratification of our basic needs is crucial to human wellbeing. Thus, wellbeing is a result of a constant journey that begins with the physical aspect of our life and progresses with the psychological, social and spiritual realms of our life.

Another definition of Quality of Life by Gotay C. C. and Moore T. D. is a bit longer but more explicit with more implications. Let us examine this definition: Quality of Life in Sobriety Introduction 3 "...a state of well-being which is a composite of two components: 1) the ability to perform everyday activities which reflects physical psychological, and social wellbeing and 2) patient satisfaction with levels of functioning and the control of disease and/or treatment related symptoms" (Gotay & Moore, 1992, p.12) This definition covers multiple aspects of the life of a person and looks more applicable in general life. It is stated that the state of wellbeing has two components. The first component is the ability to perform everyday activities which has the sub points of physical, psychological and social wellbeing. The second is the client's fulfilment with the overall functioning and the relief from the disease or symptoms. These two components are very essential to Quality of Life.

Another important point considering QOL is that QOL can be lost or reduced owing to many reasons. Physical or mental illnesses, accidents, financial problems, job related problems, relationship issues, becoming victims of poverty, wars, disasters, racial and terrorist attacks, and sexual harassment can be some of the reasons. Alcohol use disorder and other substance use disorders are a major reason for the loss of quality of life in the world. Along with other disasters, these problems initially affect the individuals but eventually they become harmful to the life of the families and the societies. Thus even the wellbeing of the forthcoming generations is affected by the disastrous effects of these disorders. Substance use disorders

cause the outbreak of various diseases and disorders associated social and familial problems and they remain as major reasons for a poor Quality of Life.

Generally speaking, the characteristics of poor Quality of Life are found in problems related to the physical, psychological, social and spiritual realms of life. These result in quarrels, fights, poverty, unemployment, sickness, aimlessness and lack of development in all areas.

3.15 MEASUREMENT OF QUALITY OF LIFE

1. World Health Organization Quality of Life Assessment, WHOQOL-100, is a cross-culturally valid assessment of wellbeing. Assessment is operationalized through 100 items representing 25 facets organized in 6 domains. WHOQOL BREF was developed as a short version of the WHOQOL-100 for use in situations where time is restricted, where respondent burden must be minimized, and where facet level detail is unnecessary. The WHOQOL BREF arises from 10 years of development research on QOL and health care. It is a person-centred, multi-lingual instrument for subjective assessment and is designed for generic use as a multi-dimensional profile, enabling a wide range of diseases and conditions to be compared. This instrument to measure the quality of life is apt for the understanding of quality of life in general populations.

- **WHOQOL-WHOQOL BREF** consists of 4 domains: physical health, psychological health, social relationships, environment
- **WHOQOL-100** consists of 6 domains: physical, psychological, Independence, social relationships, environment & Spirituality
- Cross-cultural generic instrument

2. Older adults module (WHOQOL-OLD)

3. Child/Adolescent adaptations are now the KIDSCREEN/DISABKIDS projects Illness-specific modules. For example, HIV/aids, cancer Spirituality Module Items for national population surveys (EUROHIS-QOL; WHOQOL-AGE)

4. Disabilities module and adaptation (intellectual and physical) (DISQOL)

Check your progress
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Based on what you've learned so far, exhibit your understanding of the concept of quality of life.• What are the various factors affecting one's quality of life?

- Why good quality of life is important?
- How can you measure one's quality of life?

3.16 LET US SUM UP

It is a truth (almost) universally acknowledged that the vast majority of the people on this earth prefer more happiness to less happiness and prefer lives with which they are more often satisfied than dissatisfied. Life satisfaction and quality of life are two related constructs that can be best understood as the index of happiness among humans. Also, it is observed that higher satisfaction leads to better quality of life whereas on the contrary lower level of satisfaction is an indicator of poor quality of life. Human being strives for a fulfilling life because a fulfilling life is related to better physical, mental, emotional and social health outcomes in the long run. Taken together, both these concepts (life satisfaction and quality of life) are understood as subjective well-being and attaining healthy levels of subjective well-being is the ultimate goal of human life.

3.17 KEYWORDS

Happiness: a state of being that people experience as a result of action by oneself or others. It is a state of mind involving feelings of joy, serenity, and affection. Psychological happiness is the experience of positive emotions over time.

The Happiness Index: it measures life satisfaction, the feeling of happiness, and other happiness domains such as psychological well-being, health, time balance, community, social support, education, arts and culture, environment, governance, material well-being, and work.

Life satisfaction: the feeling of pleasure that arises when you have the things you want or need or when the things you want to happen happen. It is the individual perspective, general evaluation of the totality of one's life or some aspects of life.

Quality of life: satisfaction of a person with the current life dimensions in comparison with the pursued or ideal quality of life.

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Section-B

CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: Measures of Happiness at work

UNIT 4: MICRO AND MACRO HAPPINESS MEASURE

STRUCTURE

4.0 OBJECTIVES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 AIM: PLEASURE, SELF-INTEREST, GUIDANCE, AND CONSTITUENTS

4.2.1 PARADOX OF HEDONISM

4.2.1.1 PARADOX OF SELF-INTEREST

4.2.1.2 PARADOX OF SELF-INTEREST

4.2.1.3 PARADOX OF CONSTITUENTS

4.2.2 SUCCESS: GETTING, MONEY, AND STATUS

4.2.2.1 PARADOX OF GETTING

4.2.2.2 PARADOX OF MONEY

4.2.2.3 PARADOX OF STATUS

4.2.3 FREEDOM: SUBMISSION, CHOICE, AND SELF-CONFLICT

4.2.3.1 PARADOX OF SUBMISSION

4.2.3.2 PARADOX OF CHOICE

4.2.3.3 PARADOX OF SELF-CONFLICT

4.2.4 ATTITUDE: AFFIRMATION AND HOPE

4.2.4.1 PARADOX OF AFFIRMATION

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4.3 MEASUREMENT OF HAPPINESS

4.3.1 MICRO LEVEL (INDIVIDUAL LEVEL)

4.3.1.1 STANDARD METHODS

4.3.1.2 NON STANDARD METHODS

4.3.2 MACRO LEVEL (COLLECTIVE LEVEL)

4.4 LETS SUM UP

4.5 KEYWORDS

4.6 REFERENCES

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand about various paradoxes of happiness
- Know about various measures of happiness at macro and micro level

4.1 INTRODUCTION

To get happiness, forget about it. This adage is known as ‘the paradox of happiness’, but it contains several paradoxes, depending on which aspects of pursuing happiness are highlighted. Without claiming completeness, I distinguish a dozen aspects, grouped under the headings of aim, success, freedom, and attitude. With one exception, the paradoxes are not logical conundrums, and most of them are not even seeming contradictions. Instead, they identify empirical incongruities and ironies that contradict widely held beliefs about the sources of and pathways to happiness. The paradoxes convey insights into the complexity in pursuing happiness in good lives, but in doing so they often use hyperbole to highlight one-sided truths. How we define happiness influences how we understand the paradoxes. My interest is happiness as subjective well-being, understood as loving our lives and valuing them in ways shown by high levels of enjoyment and a rich sense of meaning. Accordingly, I set aside normative conceptions of happiness as embodying virtue, for these conceptions tend to make the paradoxes true by definition: for example, “pursue goodness rather than happiness and you will find goodness-defined happiness.” At the same time, I am interested in how the paradoxes link happiness as subjective well-being to moral and other justified values in good lives.

In this unit we will discuss various paradoxes of happiness such as hedonism, success, freedom and attitude. Also, the measurement of happiness at both micro and macro level will be detailed.

4.2 AIM: PLEASURE, SELF-INTEREST, GUIDANCE, AND CONSTITUENTS

4.2.1 Paradox of Hedonism

According to the paradox of hedonism, pursuing pleasure directly is self-defeating. It results in less pleasure and meaning than does a strategy of seeking meaningful endeavors and relationships for their sake, letting pleasure and happiness come indirectly. John Stuart Mill states the paradox in reporting on his recovery from a major psychological depression during his early twenties:

I never, indeed, wavered in the conviction that happiness is the test of all rules of conduct, and the end of life. But I now thought that this end was only to be attained by not making it the direct end. Those only are happy (I thought) who have their minds fixed on some object other than their own happiness; on the happiness of others, on the improvement of mankind, even on some art or pursuit, followed not as a means, but as itself an ideal end. Aiming thus at something else, they find happiness by the way.

Throughout his writings Mill conflates pleasure with happiness as a long-term state of persons and lives. Only a few pages after stipulating that “by happiness is intended pleasure,” he defines happiness as a “manner of existence” that is “exempt as far as possible from pain, and as rich as possible in enjoyments, both in point of quantity and quality.” Either way, Mill construes the paradox of happiness as the paradox of hedonism. It is self-defeating, he contends, to fixate on our pleasure. That fixation erodes pleasure, either by making it appear less grand than we had hoped for, so that it is “felt to be insufficient,” or by distancing ourselves from the full and immediate experience of it, whether by “putting it to flight by fatal questioning” or by “forestalling it in imagination.” In general, freeing ourselves from preoccupation with our own pleasures increases the odds of finding happiness.

The paradox of hedonism contains an important truth. The most enriching enjoyments are tied to activities and relationships valued for themselves, that is, for their perceived intrinsic worth. They yield pleasures because we first desire them and find them desirable (worthy of being desired), for reasons beyond their pleasure-producing aspect. Psychologically, this truth was important for Mill in grappling with his depression, a mental state that tends to involve self-preoccupation. Philosophically, it plays a role in his development of utilitarianism, specifically in his conception of the good—the good that is to be maximized, considering everyone affected by our actions impartially.

Mill never works out a fully coherent version of utilitarianism, and this failure bears on his treatment of the paradox of hedonism. Thus he insists that we should pursue love, friendship, and intellectual activities as “ideal ends” for their own sake, rather than simply for the pleasures or further good consequences they produce. Yet his utilitarian theory reduces all values, and hence all “ideal ends,” to pleasures. Famously, he stresses higher pleasures, but tacitly he understands them as linked to activities and relationships that are valuable for reasons in addition to the pleasure they produce. The result is something of a muddle that blurs his analysis of the paradox of hedonism. It remains paradoxical indeed to say that pleasures are the only intrinsic goods while denying that we should focus on them as “ideal ends” in pursuing happy

lives. Mill would have benefited from more consistently carrying his psychological insights about the paradox of happiness into his ethical theory.

Henry Sidgwick invokes the paradox of hedonism in arguing against egoistic hedonism, that is, the version of ethical egoism that says we ought always and only to maximize our own pleasures. Egoistic hedonism is self-defeating because it enjoins pleasure seeking and yet results in diminished pleasure. Happiness, understood as “the greatest attainable surplus of pleasure over pain,” cannot be pursued successfully by concentrating on our pleasures because the fullest and richest pleasures come from being fully stimulated by people, events, and things in the world that “must be temporarily predominant and absorbing.” Sidgwick states the paradox more cautiously than Mill, and he understands it as advising us to limit rather than to abandon the direct pursuit of happiness: “Happiness is likely to be better attained if the extent to which we set ourselves consciously to aim at it be carefully restricted.” In this way, Sidgwick provides an important corrective to Mill by affirming that it is appropriate to pursue happiness as one of our direct aims so long as we avoid narrow preoccupation with it, limiting reflection on our happiness to periodic reviews of how well our lives are going.

4.2.1.1 Paradox of Self-Interest

A second paradox widens the focus from pleasures to self-interest, that is, to our overall good, which includes happiness and much more (for example, economic security and good health). According to the paradox of self-interest, aiming directly and exclusively at self-interest is self-defeating. It fosters self-absorption, self-indulgence, and selfishness. By doing so, it constricts the range and depth of gratifications available when we pursue interests in other people and endeavors that we regard as valuable in their own right—and that actually are valuable in their own right. The paradox of self-interest is frequently voiced from the pulpit, and Bishop Joseph Butler examined it with psychological acuity in his eighteenth-century sermons: “How much so ever a paradox it may appear, it is certainly true, that even from self-love we should endeavor to get over all inordinate regard to, and consideration of ourselves.” Secular humanists also make the theme prominent. Thus George Orwell writes that people “can only be happy when they do not assume that the object of life is happiness.” Again, Bertrand Russell makes the theme salient in *Conquest of Happiness*. He presents the theme as a momentous discovery in moving away from his anxious self-preoccupation during youth into his richly satisfying adulthood. Self-absorption, including preoccupation with our own happiness, destroys meaningful and happy personal relationships. Equally bad, it causes boredom by blocking the development of deep interests and zestful pursuits. Accordingly, “the secret of happiness is

this: let your interests be as wide as possible, and let your reactions to the things and persons that interest you be as far as possible friendly rather than hostile.”

For their part, classical economists and psychologists tended to be oblivious to the paradox of self-interest because they assumed psychological egoism, the view that humans are only motivated by (direct concern for) self-interest. Today, renegade economists appreciate personal commitments to the well-being of others that restrict narrow self-interest and even require personal sacrifice. For example, Robert Frank argues that we evolved with capacities for love and loyalty because of “a simple paradox, namely, that in many situations the conscious pursuit of self-interest is incompatible with its attainment.” Likewise, positive psychologists explore how other-directed virtues contribute to our enlightened self-interest and our happiness, as discussed in chapter. Earlier the humanistic psychologist Abraham Maslow proclaimed that “people who seek self-actualization directly, selfishly, personally, dichotomized away from mission in life, i.e., as a form of private and subjective salvation, don’t, in fact, achieve it.”

Raymond Belliotti would have us go further in abandoning happiness as central to self-interest. In his view, happiness is overrated. We should not and “do not pursue happiness directly. We pursue worthwhile, meaningful, valuable, exemplary lives. If we are reasonably successful in that quest, happiness may follow. If not, we can still take pride and derive satisfaction from living well.” Belliotti overstates both the facts about motivation and the values worth pursuing. Most of us do actively seek happiness, typically in and through activities we find meaningful, and at least part of what makes those activities meaningful is their contribution to our happiness. Indeed, the notion of meaningful lives that bring no happiness whatsoever is problematic. Happiness and meaning are distinct but interwoven in ways that make it impossible to pry them apart as sources of motivation in good lives.

Properly understood, the paradox of self-interest challenges *excessive* and *exclusive* self-seeking. As such, it is an important corrective to self-preoccupation, but it is not a basis for rejecting all direct regard for happiness in conjunction with other values. Periodic self-reflection about whether we are sufficiently happy is entirely compatible with maintaining genuine interests in the world and zestful pursuits. Indeed, it seems likely to promote those interests and pursuits by ensuring they are meaningful and fulfilling.

The point is a general one about pursuing each dimension of self-interest. Thus, entrepreneurs speak of a paradox of wealth: If you are preoccupied with maximizing your wealth you will fail, for that self-absorption deflects you from what is essential in producing wealth. Instead, cultivate passions about particular goods and services that other people want and you take pride in; then wealth is more likely to follow. That outward focus is fully compatible, of course, with

periodically monitoring our wealth. Likewise, becoming obsessed with our health can make us (unhealthy) hypochondriacs, but we should periodically monitor our health. Even the preoccupation without character can lead to spiritual egotism, as John Dewey calls it, which deflects us from humane concern for others. In general, to effectively pursue any aspect of our self-interest we should avoid becoming overly preoccupied with it, for doing so undermines broader commitments around values that impact others as well as ourselves. But of course we should have due regard for our self-interest and periodically attend to it. Indeed, our interest in paradoxes of self-interest presupposes we have direct interest in our well-being.

4.2.1.2 Paradox of Guidance

The paradox of guidance shifts from motivation to guidance. According to it, usually we lack a clear conception of what will make us happy, and hence in pursuing happiness directly we are pursuing a will-o'-the-wisp. There are too many complexities in the world interacting in too many unpredictable ways with individual psychology. The more we are deluded into thinking we know how to become happy, the more we suffer disappointments as we act on our delusions.

Immanuel Kant formulates the paradox in terms of practical reason: “The more a cultivated reason purposely occupies itself with the enjoyment of life and with happiness, so much the further does one get away from true satisfaction.” In general, “one can form no determinate and sure concept of the sum of satisfaction of all inclinations under the name of happiness.” Kant defines happiness in several ways, sometimes as uninterrupted pleasure, sometimes as satisfaction of all our desires (which is different, for not all satisfied desires yield pleasure—witness buyers’ remorse), and sometimes as both. In any case, his point is that usually we do not have an accurate idea of what will make us happy. Seeking riches can lead to troubles and anxiety; seeking knowledge can result in pained awareness of tragedy; seeking long life can lead to ill health in advanced age; and so forth. Our aim in exercising practical reason should be to lead moral lives, and then happiness will hopefully come along the way, whether in this life or in some spiritual life after death.

Matters are not as bleak as Kant would have it, at least not today. Studies show that most people are mostly happy. Undoubtedly our practical reason is highly fallible, but it serves us reasonably well in pursuing happiness, especially given our substantial capacities to adjust to disappointments. Kant gives a one-sided analysis of reason’s role in seeking happiness because he has a philosophical ax to grind. He seeks to establish that the primary role of practical reason is to discern universal and absolute (exceptionless) moral duties, which in his view have little

direct connection to happiness. Yet, contrary to Kant, the limitations of reason do not render the pursuit of happiness futile, and whatever flaws reason has carry over to morality. Few ethicists share Kant's belief that there are many absolute duties that reason can discern. Moreover, our practical reason is as flawed in discerning and integrating our various duties as it is in pursuing happiness. Whether in pursuing morality or happiness, we must make do with our flawed reasoning capacities.

Inspired by Kant, but deepening his skepticism, Nicholas White locates the paradox of guidance in the very concept of happiness, rather than the limitations of our practical reason. The concept of happiness, he says, is essentially the notion that there is a best or right way to harmonize our myriad desires, interests, aims, and values. Each of us repeatedly faces conflicting aims, and the concept of happiness arises from the expectation of finding a guide about how best to harmonize our wants, akin to how the picture in a puzzle guides us in fitting together its pieces. This expectation is futile, and a unifying picture for an entire life is a chimera. Coordinating our desires, interests, and values is a matter of ongoing contextual decision making rather than applying a general guide to our lives overall.

In some passages, White seems to recommend abandoning the concept of happiness altogether because it is based on the "unrealizable hope for some kind of coherence of aims." Surely that recommendation is unwise. Coherence is often possible through reasoned attempts to live good lives. Moreover, the fact that many of us lack clear and reliable *conceptions* of what will make us happy does not mean we lack a reasonably clear *concept* of happiness. That concept is subjective well-being, which I understand as loving our lives, valuing them in ways manifested by predominant patterns of enjoyment and meaning. I agree that coherence must emerge within practical situations rather than from grand schemas, but I do not share White's skepticism about finding sufficient coherence to make happiness possible.

4.2.1.3 Paradox of Constituents

Although most paradoxes of happiness make empirical claims, one paradox expresses a logical truth. According to the paradox of constituents, it is a matter of logic that happiness cannot be pursued as an exclusive end, for happy lives are comprised of other things that must be sought for their own sake. Elizabeth Telfer provides a charming statement of the paradox: "In the case of most ends, the means are logically separable from them: thus if I play the piano [solely] to earn money, it makes sense for a fairy godmother to say, 'Forget about the playing; here is the money.' But this does not apply to happiness. If I marry in order to be happy it would not make sense for her to say, 'Forget about the marriage, here is the happiness,' since the happiness I

sought (the argument goes) was by definition happiness in marriage.” Because the marriage is a constituent of this individual’s happiness, her happiness cannot be pursued as an independent end.

By underscoring that happiness is a response to meaningful and enjoyable activities and relationships, the paradox of constituents conveys an insight bearing on all the paradoxes of happiness. Nevertheless, as Telfer points out, the paradox does not provide a basis for denying that happiness can itself be pursued as an end in itself. For the activities and relationships that produce happiness are contingent matters for each of us, not matters of logic. It is intelligible for persons, young or old, to say they want to be happy even though they have yet to discover which activities and relationships will make that possible. And having discovered those activities and relationships, they can pursue them (in part) as means to (the sought-after end of) happiness.

To sum up, most paradoxes of aim convey insights that are half-truths. Yes, we should avoid excessive self-preoccupation and instead focus outwardly on people and projects, but in doing so we should not disregard our happiness, for it remains one important dimension of good lives, interwoven with moral and other values. Indeed, we do well to periodically review our primary endeavors and relationships to appreciate their meaning and to assess whether they are making us happy. We do and should consider our happiness in making major life decisions, for example about whether to pursue a job offer or to marry a particular person. And even in situations where we must sacrifice some of our happiness for higher ideals, we do well to be clear that we are indeed sacrificing something of great value in order to achieve something of even greater value.

4.2.2 Success: Getting, Money, And Status

Shifting the focus from aims and intentions to results, *paradoxes of success* challenge widely held beliefs that obtaining certain things will automatically make us happy. The paradoxes caution against equating happiness with specific results, as distinct from the process of pursuing them. In one colloquial sense, success refers to obtaining material goods such as money and consumer products, as well as social status and other external rewards, by contrast with intrinsic satisfactions from what we believe to be valuable endeavors and relationships. In another sense, with which I begin, success simply means getting what we seek.

4.2.2.1 Paradox of Getting

The paradox of getting is that happiness has less to do with acquiring what we seek and more to do with the journey in seeking it. By their very nature, desires promise pleasure (satisfaction) when they are fulfilled (satisfied), and we have a deep-seated tendency to think that happiness will come from reaching our goals. Yet there is no tight correlation between satisfying our desires and being satisfied with what we get. Hence the saying: Be careful what you wish for, lest you get it.

The paradox of getting conveys several insights. On the one hand, happiness has more to do with liking what we already have than with constantly getting more. On the other hand, happiness often comes more from making progress toward meaningful goals than from success in achieving them. Sometimes, “anticipation is better than realization.” Even when realization brings satisfaction, the satisfaction is short lived, as we adjust and take for granted what we gained. Moreover, experiencing progress can promote happiness even when it is accompanied by feelings of frustration due to temporary setbacks and suffering, periodic exhaustion, and temporary depression. The experiences that most directly promote happiness come from what Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi calls “flow”: engaging in valued activities that challenge and engage us, while providing immediate and positive feedback, whether or not episodic pleasures are involved.

In addition to the enjoyments or gratifications obtained from flow activities, myriad everyday pleasures contribute to happiness, especially when we learn to savor them (by concentrating on them in ways at odds with the paradox of hedonism). So do long term projects and periodic accomplishments. The pursuit of happiness, and more generally the pursuit of self-fulfillment, must often proceed by “crooked paths,” to borrow Nietzsche’s expression.

4.2.2.2 Paradox of Money

The paradox of money is that money does not bring or buy happiness, contrary to the widespread illusion that it does. Insofar as money is pursued in the belief it will make us happy, the paradox of money is a special instance of the paradox of getting. But it warrants special mention in challenging our tendency to regard money as a general solution to our problems. Much money simply feeds the “hedonic treadmill”: the more we buy and have, the more we want. In macroeconomic terms, the paradox of money has been called the paradox of (economic) progress: Average incomes in western democracies have doubled over the last fifty years, but levels of happiness have remained virtually unchanged. Even after adjusting for rising costs, there is a genuinely surprising failure of increased wealth to increase happiness in the way we tend to expect.

The paradox of money expresses only a partial truth, albeit an important one. Money does contribute to happiness, although less than we usually believe. It increases happiness dramatically by moving individuals out of poverty, but thereafter it contributes little and haphazardly to happiness. Part of the explanation for this surprising result is that we tend to misuse money once we have it, becoming caught up in endless routines of getting and spending, rather than building wealth to increase freedom and peace of mind. Also, we are made unhappy by envy and by feeling we are not making what we deserve compared to others, which brings us to the next paradox.

4.2.2.3 Paradox of Status

According to the paradox of status, our prestige-oriented comparisons with others do not promote happiness, even though we constantly act as if they do. It is not enough to have a comfortable life; we need to keep up with the Joneses and then surpass them. Insofar as having money is as much about status as survival, at least once beyond poverty, it is not surprising that the paradoxes of status and money overlap. When a group was asked whether they would prefer an income of \$, when others earned \$, or an income of \$, when others earned \$, they chose the \$,—half of what they could have had, but preferable to half of what others have.

Envy and snobbery partly explain this preference for lower amounts of money over lower status, but the primary explanation seems to be our need for self-esteem and our tendency to attach self-esteem to social status. Money, luxury cars, large houses, expensive jewelry, and virtually any conspicuous consumption that favorably sets us apart from others are symbols of personal significance. Yet, insofar as we remain preoccupied with assessing well-being in terms of these shifting standards, driven by status anxiety, we place our happiness and perhaps our other values at risk.

4.2.3 Freedom: Submission, Choice, and Self-Conflict

Paradoxes of freedom assert that (happiness-promoting) freedom is won by surrendering or limiting it. Like paradoxes of aim, the freedom paradoxes suggest we should not pursue happiness directly, but this time the emphasis is on liberation and choice. Usually we assume that our happiness increases as we increase our freedom, choices, and liberation from conflicting desires; the paradoxes of freedom call this assumption into question.

4.2.3.1 Paradox of Submission

The paradox of submission is that surrender can liberate us in ways contributing to happiness. We feel happily liberated not by maintaining complete control (or what we think of as complete control) but instead through loyalty to ideals, standards, and meaningful causes and relationships, as well as to experiencing ourselves as part of wider realities. Harry Frankfurt asks, “How are we to understand the paradox that a person may be enhanced and liberated through being seized, made captive, and overcome? Why is it that we find ourselves to be most fully realized, and consider that we are at our best, when—through reason or through love—we have lost or escaped from ourselves?” He answers that our very identity is shaped by deep caring for people and things beyond ourselves, and that deep caring has a selfless element, by contrast with our usual self-preoccupation. This selflessness contributes to a sense of meaning and self-respect and thereby indirectly promotes happiness. We are liberated by choosing freely and decisively to close some options, as for example when spouses promise to love, honor, and cherish each other, forsaking (adultery with) all others. Deep caring reshapes our will and identity, establishing a “volitional necessity” that makes it difficult or even impossible to abandon who and what we love. Happiness, as well as self-realization, comes from caring relationships and submission to standards and ideals of excellence.

The paradox of submission is also a familiar theme in religious conceptions of happiness that enjoin submission to a deity. The idea is also central in twelve-step recovery programs such as Alcoholics Anonymous that enjoin admitting powerlessness over our addictions and submitting to a “higher power” so as to become empowered to overcome the addictions. William James expresses the idea in nonsectarian terms: “Give up the feeling of responsibility, let go your hold, resign the care of your destiny to higher powers, be genuinely indifferent as to what becomes of it all, and you will find not only that you gain a perfect inward relief, but often also, in addition, the particular goods you sincerely thought you were renouncing.” Willa Cather memorably conveys a related experience in *My Antonia* : “I was entirely happy. Perhaps we feel like that when we die and become a part of something entire, whether it is sun and air, or goodness and knowledge. At any rate, that is happiness; to be dissolved into something complete and great.”

Although the paradox of submission makes a psychological claim, then, it is generally tied to normative claims about which loyalties, submissions, and sources of meaning are desirable. The distinction is important and bears on all the paradoxes of happiness in thinking about fully good lives. A sense of meaning is one thing; a justified sense of meaning produced by valid ideals is something else. Terrorists provide a painful reminder of the difference. For this reason,

the paradox of submission expresses a partial and dangerous truth—a truth easily misunderstood and abused. In general, the value of happiness increases insofar as it is interwoven with other justified values.

Frankfurt tends to slide over the distinction between desirable and undesirable loyalties, whereas Alan Gewirth highlights it. He distinguishes two conceptions of self-fulfillment: satisfaction of our most strongly motivating desires (aspiration-fulfillment) and effective pursuit of what is most worthwhile in us (capacity-fulfillment). Corresponding, there are two conceptions of happiness: satisfaction of our strongest desires (aspiration-happiness) and normative conceptions of developing what is best in us (capacity-happiness). The two go together ideally, but not always in practice. In some cases, “You may be made very unhappy if you develop your highest talents; for example, a person who by intense concentration and practice becomes a superb violinist may come to feel very discontented with his life.” Alluding to the paradoxes of aim, Gewirth points out that aspiration-fulfillment and happiness are often best pursued indirectly by focusing on valuable activities and relationships. Yet, in light of his violinist example—suppose the violinist turns to alcohol and abandons his talents altogether—Gewirth might have added that capacity-fulfillment sometimes requires the pursuit of aspiration-happiness. In any case, the two are interwoven and should be pursued together in good lives.

4.2.3.2 Paradox of Choice

The paradox of choice, as Barry Schwartz calls it, is that multiplying the number of options sometimes lessens happiness, contrary to the belief that it increases our autonomy and thereby our happiness. In one study, percent of people claim that if they had cancer they would want to make their own treatment choices, yet only percent of people who actually got cancer wanted to make their treatment decisions. As this example suggests, too many choices can be burdensome because they place responsibility (and potentially blame) on us, but also because evaluating options takes time and adds complexity and confusion. Thus President Bush’s Medicare drug benefit program gave senior citizens as many as sixty options, thereby initially causing confusion, anxiety, and “choice overload.” In addition, the more desirable choices we have, the greater the “opportunity costs,” such as regrets in having to turn down attractive options in settling for others. Again, having the options to return purchased goods would seemingly increase our happiness in making choices. Yet Schwartz marshals evidence that we are more satisfied when our decisions are not so easily reversible, probably because reversible decisions keep us anxiously alert to better options we have missed, and also because it distracts

us from pursuing the valuable possibilities inherent in the choices we have made. Of greater consequence, the paradox of submission overlaps with the paradox of choice: When we commit ourselves in a spirit of permanence, as in getting married, we tend to be happier than if we feel free to walk away at any time.

In practice, the paradox of choice applies most directly to “maximizers,” who habitually learn about and assess all options in order to make the very best choice. “Satisficers,” in contrast, quickly locate a satisfactory choice and then act. Most of us do well to be maximizers in only the most important areas of our lives. In everyday choices such as buying food and clothes, we tend to be happier when we settle for what is good enough rather than worrying about the ideal choice. The goal is to find the proverbial joys of a simple life while grappling with sufficient options to avoid boredom.

4.2.3.3 Paradox of Self-Conflict

Conflicting desires are so commonplace that most of them provide no basis for speaking of paradox, rather than simply dilemma, ambivalence, and indecision—unless we turn to Kant and White’s paradox of guidance. Yet some conflicts are so ubiquitous and intense that they deserve to be called paradoxes of happiness centered on self conflicts. For example, we want to be thin and to exercise self-control, but we also want to eat and drink whatever we want; we desire financial security, but we also want to walk away from frustrating but secure jobs; we desire intimacy, but we also desire the independence that places intimacy at risk.

The last example is explored by Ziyad Marar as what he calls “the Happiness Paradox”: we have elemental needs both to break free and to belong. More fully, “it is not simply that these needs contradict one another, they are literally paradoxical in that the successful expression of the one requires the assertion of its opposite.” Thus we desire to be free from the constraining judgments of other individuals and groups and to choose our own values; simultaneously, as we exercise our freedom we seek justification in their eyes, which we know is attached to their values. The problem is inherent in human nature, but it intensifies in a postmodern world where belief in objectively defensible values is at risk or has evaporated.

I do not share Marar’s postmodernist vision of endless and tortured oscillation between seeking freedom from other’s values and obeisance to the values of our selected audiences whose approval we desire, with no anchor in reasoned moral judgments that apply to ourselves and others. I retain belief in the possibility of objectively justified values in terms of which we ground our identity, self-respect, and good lives. Marar powerfully illuminates, however, how our desires for individuality and intimacy are sometimes so sharply at odds that they reveal

paradoxical aspects of our identity. He is also correct that at least some such conflicts can only partly be diminished through practical wisdom and reasonable compromise, not to mention therapy, so as to make happiness possible. Sometimes happiness requires accepting, rather than fully resolving, our conflicts. This acceptance brings us to the last set of paradoxes.

4.2.4 Attitude: Affirmation and Hope

Paradoxes of attitude assert that locating happiness in things we lack is futile; we already have everything we need to be happy—if we just change our attitudes. This idea, which generalizes the paradoxes of success, is paradoxical because we tend to assume that our happiness is derived from something we currently lack, some blue bird or enchanted garden that is always just beyond our grasp. In addition, we overlook how much of our experience of the world is filtered through attitudes that are substantially up to us and that give us more control over our happiness than we usually believe. Happiness itself is defined in terms of attitudes of positive evaluation of our lives, and it turns largely on other attitudes that we can cultivate: self-respect and self-esteem, hope and optimism for a brighter future, gratitude for what we have received, humility in our expectations, relinquishing painful regrets, forgiving offenses, and working through our grief until we can accept tragedy. Paradoxes of attitude take various forms, two of which emphasize affirmation of the present and hope for the future.

4.2.4.1 Paradox of Affirmation

According to the paradox of affirmation, happiness lies in cherishing what we have already, who we are at present, and the way the world is now, rather than in pursuing future goals whose possession is always uncertain. The more we pursue happiness outside ourselves, the unhappier we become (a claim at odds with paradoxes of aims). Instead we need to change our attitudes from negation and self-denigration to affirmation and self-esteem.

In smell-the-roses moments, affirmation seems the simplest of things, for goodness and beauty are everywhere if only we are attuned to them. Far more challenging, however, is the task of developing habits of appreciation that enable us to affirm the ubiquitous good despite the equally ubiquitous bad. Such habits might be cultivated through spiritual disciplines aimed at cultivating humility, gratitude, and love. The Greek and Roman Stoics, for whom happiness meant serenity, proposed an even more demanding transformation of attitude. Epictetus advises, “Do not seek to have events happen as you want them to, but instead want them to happen as they do happen, and your life will go well.” Of great importance, we must accept

the inevitability of the deaths of ourselves and people we love: “What upsets people is not things themselves but their judgments about the things. For example, death is nothing dreadful . . . but instead the judgment about death that it is dreadful— *that* is what is dreadful.” According to Epictetus, happiness comes from what we can control and from what we must otherwise accept.

4.2.4.2 Paradox of Hope

In tension with the paradox of affirmation, the paradox of hope suggests that happiness comes from positive attitudes concerning the future, such as hope, faith, and optimism—not from getting what we hope for, but rather from the impact of these future-oriented attitudes in the present. In particular, hope generates positive thoughts about the promise of goods that will emerge from the present. This theme permeates the writings of Norman Vincent Peale: “The happiness habit is developed by simply practicing happy thinking” and “we manufacture our unhappiness by thinking unhappy thoughts, by the attitudes which we habitually take, such as the negative feeling that everything is going to turn out badly, or that other people are getting what they do not deserve and we are failing to get what we deserve.” Peale is not quite as Pollyannaish as first appears. He emphasizes that changing attitudes requires discipline in changing habits, and he acknowledges that tragedies cannot and should not be brushed aside with superficially upbeat thoughts. Still, Peale’s excessive emphasis on positive thinking is best supplanted by the more sober stance of tempering optimism with accuracy and honesty. In general, paradoxes of attitude convey only partial truths, for our happiness depends both on our attitudes and on actual events in the world—to which our attitudes are attuned when we are reasonable and truthful. Certainly Epictetus goes too far in advocating serenity-promoting attitudes by weakening our ties to people whom we love. This stance was appropriate amidst the horror and radical uncertainty of the Roman Empire, but it is unappealing in today’s world where happiness lies in the kinds of deep love and caring that Frankfurt emphasizes, and that are incompatible with the Stoics’ emotional distancing.

Furthermore, despite the insights contained in paradoxes of attitude, we lack complete control over our attitudes and hence our happiness. Indeed, many psychologists suggest that each of us has a largely fixed point or range of happiness. Studies of identical twins reveal they have comparable ranges of happiness, whether raised together or apart from each other, suggesting that our happiness range is part of our genetic inheritance. This should not be surprising, given that roughly half of our personalities are genetically given.

The twin studies also help explain why some people are by nature and temperament happier than others. They are also compatible with some puzzling, indeed paradoxical, facts about good and bad fortune. Common sense tells us that our happiness would soar permanently if we won a multimillion-dollar lottery, and it would sink irreversibly if we became quadriplegics. These emotional highs and lows do occur, but only for a short time. In tune with our range of happiness, within a year of these events, levels of happiness usually return to about where they were before. Although we are extremely sensitive to dramatic changes, we tend to adapt psychologically to the status quo, adjusting our expectations and desires to the situation before us. To be sure, fixed point and fixed-range approaches to happiness are themselves contested, and it seems that at least some major life events, for example marriage, divorce, and unemployment do modify our happiness range.

Finally, shifts in our attitudes can alter our assessments of when and how much we are happy during other periods of our lives. It makes sense to say, for example, “I thought I was happy when I was married (or single), but now I know I was not.” Again, “I thought I could never be happier than I was in my youth, but now I know that was an illusion.” As we live longer and more deeply, we acquire a wider range of comparisons to use in assessing our lives and our attitudes can shift. In this way, our conceptions of happiness are dynamic rather than static.

Check your progress

- Define the term paradox.
- Explain the different paradoxes of hedonism.
- Explain the different paradoxes of Freedom

4.3 MEASUREMENT OF HAPPINESS

Happiness can be measured at two levels, the individual and the collective one. This distinction has consequences for the way the measured responses are treated in the further analysis. In studies at the micro level (individual level) of individuals the researcher links the responses for both happiness and the correlate of the study of each respondent separately. In this way one can investigate whether, e.g., very happy people are living more frequently in a rural than in an urban environment or whether the reverse is true.

4.3.1 Micro Level (Individual level)

In studies at the micro level of individuals the researcher links the responses for both happiness and the correlate of the study of each respondent separately. In this way one can investigate

whether, e.g., very happy people are living more frequently in a rural than in an urban environment or whether the reverse is true. In this case the study can be continued on the basis of the happiness as it has been measured in Standard Methods and non-Standard Methods.

4.3.1.1 Standard Methods

Survey studies: Measuring happiness for social scientific purposes is usually realized as a part of a ‘survey’ in which a lot of people answer the same questions, either in face-to-face interviews or on questionnaires presented on the web. The way questions are presented to the respondents is adjusted to this technique, and that means typically that question are answered selecting from a limited number of response options (so called ‘closed’ questions). We will refer to this method as the standard method.

Survey questions: To all members of a sample that is considered to be representative for the target population of the study, one or more closed questions are presented with a limited number of response options. This combination of the question and all response options together is referred to as a primary scale of happiness measurement. In the World Database of Happiness (further abbreviated as WDH), some one thousand such scales have been gathered in the so-called “Measures of Happiness” collection. In the Happiness Research literature they are often referred to as “items”.

Examples of survey questions on happiness an example of such a primary scale is the combination of the single question: “Taking all things together, would you say you are ...?” with four response options:

- ☐ Very happy
- ☐ Quite happy
- ☐ Not very happy
- ☐ Not at all happy.

These options are ordered either in ascending or-as in the above example-in descending order of (subjective) happiness intensity; this order should be unambiguous. The respondent is asked to tick the one out of the four response options he feels to be the most appropriate, or sometimes the least inappropriate.

4.3.1.2 Non Standard Methods

Besides the standard procedures, there is developing an unstructured and heterogeneous set of less courant methods that deviate from the standard methods in one or more of the above

respects. We will refer to these methods as non-standard methods. Examples of these non-standard methods include:

Self-report using multiple questions, such as: 1) Affect balance scales, Such as Bradburn's Affect Balance Score (ABS); 2) Life satisfaction questionnaires, such as Diener's Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS).

Repeated single questions on happiness of the moment, such as: 1) Experience Sampling Method (ESM) e.g. Wessman & Ricks Personal Feeling Scale; 2) Day Reconstruction Method (DRM), e.g. Veenhoven's Happiness Diary.

Narrative self-report coded afterwards, such as: 1) Content analysis of open interviews, e.g. Mussen's rating of trait cheerfulness; 2) Content analysis of life reviews, e.g. Danner's rating of happiness in autobiographies; 3) Content analysis of diaries, e.g. Newman Langner scale of post-divorce adaptation.

Estimating happiness by external judges on the basis of observation of the subject's behavior, which is assumed to be related to his/her happiness. 1) Rating of cheerful behavior: e.g. Webb's rating of pupils by teachers; 2) Rating on multiple indications of mood, e.g. wellbeing subscale of Baker and Dowling Interact schedule; 3) Rating by interviewer of non-verbal behavior during the interview, e.g. Allensbacher rating of cheerful appearance; 4) Time sampling of happy and unhappy utterances, part of Bailey observation schedule for babies

4.3.2 Macro level (Collective level)

At the macro level of nations this is usually not possible. A scientist who wants to compare the happiness situation of the Dutch population to the French is not interested in all individual responses, but only in the statistical distribution of the happiness intensity in both nations separately. 'Measuring happiness at the collective level' is a short-hand term for measuring this statistical distribution of individual responses of the members of this collectivity. The researcher wants to characterize these distributions with one of more index numbers. We will use the term "index number" in this context as it is in use among statisticians and economists, i.e. as a number that quantifies a property of a phenomenon in a standard way, so not for the sum score of a number of indicators, as it is used by sociologists.

The next step will be to look for a possible relationship between these index numbers and the index numbers that characterize potentially interesting correlates in both nations. Such correlates do not necessarily bear on individual inhabitants, but can also pertain to living conditions such as, e.g., the climate or the way the government operates in one or more specific respects.

Hence, one of the central issues of happiness research is to obtain useful index numbers that:

- Sufficiently characterize the statistical distribution of happiness in a defined population on the basis of the measurement of happiness
- In a sample from and considered to be representative for that population
- In the context of a survey
- Using a suitable discrete primary scale of measurement
- And this is the issue we will focus on in the current contribution.

At the macro level, higher levels of happiness and SWB are associated with economic growth. A growing economy enables the government to reduce sources of unhappiness and discomforts to quality of life. However, there are certain controllable aspects of human behavior that can enhance one's happiness.

There is also a string of literature that has empirically estimated the impact of other macro-variables on individuals' happiness. For example, there are a few studies looking at the importance of the environment (pollution). These studies have generally found that the concentration of pollutants in the region where the individual lives has a negative impact on self-reported happiness. Measuring happiness at the collective or macro level is a short-hand term for measuring this statistical distribution of individual responses of the members of this collectivity.

Check your progress
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Write the methods of measuring happiness with micro data.• Show your familiarity with macro level measurement of happiness.

4.4 LET'S SUM UP

There are 11 happiness paradoxes of happiness divided into 4 sub paradoxes. Paradox of Hedonism is based on assumption that human seek pleasure and avoid pain. Paradox of success challenge widely held beliefs that obtaining certain things will automatically make us happy. The paradoxes caution against equating happiness with specific results, as distinct from the process of pursuing them. Paradoxes of freedom assert that (happiness-promoting) freedom is won by surrendering or limiting it. Like paradoxes of aim, the freedom paradoxes suggest we should not pursue happiness directly, but this time the emphasis is on liberation and choice. Paradoxes of attitude assert that locating happiness in things we lack is futile; we already have everything we need to be happy-if we just change our attitudes. This idea, which generalizes the paradoxes of success, is paradoxical because we tend to assume that our happiness is

derived from something we currently lack, some blue bird or enchanted garden that is always just beyond our grasp. Happiness can be measured at two levels, the individual and the collective one. Micro level of individuals the researcher links the responses for both happiness and the correlate of the study of each respondent separately.

4.5 KEYWORDS

Paradox of happiness: states that if you strive for happiness by direct means, you end up less happy than if you forget about happiness and focus on other goals. Normally valuable things are achieved by striving for them, but according to ancient wisdom, happiness bucks this trend. Ancient wisdom advises us not to pursue happiness directly.

Paradox of hope: the paradox of hope suggests that happiness comes from positive attitudes concerning the future, such as hope, faith, and optimism-not from getting what we hope for, but rather from the impact of these future-oriented attitudes in the present.

Paradox of self-interest: According to the paradox of self-interest, aiming directly and exclusively at self-interest is self-defeating. It fosters self-absorption, self-indulgence, and selfishness.

Paradox of getting: The paradox of getting is that happiness has less to do with acquiring what we seek and more to do with the journey in seeking it.

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CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK
CSHAW3: Measures of Happiness at work

UNIT-5: SURVEYS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

STRUCTURE

5.0 OBJECTIVES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 MEASUREMENT OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

5.3 HAPPINESS AT WORK (HAW) SCALE

5.3.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

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5.0 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Learn about various tools of measuring happiness at workplace
- Understand the importance of these tools
- Understand the assessment of these tools
- Learn about various factors leading to workplace happiness
- Know the psychometric properties and implication of these tools

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Happiness is not only decided by personal characteristics, but also the social environment. Workplace happiness has narrowed the social environment to the workplaces, which assesses mostly the happiness level influenced by their work and reflected in the workplace. On average, adults spend as much as a quarter to perhaps a third of their waking life in work. Research indicates that a fifth to a quarter of the variation in adult life satisfaction can be accounted for by satisfaction with work. These numbers again justify the work's affection to worker's happiness and emphasize the importance of workplace happiness to a person.

In this unit we will discuss various surveys and questionnaires that can help in measuring happiness at workplace and measure factors that are found to be significantly linked with employee happiness.

5.2 MEASUREMENT OF HAPPINESS AT WORKPLACE

Given the vast amount of time dedicated to work, job happiness constitutes a fundamental component for developing personal well-being and happiness. Happiness, with its many different definitions, tends to be a highly subjective topic. The different tests available measure happiness in many ways. These tests also look at various factors that contribute to happiness. Even the manner of how these surveys assess happiness can greatly differ from each other. One thing these happiness surveys have in common is that they aim to help one identify what happiness looks like for the individual. These happiness tests can also guide one to work on specific areas of one's life.

5.3 HAPPINESS AT WORK (HAW) SCALE

Measures of happiness in the work context needed to provide a sufficiently explanatory measurement, so Fisher (2010) identified the need for a measure that comprised the work itself (affective implication and feelings at work), job characteristics (evaluative judgements of job characteristics, such as salary, supervision, career opportunities) and the organisation as a whole (feelings of belonging to the organisation).

5.3.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Happiness at work is an umbrella concept that includes a large number of constructs ranging from transient moods and emotions to relatively stable attitudes and highly stable individual dispositions at the person level to aggregate attitudes at the unit level. The happiness-related constructs listed by Fisher vary in level, from transient affective experiences typically measured repeatedly for each respondent (transient level), to more stable attributes that characterize and differentiate persons from each other (person level), to phenomena that occur at the collective level of work team, work unit, or organization as a whole (unit level). In the workplace, happiness is influenced by both short-lived events and chronic conditions in the task, job and organization. It is also influenced by stable attributes of individuals such as personality, as well as the fit between what the job/organization provides and the individual's expectations, needs and preferences.

Understanding these contributors to happiness, Fisher (2010) developed the HAW Scale. This scale is a wide and accurate tool to explore positive employee attitudes for both theoretical and practical reasons.

5.3.2 SUBSCALES

The HAW scale has strong psychometric properties, and comprises of 31 items in total. It provides a more integrated perspective of working life and comprises three dimensions:

Engagement (17-items) - The work itself, measured through engagement, aims to capture enthusiasm, passion, thrill at work, and positive mental states related to vigour, dedication and absorption. Engagement is a special feeling of energy and motivation related to thrill and passion at work. It is a highly energising and stimulating well-being state. Therefore, engagement refers to feelings resulting from meaningfulness at work.

Job satisfaction (6-items) - Job characteristics, measured through job satisfaction, aim to evaluate job conditions. Job satisfaction refers to judgements about work as a result of job

characteristics (joy, gladness). Job satisfaction is understood as adequacy, sufficiency, acceptability or suitability. It evaluates employees' feelings about working conditions, such as salary, career opportunities or relationships with peers. It is a passive and reactive concept that shows and measures whether we achieve what we want in terms of work conditions.

Affective organisational commitment (8-items) - The organisation as a whole, measured through affective organisational commitment, considers affective feelings at work and continuance and normative commitment at work. Affective organisational commitment takes the whole organisation as a reference, measuring affection for the organisation, monetary evaluation of belonging to the organisation, and feelings of responsibility to the organisation (i.e., 'I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation'; 'I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation').

<i>The Targets for happy feelings</i>	<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Corresponding dimension</i>
Work itself	Affective implication and feelings at work	Job engagement (JE)
JE is defined as	A special feeling of energy and motivation related to the capacity to be thrilled by and feel passionate about work	
Job Characteristics	Evaluative judgments of job	Job satisfaction (JS)
	Characteristics, such as salary, supervision, career opportunities	
JS is defined as	A reactive concept that captures feelings about working conditions, such as salary, career opportunities or relationship with peers	
Organisation as a whole	Feelings of belonging to the organisation	Affective organisational commitment (AOC)
AOC refers to	Feelings of affection and belonging to the organisation	

Table 5.1 Showing the details of dimensions as proposed by Fisher (2010)

5.3.3 SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

High scores on all three subscales show higher level of happiness and low scores represent low levels of happiness and well-being.

5.3.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

HAW presents satisfactory reliability and validity in terms of its dimensions of engagement, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

5.3.5 S-HAW

Although the HAW scale overcomes the psychometric properties of dimensionality, reliability and validity, a shorter version is needed. The current length of the HAW scale may cause

problems of lower response rates and is more complex to administer than a shorter one (Stanton et al., 2002). For the purpose, a short version of the scale S-HAW was developed by Salas-Vallina and Alegre (2018). The concept of happiness at work, measured by means of SHAW, goes one step beyond well-being for different reasons. This scale comprises of both hedonic and eudaimonic foundations with the incorporation of work engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Salas-Vallina & Alegre, 2018).

5.3.6 DEVELOPMENT OF SHAW

The scale was developed as follows:

First, the concept of HAW and its antecedents and outcomes were reviewed. Next, a four-step process to shorten the HAW scale (creating SHAW) was followed. In Step 1, the items are selected that compose SHAW and compare the connection between HAW dimensions. In Step 2, verification of the factor structure of HAW is done. In Step 3, the type of correlations between SHAW and its theoretically proper antecedents are examined. Finally, in Step 4, the correlations of SHAW and theoretically pertinent outcome constructs are explored.

5.3.7 ITEM CONSTRUCTION

S-HAW is based on Fisher's conceptualisation and satisfies all the essential criteria suggested by her. It includes the three dimensions: job engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organisational commitment with total nine items. For job engagement, three items extending from 1="never" to 6="always" from the Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) were used. The three items for measuring Job satisfaction were adapted from Schriesheim and Tsui's (1980) scale starting from 1="totally disagree" to 5="totally agree". The third construct, affective organisational commitment also consisted of three items (Allen and Meyer, 1990) using Likert scale from 1="totally disagree" to 5="totally agree".

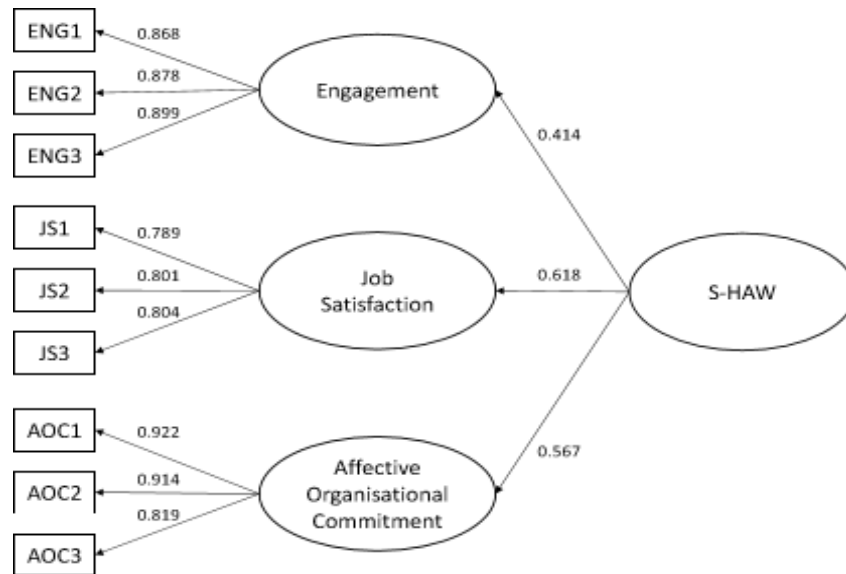


Fig. 5.1.: Short Happiness at Work (SHAW) scale selected items

5.3.8 SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

High scores on all three subscales show higher level of happiness and low scores represent low levels of happiness and well-being.

5.3.9 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

SHAW presents satisfactory reliability and has similar properties to the HAW scale in terms of its dimensions of engagement, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. The α coefficients for the happiness at workplace factors were 0.879 to job engagement (three items), 0.870 for job satisfaction (three items) and 0.768 for affective organisational commitment (three items). It also has high construct validity.

5.3.10 IMPLICATION

SHAW scale is a viable measure to implement in the growing field of positive management, in which few comprehensively reliable and valid wide measures exist (Fisher, 2010). SHAW is a quick and accessible tool to assess happiness in the work context. It presents a high statistical potential to widely capture positive attitudes at work and may help organisations to attract creative, enthusiastic and passionate employees who make companies successful.

5.4 OXFORD HAPPINESS QUESTIONNAIRE

The Oxford Happiness questionnaire received its name because it was created by Michael Argyle and Peter Hills at Oxford University. Argyle and Hills (2002) stated that the questionnaire is an improved version of its predecessor, the Oxford Happiness Inventory. The Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI, Argyle, Martin, & Crossland, 1989) was devised as a broad measure of personal happiness, mainly for in-house use in the Department of Experimental Psychology of the University of Oxford in the late 1980s. The scale has been found to behave consistently in other areas as well, across cultures.

5.4.1 ITEM CONSTRUCTION

The 29-item Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ) (Hills and Argyle 2002) is a widely-used self-report questionnaire to assess personal happiness. It is a new version of the original Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) (Argyle et al. 1989), which contains 29 items, each accompanied by four statements representing response options similar to the Beck Depression Inventory (Argyle et al. 1989; Beck et al. 1996). The authors concluded that out of 29 items only 12 items could reliably reflect individual happiness levels. Hills and Argyle (2002) used terms well-being, subjective well-being, and psychological well-being as synonymous to happiness in describing the OHI and OHQ. Both measures are based on theoretical considerations supported by research findings indicating a single dimension of happiness that covers positive and negative affect, and cognitive evaluations such as life satisfaction and happy traits (Andrews and McKennell 1980; Argyle 2001; Diener 1984). Furthermore, there are items reflecting specific cognitive components and traits found within the single happiness factor labeled as sociability, sense of control, physical fitness, positive cognition, mental alertness, self-esteem, cheerfulness, optimism and empathy (Hills and Argyle 1998, 2002).

5.4.2 SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

The scale employs a 6-point Likert scale response format from strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 6, with the higher scores corresponding to higher levels of happiness. There are 12 negatively worded items that require reverse coding before calculating the total happiness score, which is a sum of individual item scores. The lowest happiness score is 1 and the happiest score is 6. A score of 4 generally means that the person is satisfied; this has also been observed to be the score of the average person. Examples of positively worded items include 'I am very happy' and negatively worded items 'I rarely wake up feeling rested'. The sum of the item scores is an overall measure of happiness, with high scores indicating greater happiness.

1-2 scores indicate 'not happy'.

2-3 scores indicate 'somewhat unhappy'.

3-4 scores indicate 'not particularly happy or unhappy'.

4-5 scores indicate 'somewhat happy or moderately happy'.

5-6 scores indicate 'very happy'.

6 score indicate 'too happy'.

5.4.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

According to Hills and Argyle (2002), the OHQ is supposed to measure personal happiness as a broader uni-dimensional construct and has good internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha at the level of 0.90 and above.

5.4.4 SHORT VERSION OF OHQ

A short-form version of the OHQ was also devised for use when time and space is limited using discriminant analysis of the full scale. Eight items (1, 3, 12, 13, 16, 18, 21, 29) were sufficient correctly to classify respondents' scores with an accuracy of 90%, and the correlation between the results of the full and short scales was greater than 0.90 and highly significant.

5.4.5 IMPLICATION

People assessed on this scale are advised that rather than comparing to other people, it's probably more meaningful to compare the score now to the score later, and see if there's a change. Some of the exercises have been shown in scientific studies to make a lasting, positive impact on happiness.

5.5. WORK RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE (WRQoL) SCALE

The Work-Related Quality of Life (WRQoL) scale is a 23-item psychometric scale developed by Van Laar, Edwards & Easton, 2007, used to gauge the perceived quality of life of employees as measured through six psychosocial sub-factors. The WRQoL scale is used by individuals, organisations and consultants as well as researchers as an aid to assessing and understanding the quality of working life of working people.

Quality of Working Life (QoWL) aims to capture the essence of an individual's work experience in the broadest sense. The QoWL of an individual is influenced by their direct experience of work and by the direct and indirect factors that affect this experience. From organisational policies to personality, from feelings of general wellbeing to actual working

conditions, an individual's assessment of their Quality of Working Life is affected as much by their job as what he or she brings to the job.

5.5.1 SUBSACLES

General Well-Being (GWB) (6-items)- GWB reflects psychological well-being and general physical health aspects. Your sense of GWB may be more or less independent of your work situation. General well-being both influences, and is influenced by, work. It warrants attention and action where necessary as it is closely linked with your overall Quality of Working Life.

Home-Work Interface (HWI) (3-items)- The degree to which you think the organisation understands and tries to help you with pressures outside of work is measured by this subscale. HWI is related to your work life balance, and is about having a measure of control over when, where and how you work. It is achieved when you feel you have a more fulfilled life inside and outside paid work, to the mutual benefit of you and your work. A poor work-life balance can have negative effects on your well-being.

Job and Career Satisfaction (JCS) (6-items)- This WRQoL subscale reflects the extent to which you are content with your job and prospects at work. JCS is a very important subscale in overall quality of working life. How you score on the JCS subscale relates to whether you feel the workplace provides you with the best things at work - the things that make you feel good, such as: a sense of achievement, high self esteem, fulfilment of potential, etc. The JCS subscale is influenced by clarity of goals and role ambiguity, appraisal, recognition and reward, personal development career benefits and enhancement and training needs.

Control at Work WRQoL (CAW) (3-items)- Lastly, this subscale shows how far you feel you are involved in decisions that affect you at work. Control at Work reflects the level to which you feel you can exercise what you consider to be an appropriate level of control within your work environment. That perception of control might be linked to various aspects of work, including the opportunity to contribute to the process of decision making that affects you. Leading authors in the field suggest that perception of personal control can strongly affect both an individuals' experience of stress and their health.

Working Conditions (WCS) (3-items)- This subscale assesses the extent to which you are satisfied with the conditions in which you work. Your score for the WCS subscale indicates the extent to which you are satisfied with the fundamental resources, working conditions and security necessary to do your job effectively. This includes aspects of the work environment

such as noise and temperature, shift patterns and working hours, pay, tools and equipment, safety and security. Dissatisfaction with these aspects can have a significantly adverse effect on your overall WRQoL score.

Stress at Work (SAW) (2-items)- This subscale assesses the extent to which you see work pressures and demands as acceptable and not excessive or „stressful“. The UK Health & Safety Executive (HSE) define stress as: “the adverse reaction people have to excessive pressure or other types of demand placed on them”. Work pressures and demands can be a positive of aspect of our work experience, providing challenge and stimulation, but, where we see them as excessive and beyond our ability to cope, we are likely to feel overloaded and stressed.

5.5.2 ITEM CONSTRUCTION

The individual version of the WRQoL questionnaire is normally presented as a 24 item single page scale. Although the WRQoL scale has 23 items, a further general question is normally added to serve as an indicator of the validity and reliability of the scale and factors. This 24th item is: ‘I am satisfied with the overall quality of my working life’.The WRQoL scale is distinctive in that it measures both work (JCS, SAW, CAW and WCS) and non-work (GWB) factors, as well the HWI which links the two life domains.

Following figure represents confirmatory factor analysis of the six-factor, 23-item Work-Related Quality of Life model.

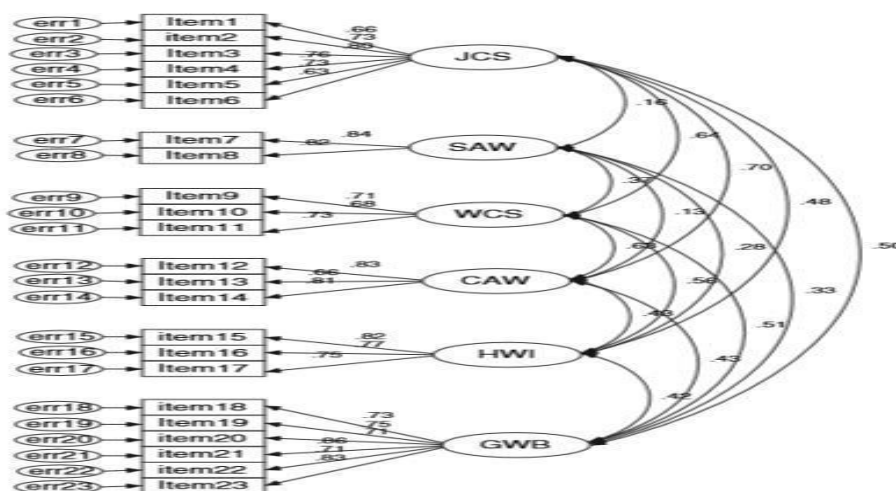


Fig. 5.2: Confirmatory factor analysis of the six-factor, 23-item Work-Related Quality of Life model.

5.5.3 SCORING AND INTERPRETATION

Each item is evaluated on a 5 point likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’=1 to ‘strongly agree’=5. Three items are scored reversely. Once the scoring is completed, the overall scores and scores for each subscale can be calculated. Percentile equivalent for each subscale and total scores is given and higher percentiles indicate a better Quality of Working Life (QoWL).

If scores on one or more subscales is in the lower range, this indicates that, generally, individual may be substantially less satisfied with work life in one or more areas than most people. He may not be enjoying work as much as he could, and though some aspects of work may satisfy him, there are issues which warrant attention.

For many people, most of their scores will, of course, be in the average range. Where the scores fall into the mid range, it may indicate that the working life overall probably does not provide with very high levels of satisfaction, but then again there may not be whole dissatisfaction either.

Where the scores are in the higher range, it indicates that, generally, the quality of working life is good and satisfying. The key thing is to maintain that good quality of working life.

5.5.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Overall scale reliability is 0.91 with good subscale reliabilities ranging from 0.76 to 0.91. The scale also has high construct validity.

5.5.5 IMPLICATION

The Work-Related Quality of Life Scale (WRQoL) is an evidence based measure of Quality of Working Life, and provides key information required for assessing employee contentment for use in planning interventions, monitoring workforce experience and assessing the effect of organisational change. The WRQoL factor sub-scales allow researchers and organisations to analyse the most important issues affecting the overall employment experience of employees and for these to be interpreted within a wide context of work and individual related factors.

5.6 LET US SUM UP

Companies all over the globe have started investing in workshops and learning sessions to help their employees become happier. For the purpose, self-assessment tools are often created in a scientific manner through research, testing, and norming. Self-reports allows us to take the

assessment over and over, especially after specific interventions. The specific self-report test gives us a way to measure our happiness and find out if the changes we have implemented in our lives have made an impact. It also gives us an idea of specific times when we are doing well and how we can continue to do well.

Check your progress
<p>Based on what you've learnt about the different scales in this chapter</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the need to develop S-HAW? How it is different from its original version? • How is OHQ scored? • How do various dimensions of WRQoL scale represent happiness?

5.7 KEYWORDS

Hedonism & Eudaimonism- Happiness has been broadly defined according to two opposing philosophical traditions: hedonism and eudaimonism. The hedonic view equates happiness with pleasure, comfort, and enjoyment, whereas the eudaimonic view equates happiness with the human ability to pursue complex goals which are meaningful to the individual and society.

Job satisfaction- Job satisfaction refers to judgements about work as a result of job characteristics (joy, gladness). Job satisfaction is understood as adequacy, sufficiency, acceptability or suitability. It evaluates employees' feelings about working conditions, such as salary, career opportunities or relationships with peers. It is a passive and reactive concept that shows and measures whether we achieve what we want in terms of work conditions.

Quality of Working Life (QoWL)- The term QoWL (quality of work life) usually refers to aspects of the broader concept of quality of life that relates to the work setting.

General Well-being- General Well-Being is the quality of life of a person/individual in terms of health, happiness, and prosperity rather than wealth.

Likert Scale- Various kinds of rating scales have been developed to measure attitudes directly (i.e. the person knows their attitude is being studied). The most widely used is the Likert scale (1932). In its final form, the Likert scale is a five (or seven) point scale which is used to allow the individual to express how much they agree or disagree with a particular statement.

Reliability-Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. Psychologists consider three types of consistency: over time (test-retest reliability), across items (internal consistency), and across different researchers (inter-rater reliability).

Validity-Validity is the extent to which the scores from a measure represent the variable they are intended to measure.

Norms-A norm is a standard of reference; it enables one to understand the meaning of a test score.

Percentile- In statistics, a percentile is a score below which a given percentage of scores in its frequency distribution falls.

5.8 REFERENCES

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CERTIFICATE COURSE IN THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

CSHAW 3: Measures of Happiness at work

UNIT-6: ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS IN EMPLOYEE'S HAPPINESS: CASE STUDIES

STRUCTURE

6.0 OBJECTIVES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

6.2 ROLE OF ORGANISATIONS IN EMPLOYEES' HAPPINESS

6.2.1 HOW DO WE DESIGN ORGANIZATIONS WITH HAPPINESS IN MIND?

6.2.2 THE BAMBA MODEL

6.3 CASE STUDIES

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6.3.2 HELPING OTHERS HAPPINESS

6.3.3 THE BEST WORKPLACE? HOME.

6.3.4 THE COMEBACK OF 'EMPLOYEE OF THE MONTH'

6.3.5 THE DANISH CONCEPT OF *ARBEJDSGLÆDE*

6.3.6 HAPPY WORKERS ARE MORE PRODUCTIVE

6.3.7 HAPPY EMPLOYEES ARE MORE CREATIVE

6.3.8 COMPANIES ARE MORE LIKELY TO MAINTAIN HAPPIER EMPLOYEES

6.3.9 HAPPINESS IS A POWERFUL MOTIVATOR

6.3.10 HAPPY LEADERS ARE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS

6.3.11 HAPPINESS LEADS TO ORGANIZATIONAL BRILLIANCE

6.3.12 HAPPINESS PROMOTES WORKPLACE AND CAREER SUCCESS

6.4 LET US SUM UP

6.5 KEYWORDS

6.6 REFERENCES

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the value of employee's satisfaction at workplace
- Understand the importance of organization in employee's happiness
- Various ways how organization contributes in happiness at workplace
- Case studies on importance of organization in happiness of employees
- How happiness at workplace can increase the productivity and efficiency

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Workplace happiness is not just about smiling faces, friendly gestures and cracking jokes with co-workers and supervisors. It is about the need to know that one matters and that one has an impact in the bigger picture. It is about the need to know that one is making progress. It is about looking at the positives in negative situations. This sounds easy but the truth is most employees don't feel happy at work because they don't feel valued at all. Thus, the reward for organization is definite – happier employees, higher productivity, more collaboration, enhanced efficiency and creativity, thus greater profits. Thus, the reward for organization is definite – happier employees, higher productivity, more collaboration, enhanced efficiency and creativity, thus greater profits.

In this unit we will discuss the role and importance of organization in enhancing happiness at workplace. We will be discussing some case studies that will help in better understanding of how important employee's happiness is for the organization.

6.2 ROLE OF ORGANISATIONS IN EMPLOYEE'S HAPPINESS

What does workplace happiness look like? It's different for every company and dependent on a positive culture, engaged workforce, and involved, authentic leadership. Happy employees share many characteristics — productivity, optimism, creativity, dedication — you can feel when a culture resonates with employee happiness. Sadly, there's no magic bullet for building workplace happiness.

Most leaders want to build happier workplaces but they fail in doing so because they aren't sure where to begin and how to go about achieving this. Some redesign the workplaces to make the walls colourful and others start by putting fridges with free snacks. These are all superficial and unauthentic ways of building high-performing work culture based on happiness.

Employee happiness is a crucial ingredient for organizational success. Organizations which adopted this mindset and make efforts to enhance the happiness of their employees in the workplace are reaping the benefits.

Take a look at these few statistics that prove this claim.

- Companies with happy employees outperform competition by 20%
- Happy employees are 12% more productive
- Happy salespeople produce 37% greater sales
- Employees who report being happy at work take 10X fewer sick days than unhappy employees
- The stock prices of “Fortune’s 100 Best Companies to Work for” rose 14% per year from 1998 to 2005, while companies not on the list only reported a 6% increase.

6.2.1 HOW DO WE DESIGN ORGANIZATIONS WITH HAPPINESS IN MIND?

Researches present four principles for achieving that goal:

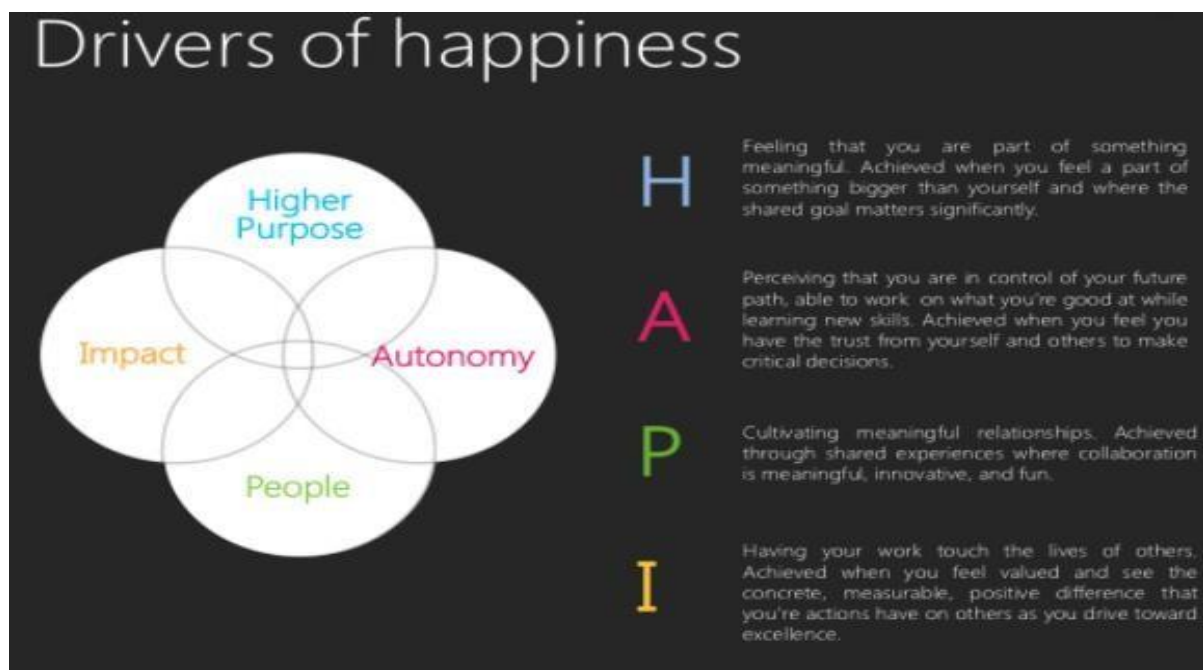


Fig 4.1 Drivers of Happiness

Higher Purpose: Feeling you are part of something meaningful. Achieved when you feel part of something bigger than yourself, and where the shared goal matters significantly. People are

happier when their short-term and long-term goals are aligned. Examples include corporate philanthropy for customers and employees.

Autonomy: Perceiving that you are in control of your future path, able to work on things you are good at and learn new skills. It is achieved when you feel you have the trust from yourself and others to make decisions critical to your work. Examples include giving employees time to work on projects they are passionate about, and allowing customers to personalize their experiences.

People: Cultivating meaningful relationships. Achieved through shared experiences where collaboration is productive, innovative and/or fun. Examples include having company-wide innovation generation days, and using interactive websites to create connections between the company and customers.

Impact: Having your work impact the lives of others. It is achieved when you feel valued and see the concrete, measurable and positive difference that your actions have on others. It is also a feeling of momentum and seeing your skills utilized toward the goal of excellence. Examples include creating a non-hierarchical system to allow employees to present and implement new ideas, and providing customers' perks and a voice, for example, through an interactive website or blog.

6.2.2 THE BAMBA MODEL

Raghunathan, R. (2020) explained the five determinants of happiness at the workplace using BAMBA Model:



Fig. 4.2 BAMBA Model

1. **Basic needs:** The most fundamental needs we have anywhere, especially at work, are our physical and emotional requirements like being paid enough to cover their expenses, having an ergonomically sound workstation, ensuring people like having us around, the company is transparent in how business and team are managed.
2. **Autonomy:** The modern workforce demands a sense of freedom and control over their work. It is found that organizations that allow their people to voice out their opinion outperform compared to companies which do not allow to voice out. A lot goes into autonomy, starting from process freedom, clarity, and how you achieve it, from where you achieve it, with who you achieve it to how you achieve it.
3. **Mastery:** Everybody has a desire to become great, perhaps even the best at what they do. Mastery is about harnessing the zeal that one has to do well in what they are doing increasingly and is one of the areas where most organizations can improve.
4. **Belonging:** A sense of connection that you have with your co-workers and it turns out to be super important in our organizational context. We are a highly socialized species. The most significant incentive that leaders need to focus on is reenergizing the feeling of belongingness amongst their team members.
5. **Abundance Culture:** An abundance of culture comes from positive leadership. It is about expressing gratitude. Doug Conant, the former CEO of Campbell Soups, used to

write five gratitude cards each day. Over his career, he has written over 30,000 handwritten thank you cards. This practice helped him take Campbell Soups from being the worst-performing food company to becoming one of the best Fortune 500 companies in the world. Less than a decade later and was because his practice of writing thank you notes spearheaded his efforts to reenergize a low engagement culture within the organization. Building an abundance of culture within the organization frees us from a chain of negativity. That's not to say that it will take away failure, but an abundance mindset creates the attitude that if something doesn't work, there is always a way – it's a matter of trying again until we find ways that work.

6.3 CASE STUDIES

Organizations are increasingly focusing on their employees' happiness because research shows that, on average, **organizations with happier employees are 9% more profitable than organizations with unhappy employees.**

Here are some case studies of company cultures that champion authentic workplace happiness. Read on for real-life examples of workplace happiness and the profound effect they have on employees.

6.3.1 CROSS-FUNCTIONAL COLLABORATION

Farm Credit Services of America has a well-documented reputation as a standout employer in Omaha, Nebraska. It's been named one of the Best Places to Work in Omaha seven times since 2003, in addition to two Sustained Excellence Awards.

The way the company solves problems and makes decisions is a major reason for its high employee happiness, according to Quantum Workplace's e-book "3 Stories from America's Best Places to Work." At any given time, Farm Credit Services uses 40 to 50 cross-functional teams-teams made of up employees from multiple departments-to tackle company-wide decisions, such as how to use office space or which employee wellbeing strategies to implement.

"Cross-functional teams are one of the absolute strengths of this organization that get us to both culture and business results that we have," Vice President of HR Kurt Kline tells Quantum Workplace. "The power of that is bringing in diversity of thought and getting buy-in. It's a little slower, it's a little harder, but we believe it gets us to the best outcome."

6.3.2 HELPING OTHERS = HAPPINESS

The happiest workers in the U.S. live in Los Angeles, where “volunteerism beats out more glamorous roles such as producer and personal assistant on the satisfaction ranking,” according to the **Indeed Job Happiness Index 2016**. Not only does Los Angeles come out on top, “the best-reviewed jobs reveal a diverse mix that undercuts the stereotype of the city as a place obsessed with superficial glamor.” In general, jobs focused on helping others rank highly for happiness, Indeed concludes. But here’s the thing: *all* jobs help others in some way, that’s why communicating to employees *how* they’re helping is so essential to building workplace happiness.

6.3.3 THE BEST WORKPLACE? HOME

Some companies find that the best workplace for their employees is at home. At Massachusetts’ Blue Cross Blue Shield, about 20 percent of employees work from home on a full-time basis, according to The Atlantic’s “The Happier Workplace.” It saves the company \$8.5 million in real estate costs, cuts out employee distractions, improves productivity and eases the stress of long commutes five days a week. One employee reported how this new-found flexibility affected her job satisfaction: for every day she doesn’t commute, she gains two hours of personal time, and because of her easier schedule, she’s going to the gym more and has lost 10 pounds.

6.3.4 THE COMEBACK OF ‘EMPLOYEE OF THE MONTH’

“Employee of the Month” programs used to be the standard for recognition. In recent years, however, they’ve become the object of mockery. Research shows that “Employee of the Month” programs are ineffective in the absence of a more comprehensive recognition strategy and commonly considered a relic among HR pros. But Forbes contributor, author and motivation expert Rodd Wagner makes the case this week for “Why You May Need an Employee of the Month.” He researched “the most memorable recognition ever received” according to a representative sample of American workers. The responses surprised him: a significant number brought up being named “Employee of the Month.” Why?

- “It showed that I was important and hard-working above others, that I do an outstanding job.”
- “I got an award and got to pick my schedule for the month.”
- “I got applause from my colleagues.”
- “You are voted on by your peers, including management.”
- “It showed that I was appreciated.”
- “Being able to savor all my hard work for a month.”

- “I loved the award and recognition.”

The takeaway here may not be to immediately revive your Employee of the Month program, but to instead make employee appreciation efforts as simple, personal and memorable as these employees describe.

6.3.5 THE DANISH CONCEPT OF *Arbejdsglæde*

In Denmark, workplace happiness is so common there’s a word for it: *arbejdsglæde*. *Arbejde* means work and *glæde* means happiness, so *arbejdsglæde* is “happiness at work.” The word exists in the other Nordic languages but is not common in any other language on the planet, according to “**Happy Hour Is 9 to 5**” author Alexander Kjerulf. In a **Fast Company article**, Kjerulf — a native Dane — explains how *arbejdsglæde* reflects Danish attitudes to work. “There is a word for it in Danish because Danish workplaces have a long-standing tradition of wanting to make their employees happy. To most Danes, a job isn’t just a way to get paid; we fully expect to enjoy ourselves at work,” he writes.

Kjerulf encountered a different attitude in the U.S. “Many Americans hate their jobs and consider this to be perfectly normal. Similarly, many U.S. workplaces do little or nothing to create happiness among employees, sticking to the philosophy that ‘If you’re enjoying yourself, you’re not working hard enough,’” he writes. Workplace happiness really is a cultural commitment.

6.3.6 HAPPY WORKERS ARE MORE PRODUCTIVE

Every business strives to be as productive as possible – which is why they should be looking closely at the research that’s telling us that happier workers tend to be more productive.

In a study conducted at the University of Warwick by Oswald, Andrew J., Proto, Eugenio and Sgroi, Daniel. (2015), three different styles of experiment were conducted where randomly selected individuals, who were made happier by various interventions, exhibited around 12% higher levels of productivity. The research also discovered that lower happiness levels reduced productivity, leading the researchers to conclude there’s a causal link between happiness and performance.

6.3.7 HAPPY EMPLOYEES ARE MORE CREATIVE

Creativity and happiness at work might be strongly linked. Author Shawn Achor argues the brain is much more efficient and creative when a person is feeling positive. As a result, happy

employees are better able to think outside the box and arrive at novel solutions that frustrated, less positive employees might not consider.

This opinion is seconded by Forbes contributor William Craig, who writes that employees who aren't happy with their work environments are likely to put in less effort at work.

6.3.8 COMPANIES ARE MORE LIKELY TO RETAIN HAPPIER EMPLOYEES

Any business that wants to be successful knows it has to hold on to its key employees. And while a small degree of overall turnover can be healthy for a business, the costs associated with the loss of expertise coupled with having to recruit and train up new employees can become significant.

Happiness has a role to play here with research conducted by Wyld, D. (2014) suggesting the more satisfied and happy an employee feels, the less likely they are to leave their employer. Even better, this relationship grows stronger over time. Put simply, there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and job embeddedness and voluntary turnover. Quite significantly however, by measuring these effects over the three year study period, Holtom and his colleagues found that the strength of this correlation increased the longer an employee remained with the organization.

6.3.9 HAPPINESS IS A POWERFUL MOTIVATOR

For employees to perform at their best, they need to be engaged and motivated. This study by Haase, C., Poulin, M.J., & Heckhausen, J. (2012) looked at what lay behind individuals' sense of motivation to commit their time and invest effort when they were trying to achieve important goals. What was it that enabled them to persist, even when faced with challenges and obstacles? The research revealed that when the individuals felt happy they exhibited greater levels of motivation, partly because of their positive view that they had control over attaining the goals they were working on. Thus, when individuals experience positive affect, they become more motivated to invest time and effort, and overcome obstacles when pursuing their goals, in part because they believe they have more control over attaining their goals.

6.3.10 HAPPY LEADERS ARE MORE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS

We all know how critical the role of the leader is for business success but does their happiness in the workplace have any impact on the organisation?

A study by Jin, S., Seo, M., & Shapiro, D. (2016) of 357 managers looked at how leaders' positive mood states linked to transformational leadership and confirmed that leaders who experience more positive affect at work are indeed more likely to be transformational within

their company. Leaders with more positive moods at work are more likely to be viewed by employees as transformational.

6.3.11 HAPPINESS LEADS TO ORGANIZATIONAL BRILLIANCE

Workplace Happiness is an individual's sense of joy, satisfaction, and well-being, as well as an individual's sense that his life is meaningful and worthwhile.

A research by Nafei, W. A. (2018) found that increase in workplace happiness leads to improved organizational brilliance. The positive impact of workplace happiness will encourage workers and motivate them. The results of the analysis showed that WH has a significant impact on OB (brilliance of leaders, brilliance of service and innovation, and brilliance in the field of knowledge).

6.3.12 HAPPINESS PROMOTES WORKPLACE AND CAREER SUCCESS

It used to be assumed that people were happy because they were successful at work. This study by Walsh, S. C., Boehm, J. K. & Lyubomirsky, S. (2018), however, asked this question: are people actually successful in work *because* they are happy?

The researchers gathered in evidence from cross-sectional, longitudinal and experimental studies that all examined the impact of happiness on a whole range of work outcomes. They found that not only was happiness correlated with workplace success and optimal functioning in work, but frequently happiness preceded them both.

Happy people are more satisfied with their jobs and report having greater autonomy in their duties. They perform better on assigned tasks than their less happy peers and are more likely to take on extra role tasks such as helping others. They receive more social support from their co-workers and tend to use more cooperative approaches when interacting with others. Happy people are less likely to exhibit withdrawal behaviours, such as absenteeism, and are less likely to be unemployed. And more generally, happy people are physically healthier, live longer, and cope more effectively with challenges- characteristics that undoubtedly make it easier to accomplish more in their careers. Accordingly, overall, happy people enjoy greater workplace success, and engage in more behaviours paralleling success, than do less happy people.

6.4 LET US SUM UP

The onus of happiness lies not just with the management but also with the individual employees. Training in happiness at work and life is a great way to help your employees learn about simple practical ways like meditation, helping others, showing gratitude etc. The efforts

from both management and individuals go a long in boosting the happiness at work. Begin by making a commitment to employee's wellbeing, placing more value on individual learning and development, empowering staff to take ownership for their career growth, allowing downtime for reflection and fun, understanding the real motivators and building them in the system.

Check your progress

Based on the case studies discussed in this chapter

- What are the determinants of workplace happiness?
- How can organization influence the happiness of employees?
- Discuss how workplace happiness is influenced by both leaders and employees.
- How does happiness of employees effect the organization?

6.5 KEYWORDS

Autonomy: Autonomy means allowing employees to shape their work environment so they can perform to the best of their ability. Autonomy is not working in isolation, doing what you want whenever you want, or lack of guidance. An autonomous workplace is based on trust, respect, dependability and integrity.

Leadership: Leadership in the workplace refers to the ability of an individual to manage and supervise a company and its fellow employees. It also refers to the ability to positively influence others to perform their jobs to the best of their ability. This will result in success for the company as a whole.

Cross-functional teams: teams made of up employees from multiple departments to tackle company-wide decisions.

Arbejdsglæde: In Danish, *Arbejde* means work and *glæde* means happiness, so *arbejdsglæde* is “happiness at work.”

Organizational Brilliance: brilliance of leaders, brilliance of service and innovation, and brilliance in the field of knowledge.

Cross-sectional study: A cross-sectional study involves looking at data from a population at one specific point in time. The participants in this type of study are selected based on particular variables of interest.

Longitudnal study: A longitudinal study is a type of correlational research study that involves looking at variables over an extended period of time. This research can take place over a period of weeks, months, or even years. In some cases, longitudinal studies can last several decades.

Experimental study: Experimental study is study in which conditions are under the direct control of the investigator. It is employed to test the efficacy of a preventive or therapeutic measure. Experimental studies can provide the strongest evidence about the existence of a cause-effect relationship.

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