

Module Two

UNDERSTANDING AND MANAGING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

(Seventeen Hours)

- **CHAPTER FOUR-*Individual differences and work behaviour* (One hour)**
- **CHAPTER FIVE-*Personality* (Two hours)**
- **CHAPTER SIX-*Attitudes* (Three Hours)**
- **CHAPTER SEVEN-*Perceptions and Attributions*(Two hours)**
- **CHAPTER EIGHT-*Motivation*(Two hours)**
- **CHAPTER NINE-*Job Design, Work and Motivation*(Two hours)**
- **CHAPTER TEN-*Evaluation ,Feedback and Rewards*(Two hours)**
- **CHAPTER ELEVEN-*Managing misbehaviour*(One hour)**
- **CHAPTER TWELVE-*Stress and Counseling*(Two hours)**

Reference:

1. **Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P.Robbins, Timothy A.Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, Pearson Education**
2. **Organizational behaviour-Human behaviour at work by John W Newstrom, 12th edition, McGrawHill**
3. **Organizational behavior and management by Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson - 7th edition, Tata McGrawHill**
4. **Organisational Behaviour by Steven L Mc Shane Mary Ann Von Glinow Radha R Sharma Tata McGrawHill**
5. **Organizational behavior by Don Hellriegel; John W. Slocum; Richard W.Woodman-8th edition, Thomson South-Western**

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Chapter four

Individual differences and work behaviour

Objectives

- Understanding why individual differences are important
- Knowing Individual differences influencing work behaviour

Why Individual Differences Are Important?

It is important for managers to know the individual differences among the employees as:

- Individual differences have a direct effect on behavior
- People who perceive things differently behave differently
- People with different attitudes respond differently to directives
- People with different personalities interact differently with bosses, coworkers, subordinates, and customers

Also, Individual differences help to explain:

- Why some people embrace change and others are fearful of it
- Why some employees will be productive only if they are closely supervised, while others will be productive if they are not
- Why some workers learn new tasks more effectively than others

Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) Cycle-

Schneider (1987) asserted that “the people make the place” and that organizational culture, climate and practices are determined by the people in the organization. ‘Attributes of people, not the nature of external environment, or organizational technology, or organizational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organizational behavior’ (Schneider, 1987). The people are functions of an Attraction-Selection-Attrition cycle. In 1995 the ASA Framework was updated. Schneider already mentioned that the person is particularly important in the organizational context. Schneider et al (1995) now added the dimension that the people are responsible for the structure, processes and culture of the organization.

Attraction: People are differentially attracted to careers as a function of their own interests and personality (Holland, 1985). Other signs of attraction are researched by Tom (1971) and Vroom (1966). They have stated that people search environments that fit by their personality and that people would like to obtain their outcomes by selecting a specific organization.

Selection: Organizations select people who they think are compatible for many different kinds of jobs. In that way organizations end up choosing people who share many common personal attributes, although they may not share common competencies.

Attrition: The opposite side of attraction. When people do not fit an environment they tend to leave it. When people leave the environment a more homogenous group stays than those were initially attracted to the organization.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 437-453.

Schneider, B., Goldstein, H.W. & Smith, D.B. (1995). The ASA Framework: An Update. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 747-779.

Each phase of the ASA cycle is significantly influenced by the individual differences of each person. Different people are attracted to different careers and organizations as a function of their own: abilities, interests, personalities.

Organizations select employees on the basis of the needs the organization has for skills and abilities and individual attributes such as values and personality

Attrition occurs when individuals discover they do not like being part of the organization and elect to resign, or the organization determines an individual is not succeeding and elects to terminate

Effective managerial practice requires that individual behavior differences be recognized, and when feasible, taken into consideration while carrying out the job of managing organizational behavior. To understand individual differences a manager must observe and recognize the differences and study relationships between variables that influence behavior

Individual Differences in the Workplace

Individual differences in hereditary and diversity factors, personality, ability and skills, perception and attitude will affect work behavior like productivity, creativity and performance.

Demographic characteristics are the background characteristics that help shape what a person becomes. Important demographic characteristics for the workplace are gender ,age, race, ethnicity and able-bodiedness.

Gender

There is no consistent differences between men and women in problem-solving abilities, analytical skills, competitive drive, motivation, learning ability and sociability.As compared to men, women are more conforming, have lower expectations of success, have higher absenteeism and lower earnings.

Age

Older workers are often stereotyped as inflexible. They sometimes complain that their experience and skills are not valued. They generally have lower turnover and lower avoidable absences

Able-bodiedness

Despite evidence of effective job performance, most disabled persons are unemployed. Most disabled persons want to work and more firms are likely to hire disabled workers in the future.

Racial and ethnic groups

African Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanic Americans make up an ever-increasing percentage of the American workforce. Potential for stereotypes and discrimination can adversely affect career opportunities. Important lessons regarding demographic characteristics are: knowing to respect and deal with the needs and concerns of people with different demographics; avoiding linking demographics to stereotypes and realizing that demography is not a good indicator of individual-job fits.

Diversity Factors

Primary Dimensions (stable) are age, ethnicity, gender, physical attributes, race and sexual / affectional orientation. Secondary Dimensions (changeable) are educational background, marital status, religious beliefs, health and work experience

Aptitude and Ability

Aptitude is a person's capability of learning something. Ability is a person's existing capacity to perform the various mental or physical tasks needed for a given job. It includes relevant knowledge and skills.

Intellectual Ability is the capacity to do mental activities. Intelligence contains four subparts: cognitive, social, emotional, and cultural.

Groups of Mental abilities (L.L.Thurston)

- Verbal factor (V)-Comprehension of verbal relations, words and ideas.

- Spatial factor (S)-Involved in any task in which the subject manipulates an object imaginatively in space.
- Numerical factor (N)-Ability to do numerical calculations rapidly and accurately.
- Memory factor (M)-Involves the ability to memorize quickly.
- Word fluency factor (W)-Involved whenever the subject is asked to think of isolated words at a rapid rate.
- Inductive reasoning factor (RI)-The ability to draw inferences or conclusions on the basis of specific instances.
- Deductive reasoning factor (RD)- is the ability to make use of generalized results.
- Perceptual factor (P)- is the ability to perceive objects accurately.
- Problem solving ability factor (PS)- is the ability to solve problem with independent efforts.

Multiple Intelligences

Howard Gardner's Work

1. Linguistic intelligence
2. Logical-mathematical intelligence
3. Musical intelligence
4. Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence
5. Spatial intelligence
6. Interpersonal intelligence
7. Naturalist intelligence
8. Intrapersonal intelligence

Physical Abilities- The capacity to do tasks demanding stamina, dexterity, strength, and similar characteristics. Nine Physical Abilities are:

Strength factor

- Dynamic- Ability to exert muscle force repeatedly over time.
- Trunk- Ability to exert muscular strength using the trunk muscles.
- Static-Ability to exert force against external objects.

- Explosive-ability to expand a maximum amount of energy in one or series of explosive acts.

Flexibility factor

- External-Ability to move the trunk and back muscles as far as possible.
- Dynamic-Ability to make rapid, repeated flexing movements.

Other factors

- Body coordination-Ability to coordinate the simultaneous actions of different parts of the body.
- Balance-Ability to maintain equilibrium despite forces pulling off balance.
- Stamina- Ability to continue maximum effort requiring prolonged efforts over time.

Source: Adapted from *HR Magazine* published by the Society for Human Resource Management, Alexandria, VA (accessed from Organizational behavior 12th ed- Robbins and Sanghi- Pearson)

Personality

Personality is the overall profile or combination of characteristics that capture the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others. It combines a set of physical and mental characteristics that reflect how a person looks, thinks, acts, and feels. It is a relatively stable set of feelings and behaviors that have been significantly formed by genetic and environmental factors. Heredity sets the limits on the development of personality characteristics. Environment determines development within these limits. Across all characteristics there is about a 50-50 heredity-environment split. Key environmental factors in personality development are cultural values and norms and situational factors.

Social traits -Surface-level traits that reflect the way a person appears to others when interacting in various social settings. An important social trait is problem-solving style. Problem-solving style components are information gathering; getting and organizing data for use; evaluation and using collected information. There are Sensation-type individuals; Intuitive-type individuals; Feeling-type individuals and Thinking-type individuals. Problem-solving styles are Sensation-feeling (SF); Intuitive-feeling (IF); Sensation-thinking (ST) and Intuitive-thinking (IT).

Personal conception traits-The way individuals tend to think about their social and physical settings as well as their major beliefs and personal orientation. Key Traits are Locus of control; Authoritarianism/dogmatism; Machiavellianism and Self-monitoring.

Locus of control-The extent to which a person feels able to control his/her own life. Internal locus of control where people believe they control their own destiny. In External locus of control people believe that much of what happens to them is determined by environmental forces

Authoritarianism/dogmatism-Authoritarianism. Is the tendency to adhere rigidly to conventional values and to obey recognized authority. Dogmatism is the tendency to view the world as a threatening place.

Machiavellianism-Rooted in Niccolo Machiavelli's The Prince evokes images of guilt, deceit, and opportunism. It is a tendency to view and manipulate others purely for personal gain. People with a high-Mach personality approach situations logically and thoughtfully, are capable of lying to achieve personal goals, are rarely swayed by loyalty, friendships, past promises, or others' opinions, are skilled at influencing others, try to exploit loosely structured situations, perform in a perfunctory or detached manner in highly structured situations. People with a low-Mach personality accept direction imposed by others in loosely structured situations, work hard to do well in highly structured situations, are strongly guided by ethical considerations and are unlikely to lie or cheat.

Self-monitoring-A person's ability to adjust his/her behavior to external, situational factors. High self-monitors are sensitive to external cues, behave differently in different situations. Low self-monitors are not sensitive to external cues and are not able to disguise their behaviors.

Emotional adjustment traits.

How much an individual experiences distress or displays unacceptable acts.

Type A orientation are characterized by impatience, desire for achievement, and perfectionism. Type B orientation are characterized as more easygoing and less competitive in relation to daily events.

Personality and self-concept.

Personality dynamics are the ways in which an individual integrates and organizes personality dimensions and traits. Self-concept is the view individuals have of themselves as physical, social, and spiritual beings. Two aspects of self-concept are Self-esteem i.e. a belief about one's worth based on an overall self-evaluation and Self-efficacy i.e. an individual's belief about the likelihood of successfully completing a specific task.

"Big Five" personality dimensions are : (for details pl see the chapter on personality)

Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional stability and Openness to experience.

Values.

Values are broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes. Values influence behavior and attitudes. Sources of values are Parents, Friends, Teachers, Role models, External reference groups.

Perception

The cognitive process that involves receiving stimuli, organizing the stimuli, and translating or interpreting the organized stimuli to influence behavior and form attitudes. Each person selects various cues that influence perceptions and people often misperceive.

Attitude

Attitude is a mental state of readiness learned and organized through experience. It is exerting a specific response to people, objects, and situations with which it is related. Attitudes are influenced by values and are acquired from the same sources as values. It is a predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one's environment. Attitudes are determinates of behavior because they are linked with perception, personality, feelings, and motivation

Question

1. Define ability. Elaborate the different types of intellectual and physical abilities and their implication for organizational performance.
2. Describe the ASA cycle. 'Each phase of the ASA cycle is significantly influenced by the individual differences of each person'-Justify with examples.

Chapter Five

Personality

Objectives

- Understanding the definition of personality
- Understanding the sources of personality differences
- Understanding the Personality structure
- Understanding the relationship of Personality and Behaviour
- Measuring Personality

PERSONALITY-IMPORTANCE AND DETERMINANTS

PERSONALITY-WHAT IS IT?

The term personality is derived from the Latin word 'Persona' meaning mask. To the Romans 'Persona' denoted as 'one appears to others' not 'as one actually is'. Hall and Lindzey (1978) classified the popular meaning of personality under two headings:

The first usage equates the term to social skill or adroitness-An individual's personality is assessed by the effectiveness with which he is able to elicit positive reactions from a variety of persons under different circumstances.

The second usage considers personality of the individual to inhere in the most outstanding or salient impression which he creates on others.

The popular nonscientific definition of personality has two defects: (1)First it emphasizes only the manifest aspects of the intricate pattern of personality .(2)Second, in emphasizing only the objective aspects of personality, it does not indicate what the real personality is, the subjective or interior organization which is responsible for the expressive aspects.

Early psychological definitions of personality

Woodworth (1947)- Personality is the quality of individual's total behaviour

Dashiell (1949)- Personality is the total picture of an individual's organized behaviour, especially as it can be characterized by his fellowmen in a consistent way

Munn (1965)-Personality is the most characteristic integration of an individual's structure and activities. It is characteristic in dual sense (1) It is unique, thus differentiating the individual from all others (2) It is fairly consistent, representing the customary integration of a particular individual's structures and activities.

These representative early definitions stressed the manifest aspect of personality.

To understand what personality is, the intricacy of its structure and its influence on the quality of individual's total behaviour it is important to understand its motivational aspect.

Allport's (1961) definition is widely accepted as the most comprehensive definition of personality which emphasizes on the motivational aspect of personality. Allport (1961) defined personality as the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought

Organization-Patterning of the independent parts of personality structure, each of which has special relation to the whole

Dynamic-Constantly evolving or changing nature of personality. Not only does the personality become more complex in structure as the individual's physical and psychological characteristics develop, but from time to time and from situation to situation, there are changes in the structural organization

Psychophysical systems-A psychophysical system is composed of habits, attitudes, emotional states, sentiments, motives and beliefs all of which are psychological but have a physical basis in the individual's neural, glandular or general bodily states. They are the product of learning.

Determine-The word determine emphasizes the motivational role of the psychophysical systems. Within the individual, these systems lie behind specific acts and influence the form they will take. Once an attitude, belief, habit, sentiment or some other elements of a psychophysical system has been aroused by a stimulus, either from the environment or from within the individual, it provokes adjustive and expressive acts which are characteristic form of expression of that individual

Characteristic-The adjective characteristic refers to the distinctiveness in a person's behaviour as an expression of the patterns of his particular psychophysical system.

Behaviour and thought-Behavioural environment involves mastery as well as passive adaptation.

Some overlapping concepts

Personality versus character-Character implies a moral standard and involves a judgement of value. When used in connection with personality, character relates to a behaviour that is regulated by personal effort and will. Conscience, an essential element of character, is a pattern of inhibitory conditioning which controls the person's behaviour, making it conform to the socially approved pattern of the group with which the individual is identified.

Personality versus individuality-Individuality refers to the uniqueness of personality. Each personality pattern is unique in that it differs from all other patterns in the combination and organization of its constituent traits, the strength of different traits, and in core-the person's concept of himself. While a person's attributes may be qualitatively similar to those of other people, each of his attributes differs from others quantitatively.

Personality Pattern

The personality pattern is composed of traits or specific qualities of behaviour which characterize the individual's unique adjustment to life as shown in his behaviour and thoughts.

The traits are organized or arranged into a meaningful pattern.

The core or centre of gravity of the personality pattern is the individual's concept of himself as related to the world in which he lives.

(Reference: Personality Development, Elizabeth B. Hurlock, TMH edition)

Three major factors determining development of personality pattern are:

- (1) Individual's hereditary endowment
- (2) Early experiences within the family
- (3) Important events later in life outside the home environment.

Accordingly, the determinants of personality are:

- (1) Physical determinants
- (2) Intellectual determinants
- (3) Emotional determinants
- (4) Social determinants

(5) Aspiration and achievements

(6) Family determinants

Physical determinants

(1) The body has direct influence on the quantity and quality of a person's behaviour and indirect influence through the way person perceives his body as a source of self evaluation.

(2) Body build directly influences personality by determining what the person can or cannot do, what his energy level will be and what his reaction will be to those with superior or inferior body build compared to him. Indirectly body build influences personality by body cathexes or the degree of satisfaction person experiences due to body.

(3) Attractiveness indirectly affects personality due to the attitude of others to the attractiveness of the person

(4) Homeostasis directly influences quality of person's behaviour and indirectly through the way others judge his behaviour

(5) Body control affects what a person can or cannot do and judgments others make of him.

Intellectual determinant

Intelligence provide the person with the capacity to meet and solve the problems that adjustment to life requires. Intellectual capacity influence personality directly through the kind of life adjustments individual makes and indirectly through the the judgements others make of him on the basis of his intellectual achievements

Intelligence affects adjustment in (1) values (2) morality and (3) humor

Emotional determinant

Emotions are important personality determinants because they affect personal and social adjustments. They do so directly by colouring interests, attitudes, likes and dislikes and by upsetting homeostasis. Indirect effect comes from social judgments based on how the person handles his emotions and from his ability to establish emotional relationship with others. Emotional balance, deprivation, expression, catharsis, stress affects personality directly and indirectly.

Social determinant

The social group judges a person in terms of his conformity to group expectations regarding proper performance behaviour and role playing. Social judgments then influence self evaluation and hence self concept.

Social deprivation, social acceptance, social status and social mobility affects personality

Aspiration and achievement determinant

Aspirations are ego-involved goals person sets for himself. Aspiration is influenced by intelligence, sex, personal interests and values, family pressures, group expectations, cultural traditions, competition with others, past experience, mass media, personal characteristics.. Level of aspiration affects personality.

Achievement can be judged objectively by comparing a person's achievement with those of peers and subjectively by comparing his achievement with his level of aspiration

Family determinant

The direct influence of family on personality comes child training method used to mold personality pattern and the communication of interests attitudes and values between family members.

The indirect effect comes from the person's identification with a family member he admires, respects and loves and whom he either consciously or unconsciously imitates and the mirror image the family members provide to him to evaluate himself.

The family climate, order of birth, size of family, family composition, role played in family, social acceptance of the family affects personality.

Different Perspectives in Personality

(a) Emphasis on Psychodynamics

Psychoanalytic perspective- Sigmund Freud

According to Freud there are three Levels of awareness like Conscious, Preconscious, and Unconscious. Conscious - all things we are aware of at any given moment; Preconscious - everything that can, with a little effort, be brought into consciousness; Unconscious - inaccessible warehouse of anxiety-producing thoughts and drives

Structure of personality has been defined by Freud as consisting of three components-id, ego and superego. Id is the biological basis of personality. It consists of inherited characteristics of individual and is a collection of instinctive desires, urges or needs all demanding immediate gratification. Id is irrational and impulsive, adhering to pleasure principle. Ego is the main mental force controlling behaviour in well

adjusted adult. Ego pursues pleasure. Ego is capable of logical reasoning and learning by experience. Function of ego is self preservation. Superego is the voice of the parents and their moral standards as perceived by the child.

Defense Mechanism

Ego has to balance the demands of the two opposite acting and equally powerful forces of id and superego. This creates immense pressure on ego. When the inner war of id, ego and super ego gets out of hand, the result is Anxiety. Ego protects itself from anxiety via Defense Mechanisms. Defense Mechanisms are unconscious mental processes employed by the ego to reduce /redirect anxiety by distorting reality

The different types of defense mechanisms are:

Repression - keeping anxiety-producing thoughts out of the conscious mind

Reaction formation - replacing an unacceptable wish with its opposite

Displacement - when a drive directed to one activity by the id is redirected to a more acceptable activity by the ego

Sublimation - displacement to activities that are valued by society

Projection - reducing anxiety by attributing unacceptable impulses to someone else

Rationalization - reasoning away anxiety-producing thoughts

Regression - retreating to a mode of behavior characteristic of an earlier stage of development

According to Freud Personality development takes place through five Psychosexual Stages.

Oral (0-18 months) - centered on the mouth. Fixation at oral stage results in dependency, immaturity, optimism/pessimism, sadism, oral aggression, suspicious nature

Anal (18-36 months) - focus on bowel/bladder elimination. Fixation at anal stage results in stinginess, obstinacy, obsession, sadism, orderliness

Phallic (3-6 yrs) - focus on genitals/"Oedipus Complex"(Identification & Gender Identity)

Latency (6-puberty) - sexuality is dormant

Genital (puberty onwards) - sexual feelings toward others

Jung's typology (*accessed from www.socionics.com/main/types.htm*)

According to Jung's theory of Psychological Types we are all different in fundamental ways. One's ability to process different information is limited by their particular type. These types are sixteen.

People can be either Extroverts or Introverts, depending on the direction of their activity; Thinking, Feeling, Sensing, Intuitive, according to their own information pathways; Judging or Perceiving, depending on the method in which they process received information.

Extroverts vs. Introvert Extroverts are directed towards the objective world whereas Introverts are directed towards the subjective world. The most common differences between Extroverts and Introverts are shown below:

Extroverts

- are interested in what is happening around them
- are open and often talkative
- compare their own opinions with the opinions of others
- like action and initiative
- easily make new friends or adapt to a new group
- say what they think
- are interested in new people
- easily break unwanted relations

Introverts

- are interested in their own thoughts and feelings
- need to have own territory
- often appear reserved, quiet and thoughtful
- usually do not have many friends
- have difficulties in making new contacts
- like concentration and quiet
- do not like unexpected visits and therefore do not make them
- work well alone

Sensing vs. Intuition Sensing is an ability to deal with information on the basis of its physical qualities and its affection by other information. Intuition is an ability to deal with the information on the basis of its hidden potential and its possible existence. The most common differences between Sensing and Intuitive types are shown below:

Sensing types

- see everyone and sense everything
- live in the here and now
- quickly adapt to any situation
- like pleasures based on physical sensation
- are practical and active
- are realistic and self-confident

Intuitive types

- are mostly in the past or in the future
- worry about the future more than the present
- are interested in everything new and unusual
- do not like routine
- are attracted more to the theory than the practice
- often have doubts

Thinking vs. Feeling Thinking is an ability to deal with information on the basis of its structure and its function. Feeling is an ability to deal with information on the basis of its initial energetic condition

and its interactions. The most common differences between Thinking and Feeling type are shown below:

Thinking types

- are interested in systems, structures, patterns
- expose everything to logical analysis
- are relatively cold and unemotional
- evaluate things by intellect and right or wrong
- have difficulties talking about feelings
- do not like to clear up arguments or quarrels

Feeling types

- are interested in people and their feelings
- easily pass their own moods to others
- pay great attention to love and passion
- evaluate things by ethics and good or bad
- can be touchy or use emotional manipulation
- often give compliments to please people

Perceiving vs. Judging Perceiving types are motivated into activity by the changes in a situation. Judging types are motivated into activity by their decisions resulting from the changes in a situation. The most common differences between Perceiving and Judging types are shown below:

Perceiving types

- act impulsively following the situation
- can start many things at once without finishing them properly
- prefer to have freedom from obligations
- are curious and like a fresh look at things
- work productivity depends on their mood
- often act without any preparation

Judging types

- do not like to leave unanswered questions
- plan work ahead and tend to finish it
- do not like to change their decisions
- have relatively stable workability
- easily follow rules and discipline

Stage perspective

Personality Development along Eight Life Stages(Erik Erikson, 1963, p273)

Stage and Age	Choice point
Stage 1: Infancy: First Year of life	Basic Trust v/s Basic Mistrust
Stage 2: Early childhood :up to third year of age	Autonomy v/s Shame and Doubt

Stage 3: Play age : up to 5 years	Initiative v/s Guilt
Stage 4: Latency : 6 to 11 years	Industry v/s Inferiority
Stage 5: Adolescence: about 12 to 20 years	Ego Identity v/s Role confusion
Stage 6: Young Adulthood: From 20 to 24 years	Intimacy v/s Isolation
Stage 7: Middle Adulthood: 25 up to 60 years	Generativity v/s Stagnation
Stage 8: Maturity and Oldage : up to Death	Ego Integrity v/s Despair and disgust

The stages of Adolescence, Young Adulthood and Middle adulthood are particularly relevant for organization.

Social perspective

Horney (1945) stated that the effect of social influence on personality extends to the process by which an individual adapts to his/her social context. According to her some people develop neurosis because in their early age they conclude that maladaptive and counterproductive ways are the best ways to deal with their context. Horney proposed that these people try three ways to deal with interpersonal problems: Moving towards people (Compliance), moving away from people (Detachment), moving against people (aggression).

(b) Emphasis on Personality Structure

Trait perspective

A trait is an individual's characteristic in thought, feeling and action, either inherited or acquired, and refers to tendencies to act or react in certain ways (Drever, 1964)

Traits can be placed in particular categories like:

- Motive traits- goals that guide behaviour of individuals- achievement
- Ability traits- Individual's general and specific capability and skill- knowing, perceiving and reasoning
- Temperament traits- optimism, depression and various energetic traits

- Stylistic traits-refers to gestures and styles of behaviour unrelated to specific tactics to achieve a particular goal

Allport categorized trait as Cardinal trait, central trait and secondary trait.

1. **Cardinal trait** - This is the trait that dominates and shapes a person's behavior. These are rare as most people lack a single theme that shape their lives.
2. **Central trait** - This is a general characteristic found in some degree in every person. These are the basic building blocks that shape most of our behavior although they are not as overwhelming as cardinal traits. An example of a central trait would be honesty.
3. **Secondary trait** - These are characteristics seen only in certain circumstances (such as particular likes or dislikes that a very close friend may know). They must be included to provide a complete picture of human complexity.

Cattell's 16 PF

Cattell saw traits as important units of personality that have predictive value. In contrast to Allport, who felt traits were part of our biology, Cattell thought of traits as abstract concepts.

Surface trait and Source trait

Surface traits-Refers to those traits that seem readily apparent. However, surface traits are based on people's perceptions of personality; they don't necessarily provide the best description of underlying personality dimensions. E.g., you encounter a friendly, gregarious librarian who is very helpful & you infer she possesses the trait of sociability.

Source traits-Refers to the deeper patterns underlying personality. These source traits emerge despite differences in testing situations, questionnaire methods, & so forth. Cattell used factor analysis to identify 16 source traits. Using these 16 source traits he developed the 16PF. The set of scores on all factors is the profile of the individual.

The 16 PF are

Descriptors of Low Range

Impersonal, distant, cool, reserved, Warmth detached, formal, aloof (Schizothymia) (A)

Concrete thinking, lower general mental Reasoning

Primary Factor Descriptors of High Range

Warm, outgoing, attentive to others, kindly, easy-going, participating, likes people (Affectothymia)

Abstract-thinking, more intelligent, bright,

capacity, less intelligent, unable to handle (B)
abstract problems (*Lower Scholastic Mental Capacity*)

higher general mental capacity, fast learner
(*Higher Scholastic Mental Capacity*)

Reactive emotionally, changeable, affected by feelings, emotionally less stable, easily upset (*Lower Ego Strength*) (C)

Emotionally stable, adaptive, mature, faces reality calmly (*Higher Ego Strength*)

Deferential, cooperative, avoids conflict, submissive, humble, obedient, easily led, docile, accommodating (Submissiveness) (*Dominance*) (E)

Dominant, forceful, assertive, aggressive, competitive, stubborn, bossy (*Dominance*)

Serious, restrained, prudent, taciturn, introspective, silent (*Desurgency*) (F)

Lively, animated, spontaneous, enthusiastic, happy go lucky, cheerful, expressive, impulsive (*Surgency*)

Expedient, nonconforming, disregards rules, self indulgent (*Low Super Ego Strength*) (*Rule-Consciousness*) (G)

Rule-conscious, dutiful, conscientious, conforming, moralistic, staid, rule bound (*High Super Ego Strength*)

Shy, threat-sensitive, timid, hesitant, intimidated (*Threctia*) (*Social Boldness*) (H)

Socially bold, venturesome, thick skinned, uninhibited (*Parmia*)

Utilitarian, objective, unsentimental, tough minded, self-reliant, no-nonsense, rough (*Harria*) (*Sensitivity*) (I)

Sensitive, aesthetic, sentimental, tender minded, intuitive, refined (*Premsia*)

Trusting, unsuspecting, accepting, unconditional, easy (*Alaxia*) (L)

Vigilant, suspicious, skeptical, distrustful, oppositional (*Protension*)

Grounded, practical, prosaic, solution oriented, steady, conventional (*Praxernia*) (M)

Abstractedness Abstract, imaginative, absent minded, impractical, absorbed in ideas (*Autia*)

Forthright, genuine, artless, open, guileless, naive, unpretentious, involved (*Artlessness*) (N)

Private, discreet, nondisclosing, shrewd, polished, worldly, astute, diplomatic (*Shrewdness*)

Self-Assured, unworried, complacent, secure, free of guilt, confident, self satisfied (*Untroubled*) (*Apprehension*) (O)

Apprehensive, self doubting, worried, guilt prone, insecure, worrying, self blaming (*Guilt Proneness*)

Traditional, attached to familiar, conservative, respecting traditional ideas (<i>Conservatism</i>)	<u>Openness to Change</u> (Q1)	Open to change, experimental, liberal, analytical, critical, free thinking, flexibility (<i>Radicalism</i>)
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Group-oriented, affiliative, a joiner and follower dependent (<i>Group Adherence</i>)	<u>Self-Reliance</u> (Q2)	Self-reliant, solitary, resourceful, individualistic, self sufficient (<i>Self-Sufficiency</i>)
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Tolerates disorder, unexacting, flexible, undisciplined, lax, self-conflict, impulsive, careless of social rules, uncontrolled (<i>Low Integration</i>)	<u>Perfectionism</u> (Q3)	Perfectionistic, organized, compulsive, self-disciplined, socially precise, exacting will power, control, self-sentimental (<i>High Self-Concept Control</i>)
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Relaxed, placid, tranquil, torpid, patient, composed low drive (<i>Low Ergic Tension</i>)	<u>Tension</u> (Q4)	Tense, high energy, impatient, driven, frustrated, over wrought, time driven. (<i>High Ergic Tension</i>)
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Primary Factors and Descriptors in Cattell's 16 Personality Factor Model (Adapted From Conn & Rieke, 1994). Accessed from Wikipedia(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/16_Personality_Factors)

Cattell referred to these 16 factors as *primary factors*, as opposed to the so-called "Big Five" factors which he considered *global factors*. All of the primary factors correlate with global factors and could therefore be considered subfactors within them.

(Accessed from Wikipedia(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/16_Personality_Factors))

16 pf questionnaire consists of 187 questions with agree, uncertain and disagree as answer options. It is a forced choice method.

Traits in the Saville and Holdsworth (1984) occupational personality questionnaire

Relationship with people : Persuasive, controlling, independent, outgoing, affiliative, socially confident, modest, democratic, crowding

Thinking style: Practical, data rational, artistic, behavioural, traditional, change oriented, conceptual, innovative, forward planning, detail conscious, conscientious

Feelings and emotions: Relaxed, worrying, tough minded, emotional control, optimistic, critical, active, competitive, achieving, decisive.

Personality traits in Thurstone temperament schedule

Active, vigorous, impulsive, dominant, stable, sociable, reflective.

Type perspective

The concept of **personality type** refers to the psychological classification of different types of individuals. Personality types are sometimes distinguished from personality traits, with the latter embodying a smaller grouping of behavioral tendencies. Types are sometimes said to involve *qualitative* differences between people, whereas traits might be construed as *quantitative* differences.

(Accessed from en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personality_psychology)

4 humours (Hippocrates)

Yellow bile (Choleric), blackbile (melancholic), high blood pressure (sanguine), excess phlegm (Phlegmatic)

Leigh (1985)

People catalyst (choleric) involvement with those around him, sees service to mankind as a life goal.

Hard charger (melancholic) believes in tradition, follows rules and sees a prescribed way of doing things.

Fast track (sanguine) risk in terms of challenge. He is good at pulling things and people together.

Power broker (phlegmatic) innovative and resourceful, good at motivating others.

Eysenck's typology

(accessed from nwfamilypsychology.com/Documents/Chapter10_Eysenck.ppt)

Hierarchically organized, consisting of types, traits, and habits.

- Types – each based on a set of observed inter-correlations of various traits.
- Traits – each is inferred from inter-correlations among habitual responses.
- Habitual Responses – each based on specific observable responses.

Three factors:

- Introversion/Extroversion
- Stability/Neuroticism
- Impulse Control/Psychoticism

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EQP) – measured extroversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism (PEN).

- Extroverts are sociable and impulsive individuals who like excitement and who are oriented toward external reality. Where introverts are quiet, introspective individuals who are oriented toward inner reality and who prefer well-ordered lives.
- Neurotics are emotionally unstable individuals whose anxiety levels are disproportionate to the realities of the situation or are psychopaths.
- Psychotics are generally more severe in their disorder from neurotics. They are aloof, inhumane, aggressive, and insensitive to the needs of others, but also creative.

Causal Aspects (accessed from <http://www.personalityresearch.org/pen.html>)

- **Extraversion.** The PEN model is biologically based. Extraversion is based on **cortical arousal**. Arousal can be measured by skin conductance, brain waves, or sweating. While theoretically introverts are chronically overaroused and jittery, theoretically extraverts are chronically underaroused and bored. The theory presupposes that there is an optimal level of arousal, and that performance deteriorates as one becomes more or less aroused than this optimal level. The finding that arousal is related to performance as an inverted U-shaped curve is called the **Yerkes-Dodson Law**.
- Extraversion is related to social interest and positive affect. Some investigators have proposed that social interest causes positive affect, since the best of times are usually those spent with other people. However, Diener and Larsen (1993) have found that this hypothesis is incorrect. Another alternative is that positive affect causes social interest, since being very enthusiastic and fun loving may make people want to go out and be with other people. This hypothesis has not yet been studied. Yet another possibility is that a third factor causes both positive affect and social interest. Dopamine responsivity, which makes people highly sensitive to reward, may be the factor responsible for both positive affect and social interest.
- **Neuroticism.** Neuroticism is based on **activation thresholds** in the sympathetic nervous system or visceral brain. This is the part of the brain that is responsible for the fight-or-flight response in the face of danger. Activation can be measured by heart rate, blood pressure, cold hands, sweating, and muscular tension (especially in the forehead). Neurotic people, who have a low activation threshold, experience negative affect (fight-or-flight) in the face of very minor stressors--i.e., they are easily upset. Emotionally stable people, who have a high activation threshold, experience negative affect only in the face of very major stressors--i.e., they are calm under pressure.
- It is interesting to note that measures of activation are not highly correlated. That is, people differ in which responses are influenced by stress--some sweat, others get headaches. This is called **individual response specificity**. It is also interesting to note that stressors differ in the responses they elicit. This is called **stimulus response specificity**.
- **Psychoticism.** Psychoticism is associated not only with the liability to have a psychotic episode (or break with reality), but also with aggression. While less research has been done on Psychoticism than on Extraversion and Neuroticism, the research that has been done has indicated that Psychoticism too has a biological basis: increased **testosterone** levels.

THE BIG FIVE MODEL

The “Big Five” Personality Factors (Mc Crae and Costa, 1997)
(Each factor is a continuum of many related traits)

OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE: Characterized by imaginativeness, sensitivity, intellectualism, artistic disposition. The related traits are Imaginative/Practical and Independent/Conforming

EMOTIONAL STABILITY: Characterized by self- assured, serene, positive attitude. The related traits are Calm/Anxious and Secure/Insecure

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS: Characterizes people who are persevering, dependable, responsible, organized. The related traits are Organized/Disorganized and Careful/Careless

AGREEABLENESS: characterizes people who are good-natured, trusting and cooperative. The related traits are Soft-Hearted/Ruthless and Trusting/Suspicious

EXTRAVERSION: characterized by a nature which is outgoing, social, functioning and assertive. The related traits are Sociable/Retiring and Fun Loving/Sober

Personality and Behavior: Specific Personality Traits* and Their Linkage to the “Big Five”

- Self-esteem (“self-worth”) is part of adjustment
- Locus of control (“fate vs. personal control”) is part of conscientiousness
- Introversion and extraversion (preference for thinking vs. interacting--NOT “social skills”) are part of sociability
- Dogmatism (generalized rigidity of beliefs) and authoritarianism (narrower personality type who prefers to follow orders) are part of intellectual openness

Myers- Briggs Type indicator

<http://www.myersbriggs.org/my-mbti-personality-type/mbti-basics/>- Myers Briggs Foundation discusses about the basics of Myers Briggs typology. Myers- Briggs Type indicator- used to identify managerial decision styles based on Jung’s typology. The identification and description of the 16 distinctive personality types that result from the interactions among the preferences.”

Favorite world: Do you prefer to focus on the outer world or on your own inner world? This is called Extraversion (E) or Introversion (I).

Information: Do you prefer to focus on the basic information you take in or do you prefer to interpret and add meaning? This is called Sensing (S) or Intuition (N).

Decisions: When making decisions, do you prefer to first look at logic and consistency or first look at the people and special circumstances? This is called Thinking (T) or Feeling (F).

Structure: In dealing with the outside world, do you prefer to get things decided or do you prefer to stay open to new information and options? This is called Judging (J) or Perceiving (P).

These four opposite pairs of preferences define eight different ways of dealing with information, which in turn result in sixteen Psychological Types (please read for details <http://www.myersbriggs.org/my-mbti-personality-type/mbti-basics/>.)

Temperament

Accessed from (<http://www.keirsey.com/>)

Temperament is a configuration of observable personality traits, such as habits of communication, patterns of action, and sets of characteristic attitudes, values, and talents.

Communication: Concrete vs. Abstract

First, people naturally think and talk about what they are interested in, and if you listen carefully to people's conversations, you find two broad but distinct areas of subject matter.

Some people talk primarily about the external, concrete world of everyday reality: facts and figures, work and play, home and family, news, sports and weather--all the who-what-when-where-and how much's of life.

Other people talk primarily about the internal, abstract world of ideas: theories and conjectures, dreams and philosophies, beliefs and fantasies--all the why's, if's, and what-might-be's of life.

At times, of course, everyone addresses both sorts of topics, but in their daily lives, and for the most part, Concrete people talk about reality, while Abstract people talk about ideas.

Action: Utilitarian vs. Cooperative

Second, at every turn people are trying to accomplish their goals, and if you watch closely how people go about their business, you see that there are two fundamentally opposite types of action.

Some people act primarily in a utilitarian or pragmatic manner, that is, they do what gets results, what achieves their objectives as effectively or efficiently as possible, and only afterwards do they check to see if they are observing the rules or going through proper channels.

Other people act primarily in a cooperative or socially acceptable manner, that is, they try to do the right thing, in keeping with agreed upon social rules, conventions, and codes of conduct, and only later do they concern themselves with the effectiveness of their actions.

These two ways of acting can overlap, certainly, but as they lead their lives, Utilitarian people instinctively, and for the most part, do what works, while Cooperative people do what's right.

It also encompasses personal needs, the kinds of contributions that individuals make in the workplace, and the roles they play in society. Dr. David Keirsey has identified mankind's four basic temperaments as the Artisan, the Guardian, the Rational, and the Idealist.

As Concrete Cooperators, Guardians speak mostly of their duties and responsibilities, of what they can keep an eye on and take good care of, and they're careful to obey the laws, follow the rules, and respect the rights of others.

As Abstract Cooperators, Idealists speak mostly of what they hope for and imagine might be possible for people, and they want to act in good conscience, always trying to reach their goals without compromising their personal code of ethics.

As Concrete Utilitarians, Artisans speak mostly about what they see right in front of them, about what they can get their hands on, and they will do whatever works, whatever gives them a quick, effective payoff, even if they have to bend the rules.

As Abstract Utilitarians, Rationals speak mostly of what new problems intrigue them and what new solutions they envision, and always pragmatic, they act as efficiently as possible to achieve their objectives, ignoring arbitrary rules and conventions if need be.

For Further interesting readings on personality and temperaments please refer to:
<http://www.keirsey.com/> and <http://www.friesian.com/types.htm>

Type A

Aggressive involvement in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time and if necessary against the opposing efforts of other things or people

Type B

Rarely hurried by the desire to obtain a wildly increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever decreasing amount of time.

Type C (cancer-prone) personality

Characterized as someone who responds to stress with depression and a sense of hopelessness. Type C personalities have a tendency to be introverted, respectful, eager to please, conforming and compliant.

Type D or 'distressed' personality.

Type D behaviour is characterized by the joint tendency to experience negative emotions and to inhibit these emotions while avoiding social contacts with others. The observation that cardiac patients with type D personality are at increased risk for cardiovascular morbidity and mortality underlines the importance of examining both acute (e.g. major depression) and chronic (e.g. certain personality features) factors in patients at risk for coronary events. Both type D dimensions (negative affectivity and social inhibition) are associated with greater cortisol reactivity to stress. Elevated cortisol may be a mediating factor in the association between type D personality and the increased risk for coronary heart disease and, possibly, other medical disorders

Type E people

Type E people love to create things, need to be continuously challenged, feels difficulty in delegating work, develop long and lasting friendship, loves to have time for oneself etc. (For details please read http://www.bethross.com/type-e_personality_18_ctg.htm)-

Personality types and career choice (Holland, 1985)

(accessed from <http://sourcesofinsight.com/2009/08/25/6-personality-and-work-environment-types/>)

In the book [The Truth About Managing People...And Nothing But the Truth](#) , Stephen R. Robbins writes about the six personality and work environment types.

6 Personality and Work Environment Types
Here are the six personality and work environment types based on Holland:

- *Realistic*
- *Investigative*
- *Artistic*
- *Social*
- *Enterprising*
- *Conventional*

Realistic (Do'er) – Prefers physical activities that require skill, strength, and coordination. Traits include genuine, stable, conforming, and practical. Example professions include architect, farmer, and engineer.

Investigative (Thinker) – Prefers working with theory and information, thinking, organizing, and understanding. Traits include: analytical, curious, and independent. Example professions include lawyer, mathematician, and professor.

Artistic (Creator) – Prefers creative, original, and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression. Traits include: imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, and impractical. Example professions include: artist, musician, and writer.

Social (Helper) – Prefers activities that involve helping, healing, or developing others. Traits include cooperative, friendly, sociable, and understanding. Example professions include counselor, doctor, and teacher.

Enterprising (Persuader) – Prefers competitive environments, leadership, influence, selling, and status. Traits include ambitious, domineering, energetic, and self-confident. Example professions include Management, Marketing, and Sales Person.

Conventional (Organizer) – Prefers precise, rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities. Traits include conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, and inflexible. Example professions include accountant, clerk and editor.

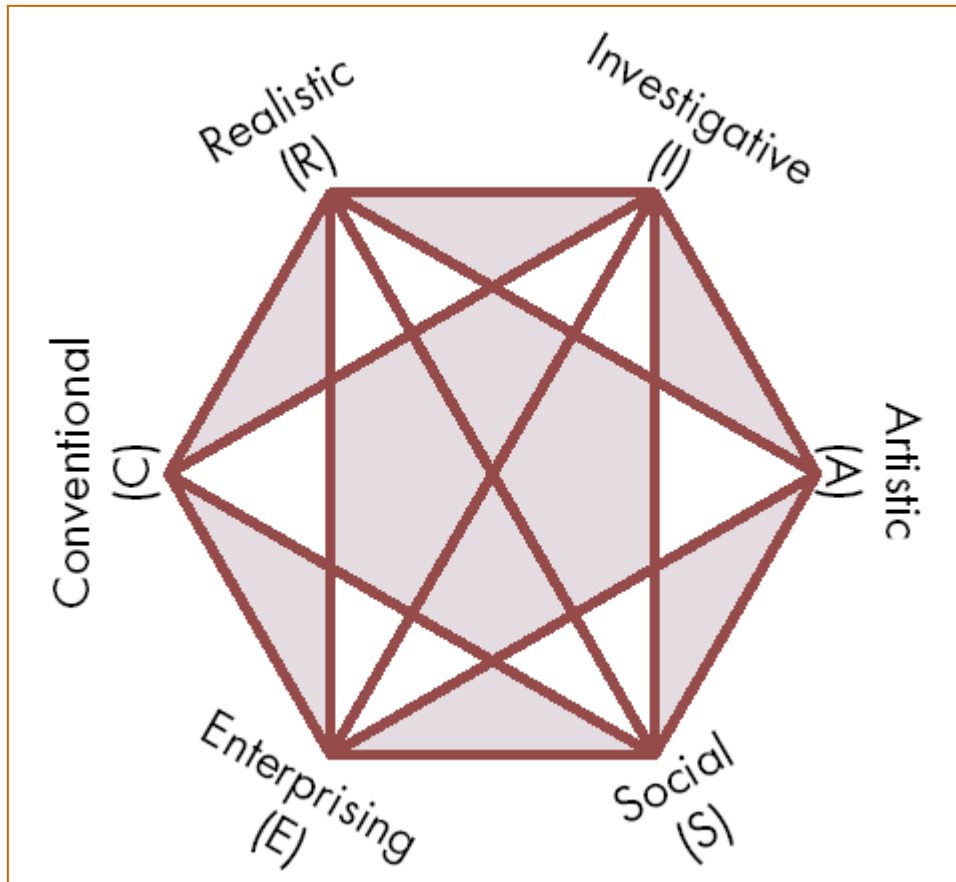
Match Personalities and Jobs

People are happiest when they are put in jobs that match their personality. Robbins writes:

The evidence indicates that employee satisfaction is highest and turnover lowest when personality and occupation are in agreement. social individuals, for instance, should be in social jobs, conventional people in conventional jobs, and so forth.

Holland's	Hexagon
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Holland created a hexagon view to show the relationships of personality types. Personality types closer to each other are more alike. Personality types further away are least alike.



For example, artistic is least like conventional, but closer to investigative and social.

Compatible Work Environments
The following table summarizes the compatibility of personality type with work environments:

Personality Type	Most Compatible Work Environments	Compatible Work Environments	Least Compatible Work Environments
Realistic	Realistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigative Conventional 	Social
Investigative	Investigative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Realistic Artistic 	Enterprising
Artistic	Artistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investigative Social 	Conventional
Social	Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Artistic 	Realistic

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enterprising 	
Enterprising	Enterprising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social • Conventional 	Investigative
Conventional	Conventional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enterprising • Realistic 	Artistic

For Example professions that typify persons dominant within a category please refer to http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Holland_Codes)

(c) Emphasis on Perceived Reality

Interpersonal perspective

Focus on how individuals perceive themselves and their environment and how a subjective view is matched against objective reality

Roger's Phenomenological view/Subjective approach

According to this view, the person who is experiencing a problem knows best what hurts and which direction should be chosen to remove the problem. The expert can only facilitate the accurate exploration or discovery of the inner resources needed to solve the problem. The solution has to come from the client and cannot be imposed on the client by the expert. This is also called client centered therapy.

Personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955)

(accessed from http://changingminds.org/explanations/theories/personal_construct.htm)

People develop internal models of reality, called *constructs* in order to understand and explain the world around them in the same way that scientists develop theories. Like scientists, they develop these constructs based on observation and experimentation. Constructs thus start as unstable conjecture, changing and stabilizing as more experience and proof is gained.

Constructs are often defined by words, but can also be non-verbal and hard to explain, such as the feeling you get when your football team just won the championship.

When constructs are challenged or incomplete the result is emotional states such as anxiety, confusion, anger and fear.

Constructs are often *polar* in that they have opposites (and are hence *dichotomous*). Thus the construct of good implies another of bad. Polar constructs *create* one another: thus 'good' cannot exist without 'bad'. When poles are denied, they are said to be *submerged*.

Although we share the idea of constructs through words, the detail of constructs are particular to the individual and hence are called *personal constructs*.

Constructs that are important to the person are *core constructs*, whilst others are called *peripheral constructs*.

Constructs may be expanded (*dilated*) to accommodate new ideas or *constricted* to become more specific.

Kelly's (1955) *basic postulate* is that 'A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events'. He followed this with eleven corollaries.

- *The construction corollary*: We conservatively construct anticipation based on past experiences.
- *The experience corollary*: When things do not happen as expected, we change our constructs (thus *reconstructing*). This changes our future expectations.
- *The dichotomy corollary*: We store experience as constructs, and then look at the world through them.
- *The organizational corollary*: Constructs are connected to one another in hierarchies and network of relationships. These relationships may be *loose* or *tight*.
- *The range corollary*: Constructs are useful only in limited range of situations. Some ranges are broad, whilst other ranges are narrow.
- *The modulation corollary*: Some construct ranges can be 'modulated' to accommodate new ideas (e.g. 'big'). Others are 'impermeable'.
- *The choice corollary*: We can choose to gain new experiences to expand our constructs or stay in the safe but limiting zone of current constructs.
- *The individuality corollary*: As everyone's experience is different, their constructs are different.
- *The commonality corollary*: Many of our experiences are similar and/or shared, leading to similarity of constructs with others. Discussing constructs also helps to build shared constructs.
- *The fragmentation corollary*: Many of our constructs conflict with one another. These may be dictated by different contexts and roles.
- *The sociality corollary*: We interact with others through understanding of their constructs.

Application of PCT- repertory grid technique (please refer http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Repertory_Grid)

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) (from Organizational Behaviour 12th edition, Robbins, Judge and Sanghi, Pearson education, pp 127)

About the Instrument

The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) is a highly valid and reliable tool that assesses how an individual's personal needs affect that person's behavior towards other individuals. This highly valid and reliable self-report instrument offers insight into an individual's compatibility with other people, as well as providing insight into that person's own individual characteristics.

The FIRO-B measures a person's needs for:

- Expressed Behavior (E) – what a person prefers to do, and how much that person wants to initiate action
- Wanted Behavior (W) – how much a person wants others to initiate action, and how much that person wants to be the recipient

The instrument also measures a person's needs for:

- Inclusion (I) – recognition, belonging, and participation
- Control (C) – influence, leading, and responsibility
- Affection (A) – closeness, warmth, and sensitivity

Benefits of the FIRO-B

The FIRO-B is an ideal tool to use for interpersonal behavior measurement and assessment, including:

- management and supervisor development
- leadership development (used with MBTI as part of the Leadership Report)
- identifying leadership preferred operating styles
- employee development
- team building and explaining team roles
- improving team effectiveness
- advancing career development

(d) Emphasis on Learning

Behavioural perspective (Skinner, 1974)

B F Skinner stated that personality developed in the process of learning from the consequences of behavior produced earlier in our environment, called operant learning. The nature of these consequences determines whether the behavior will be repeated in future. Reward encourages repetition of rewarded behavior and punishment weakens the punished behavior.

Cognitive perspective

Core Self Evaluations

The concept of core self evaluation is a broad personality construct.

According to Judge et al (1997) core self evaluation are fundamental premises ,basic conclusions or bottom line evaluations that individuals hold about themselves and their worthiness , capability and their functioning in the world.It consists of Self esteem, Individual's sense of liking or disliking for themselves, Self monitoring and the individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors

Self efficacy is the personal beliefs regarding competencies and abilities. Its magnitude depends on the level of task difficulty individual can attain and strength depends on individual's belief regarding magnitude is strong or weak. If the capability is generalized across situation it has influence on organization in selection decisions, training programs, goal setting and performance

Locus of Control

Perception of locus of control is a personality variable reflecting the degree to which individuals believe that they rather than the environment, luck or fate control events in their lives. Individuals who believe that they are in control are known as internals and individuals who believe that external forces are in control are called externals.

Yoga and Hindu Perspective.

The Atma Upanishad describes three layers of self arranged in concentric circles. For exploring the higher aspects of existence it is the journey from outward to inside- from *bahyatman* (exterior self which is a set of physical and externally observable aspects of a person, through *antaratman* (inner self which perceives, thinks and cognizes) to the *paramatman* (the ultimate self) the transcendent self-the God within.When all these three dimensions unite in harmony one can realize the union with the highest form of energy and consciousness. This union can be realized through different paths like *karma yoga, jnana yoga, bhakti yoga, hatha yoga, raj yoga, kundalini yoga and mantra yoga*- a path is chosen based on its suitability to one's temperament.

Personality and organizational behaviour

Personality of individual affects organizational behavior in various ways. Personality is the focal point in determining motivation. Personality characteristics influence selection of individuals to occupy various

positions in organizations. The most powerful predictor of behaviour in organizations is one's core self evaluation. The other major personality traits influencing organizational behaviour are :

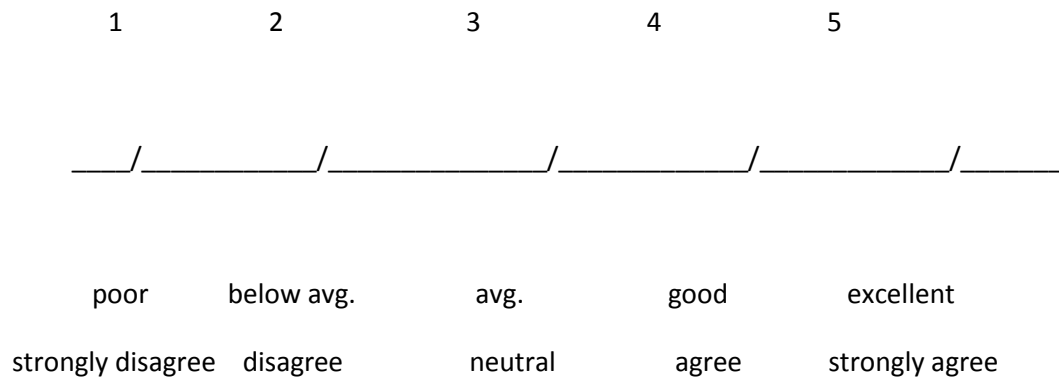
authoritarianism, locus of control, machiavellianism, introversion-extroversion, achievement orientation, self esteem, risk taking, self monitoring and type A personality and proactive personality.

Measuring Personality

There are different methods of measuring personality. Some of them are stated below

a) Graphic rating scale

In this method, the whole continuum is represented as a straight line which is divided at equal intervals to form a rating scale which is in ascending order like 5>4>3>2>1



Dangers of ratings

1. Overrating - tendency to rate too high
2. Halo effect - because one characteristic is high (or low) we rate the rest that way (first impression?)
3. Stereotyping - tendency to apply a prejudice of a group towards an individual
4. Pigeonholing - tendency to categorize people into a type because of a single characteristic. (the blonde type?)
5. Projection - tendency to attribute our own shortcomings to others.

b) Personality test

A personality test aims to describe aspects of a person's character that remain stable throughout that person's lifetime, the individual's character pattern of behavior, thoughts, and feelings. Personality tests can be scored using a dimensional (normative) or a typological (ipsative) approach. Dimensional approaches such as the Big 5 describe personality as a set of continuous dimensions on which individuals differ. Typological approaches such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (r) describe opposing categories of functioning where individuals differ. Personality tests are broadly classified as inventories and projective tests.

Inventories - Literally "to find out" are objective tests designed to find out all sorts of things about an individual. Answers are usually "yes or no" for e.g. Do you like suspense? Do you endure pain easily? Do you like the outdoors when it's cold outside? Can you stand the sight of blood? Etc. However, a caution for using inventory is that actual behavior might not be the same as predicted. Our personalities change as we age and experience new things. Scores are only as accurate as the honesty of the answers. Many people answer according to how they would like to be or think they should be. "cheating", or answering the way you would like to be, or the way you think you should be can be minimized by "lie" questions or "forced choice" questions. Questions can be interpreted differently by different people. Inventories only measure, they cannot predict behavior 100%.

Projective test is a personality test designed to let a person respond to ambiguous stimuli, presumably revealing hidden emotions and internal conflicts. This is different from an "objective test" in which responses are analyzed according to a universal standard (for example, a multiple choice exam). The general theoretical position behind projective tests is that whenever a specific question is asked, the response will be consciously-formulated and socially determined. These responses do not reflect the respondent's unconscious or implicit attitudes or motivations. The respondent's deep-seated motivations may not be consciously recognized by the respondent or the respondent may not be able to verbally express them in the form demanded by the questioner. Advocates of projective tests stress that the ambiguity of the stimuli presented within the tests allow subjects to express thoughts that originate on a deeper level than tapped by explicit questions. Some projective tests are:

Rorschach Inkblot test -10 standardized inkblots. Any number of responses allowed

Holtzman Inkblot test - 45 inkblots. Only 1 response per inkblot.

Pictures and stories-A series of vague photos is shown to a subject who then is asked to tell a story about each picture.

Toys and play-Younger children are given toys to play with while psychologists observe. (play therapy)

Finish the background picture-Subjects are given a background picture with no people etc. Cut-outs of various people, pets or objects are supplied. The subject places them on the background and tells a story to go with the completed picture.

Draw a picture-Subject draws a picture and tells a story.

c) Interviewing

It works best when used with other techniques such as an inventory. Questions can be answered more frankly, and completely and Questions can be explained if not understood. Q & A can be taped for later reference or more careful examination and several interviewers can pool results. However, interviews not always valid.

d) Behavior Sampling

Real life or simulated situations are used and behavior is observed. e.g. fire fighters, paramedics, and intern teachers. One must be careful that we don't assume that a person will behave similarly in all similar situations.

e) Projective Techniques-(The most difficult type to evaluate)

Other Types of Tests

Achievement Tests- measures the amount of information (knowledge) that has been learned in a particular area.

Aptitude Tests-These tests help a person judge if they are likely to be successful in a particular area.A person's score is compared to other people who have taken the test and have gone into a particular kind of work or study.

The Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)-verbal part (words) and Quantitative part (numbers).The more the test writer knows about a particular area the harder it is to construct a good aptitude test, but the easier it is to construct an achievement test.

Vocational Interest Inventories-helps a person determine if their interests are similar to other people who have been successful in a particular vocation (job).These types of tests are mostly valuable for self-examination because they are often easy to fake.

Questions

1. Define personality? What are the major forces influencing personality?
2. What is MBTI? What are the dimensions in MBTI?
3. What is self efficacy and locus of control? Discuss how they are related to individual personality.
4. Differentiate between Type A, Type B, Type C, Type D and Type E Personality? What is the relevance of these personality types in the organizational context?
5. What are the Big Five personality dimensions? How it related to individual behavior? Add a note on how personality can be measured?
6. Discuss the relationship between personality types and career choices.
7. Discuss Kelly's Personal Construct Theory and Repertory Grid Technique. What is the relevance of these in the organizational context?
8. Short notes on (a) Cattell's 16 PF (b) FIRO-B.

Chapter Six

Attitudes

Objectives

- To gain understanding of the nature of attitudes, functions of attitudes and changing of attitudes
- To gain understanding of the nature of employee attitudes like Job satisfaction, Job involvement, Organizational commitment , Emotions and Work moods
- To gain an overview of Emotional intelligence.
- To study effects of employee attitudes and changing employee attitudes
- To gain understanding of nature of values, difference and similarity with attitudes
- To gain understanding of societal values, cross cultural values, organizational values, personal values and work values.

What is Attitude?

Attitudes are learned predispositions and represent cluster of beliefs, assessed feelings and behavioural intentions towards aspects of our environment like a person, object or event. Attitudes are evaluative statements either favourable or unfavourable concerning objects, people or events and are a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object.

Measuring the A-B Relationship

Recent research indicates that attitudes (A) significantly predict behaviors (B) when moderating variables are taken into account.

Moderating Variables are :

- Importance of the attitude
- Specificity of the attitude
- Accessibility of the attitude
- Social pressures on the individual

- Direct experience with the attitude

The three components of attitudes are:

- Beliefs- Established perception about the attitude object- These beliefs develop from past experience and learning
- Feelings- Positive or negative evaluation about the attitude object
- Behavioural intentions- Motivations to engage in a particular behaviour with respect to the attitude object

Formation of attitudes takes place by:

- Direct experience with the object-Attitudes can develop from the personally rewarding or punishing experience with an object
- Classical conditioning-People develop associations between various objects and the emotional reactions that accompany them
- Operant conditioning- Attitudes that are reinforced , either verbally or nonverbally , tend to be maintained.
- Vicarious learning- Where person learns something by the observation of others helps in attitude development where individual has no direct experience with the object of attitude.

Formation of attitudes is influenced by:

- Family and peer groups- A person may learn attitude through the imitation of family members and peers.
- Neighbourhood-The neighbourhood has a certain structure in terms of having cultural facilities, religious groupings and possibly ethnic differences. The neighbours tolerate , condone or deny certain attitudes.
- Economic status and occupations of the person
- Mass communication like news paper, tv, radio etc.

Functions of attitudes are :

- Utilitarian- An attitude may develop because either the attitude or the attitude object is instrumental in helping one to obtain rewards or avoid punishments
- Ego defense function-People often form certain attitudes to defend their own self images
- Value expressive functions-Our attitude represent our value systems.
- Knowledge Functions-Attitude is often substituted for knowledge. In the absence of knowledge attitude is used to organize and make sense of the perceived object or person.

Do attitudes predict behavior?

Not really! People's expressed attitudes often don't predict their behaviors.

When do attitudes predict behavior?

- When social influences on our attitudes are minimized.
- When the attitude is specifically relevant to the observed behavior.
- The stronger an attitude is the more likely it will predict behavior.

Can we make people more self-conscious of their attitudes?

Diener and Wallbom (1976) found Ss were less likely to "cheat" on solving problems (anagrams) when in front of a mirror or hearing their voice on a recorder.

Attitudes increase in potency if:

- We think about what our attitudes are before acting.
- We become self-conscious about our attitudes.
- Our attitude s are stronger if gained through experience.

Do our behaviors influence our attitudes about things and others?

Yes. We can do it by Role playing and Foot-in-the-door phenomenon

Role playing

In a new role, we enact the behaviors that shape out attitudes. Roles are a set of norms that define how people in a given social position ought to behave. It refers to behaviors or actions expected from a

person in a given situation. Adopting roles & attitudes with them can influence how we act. Stanford Prison Experiment (1971) by Zimbardo is a classic example of role playing and the way it influences attitudes of persons. The experiment had volunteers randomly assigned to play either the role of “prisoners” or “guards.” Guards had clubs, whistles, & uniforms. Prisoners wore humiliating uniforms & were locked in cells. Within a couple of days of experiment guards starting yelling at prisoners & devised cruel & degrading routines. Prisoners rebelled, and then became withdrawn & apathetic. Zimbardo stopped the study after 6 days (8 days prior to schedule) because the experiment got out of hand.

Foot-in-the-door phenomenon

If you want someone to agree to do a “big” favor, get them to commit to do a “small” one first. Freedman & Fraser (1966) observed that when Californians were asked to allow large “Drive Carefully” signs in their front yards, only 17% agreed. However, 76% were willing to have signs in their yards, if they initially agreed to place small signs in their windows. This method works because when people commit themselves to an act, they come to believe it is their own doing & are more likely to believe in the cause

What explains why behaviors shape our attitudes?

- Self-presentation theory
- Cognitive dissonance
- Self-perception theory

Self-presentation theory

We match our attitudes with our actions to appear favorable to others. We adjust what we say to appear pleasant & to avoid offending others.

Cognitive Dissonance theory

Tension arises when we are aware of two simultaneously inconsistent cognitions. To reduce the dissonance, we change our attitudes so that they will correspond to our actions. We correct discrepancies between attitudes & behaviors. Festinger’s Famous Cognitive Dissonance Study Had Ss perform dull tasks (turning knobs). Afterwards, Ss were told the study was on how expectations affect performance. Experimenter asked Ss to tell a new S outside that the experiment was really exciting. Ss were either given \$1 or \$20 to lie. Ss told the new S (confederate) how great the experiment was & then filled out a questionnaire asking how much they liked the study. Those who earned \$1 were more likely to say they liked the study. Why? We often experience dissonance when making big decisions. To reduce the dissonance after making our choice, we upgrade the chosen alternative and downgrade the unchosen option.

Self-perception theory

When unsure of our attitudes, we examine our behavior & the circumstances under which it occurs. Wells & Petty (1980) had Ss test headphone sets by making either vertical or horizontal head movements while listening to a radio editorial. Those nodding their heads up & down agreed with the editorial most as it is associated with "yes" responses.

Changing attitudes

Attitude change

One of the most common types of communication, ***persuasion***, is a discourse aimed at changing people's attitudes. Its success depends on several factors.

The first of these is the source, or communicator, of a message. Source affects attention, comprehension and yielding. Kelman (1950) suggested 3 main characteristics of source in relation to attitude change-Credibility helping internalization of message, attractiveness helping identification of recipient with source of message and power resulting in compliance. To be effective, a communicator must have credibility based on his or her perceived knowledge of the topic, and also be considered trustworthy. Three factors contribute towards attractiveness of source-similarity, familiarity and liking. The greater the perceived similarity between communicator and audience, the greater the communicator's effectiveness. Power of source can be of three kinds- power of sanction of positive and , compliance and scrutiny. (Further readings: <http://coms.uconn.edu/directory/faculty/mhamilton/persuasion/Chapter%205d.pdf>, **The handbook of social psychology, Volume 1** By Daniel T. Gilbert)

In analyzing the effectiveness of the persuasive **message** itself, the method by which the message is presented is at least as important as its content.

The effect of **intelligence** on attitude change is inconclusive. On one hand, it has been hypothesized that the greater one's intelligence, the more willing one is to consider differing points of view. On the other hand, people with superior intelligence may be less easily persuaded because they are more likely to detect weaknesses in another person's argument.

The medium of persuasion also influences attitude change ("the medium is the message"). Face-to-face communication is usually more effective than mass communication, for example, although the effectiveness of any one component of communication always involves the interaction of all of them.

The information-processing model of persuasion, developed by psychologist William McGuire, focuses on a chronological sequence of steps that are necessary for successful persuasion to take place.

(For further details please read [Attitudes and Attitude Change](http://psychology.jrank.org/pages/53/Attitudes-Attitude-Change.html#ixzz0uyRJO07W) <http://psychology.jrank.org/pages/53/Attitudes-Attitude-Change.html#ixzz0uyRJO07W>)

Barriers to changing attitude

1. Prior Commitments
2. Insufficient information

Overcoming these Barriers to change is possible by:

1. Providing new information
2. Use of fear
3. Influence of friends or peers
4. Coopting approach

Further reading

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Attitude_change Ways of changing

http://en.wikiversity.org/wiki/The_Factors_that_Determine_Success_in_Attitude_Change_Programs

http://www.thenationalforum.org/Docs/PDF/2005_ASHE_attitude_change_paper.pdf)

Types of change

Attitudes have “dimensions” ranging from “highly negative” to “highly positive” with “neutral” in the middle. There are two types of attitude change:

1. Congruent-movement in the same direction with a reduced intensity of feeling .The congruent change that the person has already a positive attitude to change in the lesser degree so it needs to be changed towards more positive, so that it motivates him for better performance.
2. Incongruent-Change in direction of attitude.Incongruent change involved changing the individual's attitude from negative towards positive.

Effect of Attitude on Behaviour

Attitudes have an influence on perception and behaviour of the individual. Attitude influences behaviour through Cognitive dissonance and self fulfilling prophecy.

Theory of reasoned action

The **theory of reasoned action** (TRA), developed by Martin Fishbein and [Icek Ajzen](#) (1975, 1980), deals with the study of attitude and behavior. The key application of the theory of reasoned action is prediction of [behavioral intention](#), spanning predictions of [attitude](#) and predictions of behavior. The subsequent separation of behavioral intention from behavior allows for explanation of limiting factors on [attitudinal influence](#) (Ajzen, 1980). (For details please refer to Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia and www2.psych.ubc.ca/~azim/attitudes%20200%20williams.ppt)

The nature of Employee attitudes

Attitudes are the feelings and beliefs that largely determine how employees will perceive their environment, commit themselves to intended actions and ultimately behave. Managers of organizational behavior are vitally interested in the nature of the attitudes of their employees toward their jobs, toward their careers and toward the organization itself. Employee attitudes which are important to employers are Job satisfaction, Job Involvement, Organizational Commitment and Work moods.

Job satisfaction

Definition

1. Job satisfaction is a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction is an affective attitude- a feeling of relative like or dislike toward something. Job satisfaction is different from the intellectual response of the employee towards his/her work and the employees; behavioural intentions.
2. Pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience.
3. It is an appraisal of the perceived job characteristics, work environment and emotional experiences at work

Sources of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be viewed as an overall attitude, or it can apply to the various parts of an individual's job. Important aspects of job satisfaction include 1.Wages 2. Working conditions 3.Nature of work 4.Promotion 5.Supervision 6.Workgroup. Some of these elements are directly related to job content (the nature of the job) and those which are related to the job context (supervisor, coworkers and organization).

Although many of the above factors are under the control of the managers, people are generally predisposed to be satisfied or dissatisfied as they differ in their personal dispositions as they enter the organizations. Some people are optimistic, upbeat, courteous and cheerful and they are said to have positive affectivity. Others are generally pessimistic, downbeat, irritable and abrasive and they are said to have negative affectivity.

Stability of Job Satisfaction

Attitudes are generally acquired over a long period of time. Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction emerges as an employee gains more and more information about the workplace. However job satisfaction is dynamic in nature and may decline even more quickly than it develops.

Environmental Impact

Job satisfaction is one part of life satisfaction. The nature of a worker's environment off the job indirectly influences his or her feelings on the job. Similarly, since a job is an important part of life for many workers, job satisfaction influences general life satisfaction. The result is a spillover effect that occurs in both directions between job and life satisfaction.

Ways of measuring Job satisfaction

- Rating scale
- Job Descriptive Index by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) -pay, promotion,supervision, work and coworkers
- Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire-1.Ability utilization 2.Achievement 3.Activity 4.Advancement.5. Authority. 6. Company policies and Practices 7.Compensation 8. Coworkers 9. Creativity. 10. Independence 11.Moral values 12. Recognition. 13. Responsibility. 14. Security. 15.Social service. 16.Social status 17.Supervision-human relation 18.Supervision-technical 19.variety 20.Working condition.
- Critical incidents
- Interview
- Action tendencies
- Existing information

Consequences of job satisfaction

- Productivity
- Reduced turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism, job stress and unionization
- Improved physical and mental health
- Customer satisfaction

Supervisory action for maintaining satisfaction

1.Maintain open lines of communication 2. Create a good physical environment 3. Remedy substandard condition. 4.Transfer of discontented employees 5. Change the perception of dissatisfied employees 6. Display concern for employees 7. Give ample recognition 8. Allow for participative management 9. Practice good management 10. Conduct morale building programmes

Responses to Job dissatisfaction

		Active		
Destructive	EXIT	VOICE		Constructive
	NEGLECT	LOYALTY		
		Passive		

Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is the terminology used to describe whether employees are happy and contented and fulfilling their desires and needs at work. Many measures purport that employee satisfaction is a factor in employee motivation, employee goal achievement, and positive employee morale in the workplace.

Factors contributing to employee satisfaction include treating employees with respect, providing regular employee recognition, empowering employees, offering above industry-average benefits and compensation, providing employee perks and company activities, and positive management within a success framework of goals, measurements, and expectations.

Employee satisfaction is often measured by anonymous employee satisfaction surveys administered periodically that gauge employee satisfaction in areas such as:

- management,
- understanding of mission and vision,
- empowerment,
- teamwork,
- communication, and
- coworker interaction.

The facets of employee satisfaction measured vary from company to company.

A second method used to measure employee satisfaction is meeting with small groups of employees and asking the same questions verbally. Depending on the culture of the company, either method can contribute knowledge about employee satisfaction to managers and employees.

Exit interviews are another way to assess employee satisfaction in that satisfied employees rarely leave companies.

(taken from http://humanresources.about.com/od/employeesurvey1/g/employee_satisfy.htm)

The information garnered from employee satisfaction surveys can give you the management knowledge that directly impacts the bottom line and fosters positive employee relations in any or all of the following ways:

- identifying cost-saving opportunities

- improving productivity
- reducing turnover
- curbing absenteeism
- strengthening supervision
- evaluating customer-service issues
- assessing training needs
- streamlining communication
- benchmarking the organization's progress in relation to the industry
- gauging employees' understanding of, and agreement with, the company mission

(taken from http://www.hrsolutionsinc.com/employee_satisfaction_surveys.cfm)

HR Solutions' surveys measure the following key aspects of employee satisfaction:

Overall Job Satisfaction, Satisfaction with the Work ,Coworker , Performance/Cooperation ,Pay Satisfaction, Benefits Satisfaction, Promotions/Career Advancement ,Supervisory Consideration, Supervisory Promotion of Teamwork and Participation, Supervisory Instruction/Guidance ,Communication ,Human Resources/Personnel Policies ,Concern for Employees , Productivity/Efficiency ,Training & Development, Physical Working Conditions, Customer Service ,Strategy/Mission ,Job Stress

For each statement below, please select the response that comes closest to your own feelings:

Response Scale

-Strongly Disagree--Disagree--Neither Agree Nor Disagree--Agree--Strongly Agree

Sample Questions

1. I would proudly recommend this organization as a good place to work to a friend or relative.
2. My job makes good use of my skills and abilities.
3. There is good cooperation among the members of my work group.
4. I am paid fairly for the work I do.
5. Compared to similar organizations in the community, I am satisfied with my benefits package.
6. Job promotions in this organization are fair and objective.

7. My immediate supervisor is friendly and helpful.
8. My supervisor encourages my work group to work as a team.
9. My supervisor has enough job knowledge to make decisions about my work.
10. Organization policies are clearly communicated.
11. I feel I have job security
12. Senior management frequently visit my department.

(taken from http://www.hrsolutionsinc.com/employee_satisfaction_surveys.cfm)

Organization's effort for increasing employee satisfaction

Organization can take various efforts like giving dignity to the employees, giving them a feeling of importance, taking care of the employee's expectation from the organization in terms of psychological contract etc to increase employee satisfaction.(Further reading from <http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-employee-satisfaction.htm>)

Consequences of Employee satisfaction

Organizational citizenship behaviour- discretionary actions above and beyond the call of duty that promote the organization's success. Organizational citizenship behavior is often marked by its spontaneity, its voluntary nature, its constructive impact on results, its unexpected helpfulness to others and the fact that it is optional.

However Equity sensitivity and perception of Organizational justice may affect job satisfaction and organizational Citizenship behaviour

Related readings:

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF EQUITY SENSITIVITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS by Gerald L. Blakely, Martha C. Andrews and Robert H. Moorman

<http://www.springerlink.com/content/ln40x56363578766/fulltext.pdf>

Equity Sensitivity and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in a Team Environment by Akan et al
<http://sgr.sagepub.com/content/40/1/94.abstract>

Equity Sensitivity Theory: A test of responses to two types of under-reward situations by Allen, Richard S.; White, Charles S, Journal of Managerial Issues ,December 22, 2002 <http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1G1-99512686.html>)

Consequences of Employee dissatisfaction

- Theft
- Bending the rules
- Violence

Job Involvement

Job involvement is the degree to which employees immerse themselves in their jobs, invest time and energy in them and view work as a central part of their overall lives. Holding meaningful jobs and performing them well are important inputs to their own self images, which helps explain the traumatic effects of job loss on their esteem needs. Job involved employees are likely to believe in the work ethic, to exhibit high growth needs and to enjoy participation in decision making. As a result, they seldom will be tardy or absent, they are willing to work long hours and they will attempt to be high performers.

(Please read for details from http://www.blackwellreference.com/public/tocnode?id=g9780631233176_chunk_g978140511697813_ss1-12)

(related readings to know further about job involvement:

Job involvement, http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Job_involvement

Job involvement and identity, <http://www.toolpack.info/articles/job-involvement.html>

Exploring determinants of job involvement: an empirical test among senior executives by Abraham Carmeli http://www.google.co.in/imgres?imgurl=http://www.emeraldinsight.com/fig/0160260505001.png&imgrefurl=http://www.emeraldinsight.com/Insight/ViewContentServlet%3FFilename%3DPublished/EmeraldFullTextArticle/Articles/0160260505.html&h=700&w=1392&sz=27&tbnid=C09TjIR55W041M:&tbnh=75&tbnw=150&prev=/images%3Fq%3Djob%2Binvolvement&hl=en&usg=__FQ2MxsyPhRnaRjrLa5Q2hAiHLSw=&sa=X&ei=RplRTPbpCYnDrAeK1r24Aw&ved=0CC0Q9QEwAw

Influence of Locus of Control and Job Involvement to Organizational Culture Applied by Employees on Bank X by Sri Suwarsi, and Nadia Budianti <http://www.waset.org/journals/waset/v60/v60-103.pdf>

Social Support and Job Involvement in Prison Officers P.C. Mishra and Minum Shyam University of Lucknow, Lucknow, Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, January - July 2005, Vol. 31, No.1-2, 7-11. <http://medind.nic.in/jak/t05/i1/jakt05i1p7.pdf>

Job Involvement or Affective Commitment: A Sensitivity Analysis Study of Apathetic Employee Mobility John C. Hafer and Thomas N. Martin , University of Nebraska at Omaha, http://www.ibam.com/pubs/ibam/articles/vol8/no1/IBAM_8_1_1.pdf)

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment or employee loyalty is the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to continue actively participating in it. It is a measure of the employee's willingness to remain with the firm in the future.

Types of organizational commitment

Continuance commitment

–the need to stay with the organization based on the costs of leaving or a sense that available comparable alternatives are limited

Normative commitment

–the desire to stay with an organization based on a sense of duty, loyalty or moral obligation.

Affective commitment

–the emotional attachment a person feels for the organization because they see their goals and values to be congruent with that of the organization. Managers are more interested in affective commitment as it often reflects the employee's belief in the mission and goals of the firm, willingness to expend effort in their accomplishment and intentions to continue working there. Affective commitment is usually stronger among longer-term employees, those who have experienced personal success in the organization and those working within a committed employee group. Organizationally committed employees will usually have good attendance records, demonstrate a willingness to adhere to company policies and have lower turnover rates. Their broader base of job knowledge often translates into loyal customers who buy more from them, make referrals resulting in new customers and even pay a premium price.

Factors that inhibit employee commitment are:

- Excessive blaming
- Insincere gratitude
- Failure to follow through
- Inconsistencies and incongruities
- Inflated egos and bullying
- Factors that stimulate employee commitment are:
 - Clarity of rules and policies
 - Investments in employees (training)
 - Respect and appreciation for efforts

- Employee participation and autonomy
- Making employees feel valued.

Further reading

Organizational Commitment, Job involvement and Turnover: A Substantive and Methodological Analysis by Huselid and Day http://www.chrs.rutgers.edu/pub_documents/Huselid_18.pdf

MOTIVATION STRATEGIES FOR KNOWLEDGE WORKERS: EVIDENCES AND CHALLENGES

Alberto Petroni, Pierluigi Colacino*<http://www.jotmi.org/index.php/GT/article/view/258/159>

Organizational Justice Perceptions as Predictor of Job Satisfaction and Organization Commitment by Bakhshi et al

<http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ijbm/article/viewFile/2600/3384>

Emotions

A state of physiological arousal and changes in facial expressions, gestures, positive and subjective feelings. Emotions are linked with basic adaptive behaviours such as helping others, retreating, seeking comfortable work area and verbally attacking someone for starting an erroneous rumour. Adaptive behavior aids a person's attempts to adjust to changes. Emotions can also have negative effects Disgust and fear can disrupt behavior and relationships.

Primary Emotions

There are eight primary emotions : fear, surprise, sadness, joy, disgust, anger, anticipation and acceptance. These eight primary emotions can vary in intensity. The mildest forms of emotions are called moods. A mood is a low-intensity, long lasting emotional state. Moods act as subtle emotional factors that effect day –to-day behavior. Emotions generally last for short time frames, such as minutes or hours. Moods often last for longer time periods such as hours or days.

Secondary emotions

Emotions such as aggression, love, awe, remorse, contempt, optimism and disappointment are secondary emotions.

Work Moods

Employees have feelings about their jobs that are highly dynamic, they can change within a day, hour or minute. These variable attitudes towards their job are called work moods. An employee's work mood can be described as ranging from negative (I hate this task) to positive (I am excited by this new challenge) and from weak to strong and intense. Strongly positive work moods are visible in worker's energy, passion, vitality and enthusiasm. They result in closer attention to customer service, lower absenteeism, greater creativity and interpersonal cooperation. Work moods are directly affected by managerial actions like sharing praise, creating an atmosphere filled with occasional fun, humour and levity, providing a workplace filled with pleasant surroundings and engaging in and encouraging a reasonable amount of social interaction.

Comparison of Emotions and moods

Emotions are caused by specific event while cause for moods is often general and unclear.

Emotions are brief in duration while moods last longer than emotions

Emotions are specific and numerous in nature while moods are more general in nature.

Emotions are accompanied by distinct facial expression while moods are not indicated by facial expression.

Emotions are action oriented in nature while moods are cognitive in nature.

Mood as Positive and Negative Affect

Affects are broad range of feelings people experience. Moods high in positive affect and low in negative affect are alert, excited, elated, happy, content, serene, relaxed, calm.

Moods high in negative affect and low in positive affect are tense, nervous, stressed, upset, sad, depressed, bored, fatigued.

Expressions

The most basic emotional expressions appear to be fairly common. Some facial expressions are influenced by learning and are unique to national culture. Despite some cultural differences, facial expressions of fear, anger, happiness and sadness are similar around the world. A difference, however, is how often these expressions occur daily in various cultures.

Affective Events Theory (AET)

- Work environment like the characteristics of the job, job demands, requirements for emotional labour has an effect on the work events like daily hassles or daily uplifts.
- Work events trigger positive and negative emotional reactions
 - Personality and mood determine the intensity of the emotional response.
 - Emotions can influence a broad range of work performance and job satisfaction variables.
- Implications of the theory AET
 - Individual response reflects emotions and mood cycles.
 - Current and past emotions affect job satisfaction.
 - Emotional fluctuations create variations in job satisfaction and performance.
 - Both negative and positive emotions can distract workers and reduce job performance.

Source: Based on N.M. Ashkanasy and C.S. Daus, “Emotion in the Workplace: The New Challenge for Managers,” *Academy of Management Executive*, February 2002, p. 77.

(For further details please refer to the exhibit from Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, Pearson Education, pp 310)

OB Applications of Emotions and Moods

- Emotions and Selection
 - Emotions affect employee effectiveness.
- Decision Making
 - Emotions are an important part of the decision-making process in organizations.
- Creativity
 - Positive mood increases creativity.
- Motivation
 - Emotional commitment to work and high motivation are strongly linked.
- Leadership
 - Emotions are important to acceptance of messages from organizational leaders.
- Interpersonal Conflict

- Conflict in the workplace and individual emotions are strongly intertwined.
- Negotiation
 - Emotions can impair negotiations.
- Customer Services
 - Emotions affect service quality delivered to customers which, in turn, affects customer relationships.
- Job Attitudes
 - Can carry over to home
- Deviant Workplace Behaviors
 - Negative emotions lead to *employee deviance* (actions that violate norms and threaten the organization).
- Emotional Labour
 - Managing emotions for compensations is called emotional labour, In organizations emotional labour may involve enhancing, faking or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression. The rules or norms regarding expectations about emotional expression may be acquired by observing colleagues or they may be stated in selection and training manual. There are two ways for individuals to manage their emotions: through surface acting where one regulates his or her emotional expressions and through deep acting where one modifies feeling in order to express a desired emotion. In both surface and deep acting there is a conscious effort being employed. Although emotional labour may be organizationally effective it may lead to burnout of the employee.

Emotional intelligence

Emotions are intense feeling towards someone or something. It is not a trait.

An assortment of non cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures .Emotional Intelligence is defined as a combination of skills and abilities such as self awareness, self control, empathy and sensitivity to the feeling of others

Salovey and Mayer

Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially defined EI as “a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one’s life.” Mayer, DiPaolo and Salovey, 1990; Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999 view it as a specific set of abilities that include the capacity to understand, reason about, and use emotions in thinking and action

The competencies are:

Know Yourself (self-awareness)

- Enhance Emotional Literacy: recognize and appropriately express emotion
- Recognize Patterns: recognize reactions and choices

Choose Yourself (self-management)

- Apply Consequential Thinking: evaluate the costs and benefits of choices before acting
- Navigate Emotions: learn from and transform feelings
- Increase Optimism: identify multiple options for changing the future
- Engage Intrinsic Motivation: build internal energy and drive

Give Yourself (self-direction)

- Increase Empathy: respond appropriately to others’ feelings
- Pursue Noble Goals: align daily choices with principles and purpose

Emotional intelligence as defined by Mayer and Salovey (2003)

Perception, Appraisal and expression of emotion

Ability to:

- Identify emotion in one’s physical and psychological states
- Identify emotions in other people and objects
- Express emotions accurately and express needs related to those feelings

- Discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest and dishonest expression of feelings.

Emotional Facilitation of Thinking

Ability to

- Redirect and prioritize one's thinking based on the feelings associated with objects, events and other people.
- Generate or emulate vivid emotions to facilitate judgments and memories concerning feelings.
- Capitalize on mood swings to take multiple points of view, ability to integrate these mood-induced perspectives.
- Use emotional states to facilitate problem solving and creativity.

Understanding and Analyzing Emotional Information: Employing Emotional Knowledge

Ability to

- Understand how different emotions are related.
- Perceive the causes and consequences of feelings.
- Interpret complex feelings, such as emotional blends and contradictory feeling states.
- Understand and predict likely transitions between emotions.

Regulation of Emotion

Ability to:

- Be open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those are unpleasant
- Monitor and reflect on emotions.
- Engage, prolong or detach from an emotional state depending upon its judged informativeness or utility.
- Manage emotion in one's self or others.

Goleman

In 1995, Goleman added, "in a sense, we have two brains, two minds—and two different kinds of intelligence:rational and emotional. How we do in life is determined by both..."

Goleman, 1998 equate it to personal characteristics such as “initiative”, “self-confidence”, and “drive for results”

Bar-On

Bar-On, 1997 view emotional intelligence as a personality dimension, like extroversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability.

According to Bar-On (2002), emotional intelligence is "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in the coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.14). Broadly defined, emotional intelligence "addresses the emotional, personal, social, and survival dimensions of intelligence" (p.1). Emotional intelligence and emotional skills develop over time, change throughout life, and relate to one's potential for performance, are process-oriented, and can be improved through training

Dr. Reuven Bar-On developed the EQ-i: Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory, which measures 5 components and 15 subcomponents. These include:

Intrapersonal--assertiveness, self regard, self actualization, independence, and emotional self-awareness

Interpersonal--interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy

Adaptability--problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility

Stress Management--impulse control and stress tolerance

General Mood--happiness and optimism

The Indian perspective

Emotional intelligence is the ability of the individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional inputs being elicited from inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions such as emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity, which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour (Dalip Singh 2003)

Guidelines for Best Practice

Paving the Way

1. Assess the organization's needs: Determine the competencies that are most critical for effective job performance in a particular type of job. In doing so, use a valid method, such as comparison of the behavioral events interviews of superior performers and average performers. Also make sure the competencies to be developed are congruent with the organization's culture and overall strategy.

2. Assess the individual: This assessment should be based on the key competencies needed for a particular job, and the data should come from multiple sources using multiple methods to maximize credibility and validity.

3. Deliver assessments with care: Give the individual information on his/her strengths and weaknesses. In doing so, try to be accurate and clear. Also, allow plenty of time for the person to digest and integrate the information. Provide the feedback in a safe and supportive environment in order to minimize resistance and defensiveness. But also avoid making excuses or downplaying the seriousness of deficiencies.

4. Maximize learner choice: People are more motivated to change when they freely choose to do so. As much as possible, allow people to decide whether or not they will participate in the development process, and have them set the change goals themselves.

5. Encourage people to participate: People will be more likely to participate in development efforts if they perceive them to be worthwhile and effective.

Organizational policies and procedures should encourage people to participate in development activity, and supervisors should provide encouragement and the necessary support. Motivation also will be enhanced if people trust the credibility of

those who encourage them to undertake the training.

6. Link learning goals to personal values: People are most motivated to pursue change that fits with their values and hopes. If a change matters little to people, they won't pursue it. Help people understand whether a given change fits with what matters most to them.

7. Adjust expectations: Build positive expectations by showing learners that social and emotional competence can be improved and that such improvement will lead to valued outcomes. Also, make sure that the learners have a realistic expectation of what the training process will involve.

8. Gauge readiness: Assess whether the individual is ready for training. If the person is not ready because of insufficient motivation or other reasons, make readiness the focus of intervention efforts.

Doing the Work of Change

9. Foster a positive relationship between the trainers and learners: Trainers who are warm, genuine, and empathic are best able to engage the learners in the change process. Select trainers who have these qualities, and make sure that they use them when working with the learners.

10. Make change self-directed: Learning is more effective when people direct their own learning program, tailoring it to their unique needs and circumstances. In addition to allowing people to set their own learning goals, let them continue to be in charge of their learning throughout the program, and tailor the training approach to the individual's learning style.

11. Set clear goals: People need to be clear about what the competence is, how to acquire it, and how to show it on the job. Spell out the specific behaviors and skills that make up the target competence. Make sure that the goals are clear, specific, and optimally challenging.

12. Break goals into manageable steps: Change is more likely to occur if the change process is divided into manageable steps. Encourage both trainers and trainees to avoid being overly ambitious.

13. Provide opportunities to practice: Lasting change requires sustained practice on the job and elsewhere in life. An automatic habit is being unlearned and different

responses are replacing it. Use naturally occurring opportunities for practice at work

and in life. Encourage the trainees to try the new behaviors repeatedly and

consistently over a period of months.

14. Give performance feedback: Ongoing feedback encourages people and directs

change. Provide focused and sustained feedback as the learners practice new

behaviors. Make sure that supervisors, peers, friends, family members . or some

combination of these . give periodic feedback on progress.

15. Rely on experiential methods: Active, concrete, experiential methods tend to work best for learning social and emotional competencies. Development activities that engage all the senses and that are dramatic and powerful can be especially effective.

16. Build in support: Change is facilitated through ongoing support of others who are

going through similar changes (such as a support group). Programs should encourage the formation of groups where people give each other support throughout the change effort. Coaches and mentors also can be valuable in helping support the desired change.

17. Use models: Use live or videotaped models that clearly show how the competency

can be used in realistic situations. Encourage learners to study, analyze, and emulate

the models.

18. Enhance insight: Self-awareness is the cornerstone of emotional and social

competence. Help learners acquire greater understanding about how their thoughts,

feelings, and behavior affect themselves and others.

19. Prevent relapse: Use relapse prevention, which helps people use lapses and mistakes as lessons to prepare themselves for further efforts.

Encouraging Transfer and Maintenance of Change

20. Encourage use of skills on the job: Supervisors, peers, and subordinates should reinforce and reward learners for using their new skills on the job. Coaches and mentors also can serve this function. Also, provide prompts and cues, such as through periodic follow-ups. Change also is more likely to endure when high status persons, such as supervisors and upper-level management model it.

21. Develop an organizational culture that supports learning: Change will be more enduring if the organization's culture and tone support the change and offer a safe atmosphere for experimentation.

Did It Work? Evaluating Change

22. Evaluate: To see if the development effort has lasting effects, evaluate it. When possible, find unobtrusive measures of the competence or skill as shown on the job, before and after training and also at least two months later. One-year follow-ups also are highly desirable. In addition to charting progress on the acquisition of competencies, also assess the impact on important job-related outcomes, such as performance measures, and indicators of adjustment such as absenteeism, grievances, health status, etc.

(Further reading: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotional_intelligence)

Effects of Employee Attitudes

Positive job attitudes predict constructive behavior and negative job attitudes predict undesirable behavior. When employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, lack job involvement, are low in their commitment to the organization and have strongly negative moods, a wide variety of consequences may follow. The result is especially likely if the feelings are both strong and persistent. Dissatisfied employees may engage in psychological withdrawal (e.g. day dreaming on the job), physical withdrawal (e.g. unauthorized absences, early departures, extended breaks or work slowdowns) or even overt acts of aggression and retaliation of presumed wrongs.

Four Products of Employee-Organization Attitudes

Employee's attitude toward organization	Organization's attitude toward employee	Consequence
Positive	Positive	Employee stays
Positive	Negative	Employee is terminated
Negative	Positive	Employee leaves voluntarily
Negative	Negative	Employee leaves by mutual agreement

Work attitude relevant to India- Karmayoga

Karmayoga means a tendency to discharge one's duties without lusting after the outcomes. Karmayoga has following dimensions;

A sense of duty or obligation towards others arising out of one's feeling of being connected to one's surroundings, coupled with striving to live a life for the benefit of the society.

Spontaneous action leading to absence of craving for material gratification

Equanimity (between contrasting factors that represents appropriate balance without disregarding what is necessary without any overemphasis on anything)

Changing Employee attitudes

- Making reward system closely tied to individual or team performance.
- Setting challenging goals with employees so that those with achievement drives can experience the opportunity for satisfaction through their accomplishment.
- Defining clear role expectations so that employees struggling with ambiguity can overcome that concern.
- Refraining from attacking the employee's attitude. Using active listening skills instead, because an undefended attitude is more receptive to change.

- Providing frequent feedback to satisfy the need for information about performance levels.
- Exhibiting a caring considerate orientation by showing concern for employee feelings.
- Providing opportunities for employees to participate in decision making
- Showing appreciation for appropriate effort and citizenship behaviours.

Values

Some facts

- Characteristic of an object
- Attribute possessed by an individual and thought desirable
- Values provide standard of competence and morality
- Are fewer in number than attitudes
- Transcend specific object, situation or person
- Relatively permanent and resistant to change
- Central to the core of a person

Similarities of values and attitudes

1. Both influence cognitive process and behaviour
2. Both are learned and are acquired from the same source
3. They are enduring and resistant to change
4. They have reciprocal influences

Differences of values and attitudes

1. Values represent judgement of what ought to be, Attitude is a predisposition to act
2. Values represent single belief that guides actions and judgements across objects and situations, attitudes represent several beliefs focused on a specific object or situation
3. values are derived from social and cultural mores, attitudes are personal experiences.

Definition

Kluckhohn et al (1950) 'A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action'. Here they emphasize the affective (desirable), cognitive (conception) and conative (selection) elements as essential to the concept of value

Rokeach (1973) Values represent basic conviction that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence.

Chakraborty (1987) Values are the manner in which an individual tends to make judgment or choices both about goals and means at different stages of one's life, in different facets of it, as are deemed to lead to the happiness of oneself and society

Values can be of various types like:

Societal values, Cross cultural values, Organizational values Personal values, and Work values. A brief description of each is given below

Societal values

The Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck Framework

1. Relationship to the environment
2. Time orientation
3. Nature of people
4. Activity orientation
5. Focus of responsibility
6. Concept of space

The Chakraborty (1991) framework

Respect for individuals, cooperation and trust, purification of mind, top quality products and services, work as worship, containment of greed, ethical moral boundaries, self discipline and restraint, need to give, renunciation, detachment

Prakash (1982) Values in Indian society

Karta, Relationships, Proximity to power, security, simple living and high thinking, survival

Socio-cultural Values, Sinha & Sinha (1974)

- Lack of commitment: Wide gap between what one promise and what one actually does.
- Lack of team orientation: Preference to work alone rather than to work in a group.
- Preference for personalized relationship: Maintaining a strong relationship with own people and distancing from others.
- Dependence proneness: Tendency to lean for advice, support, guidance and help and protection from supervisors in a situation which does not warrant such leanings.
- Aram: Rest and relaxation without doing any hard work.
- Showing-off: To show off oneself greater than actual in order to prove superiority over others.

Cross Cultural values

Schwartz's Value system

- 1a) Openness to change- self direction, stimulation
- 1b) Conservation- conformity, security, tradition
- 2a) Self enhancement- achievement, power
- 2b) Self transcendence- benevolence, universalism

Hofstede's Classification

- 1. Individualism and Collectivism
- 2. Power distance
- 3. Uncertainty avoidance
- 4. Achievement vs nurturing orientation
- 5. Long term vs short term orientation

Organizational values

Organizational values are core values which are principles that guide a company's actions and practices

Woodcock and Dave (1989)

(a) power, elitism and reward (b) effectiveness, efficiency and economy (c) fairness, team work, law and order (d) defence, competitiveness, opportunism

Peters and Waterman(1982)

(a) Superior quality and service (b) being the best (c) importance of people as individuals, (d) importance of details in execution, (e) importance of informality (f) importance of profit orientation and goal accomplishment

Allport and Vernon(1961)

Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, Religious

Organizational Values Suar and Khuntia (2005)

- Organizational leadership
- Organization's reputation
- Employee welfare
- Budget stability
- Organizational growth
- Profit maximization
- Product quality
- Customer service
- Quality in personnel
- Cost consideration
- Participative management
- Obedience to organizational rules
- Maintenance of physical work conditions
- Protection of the surrounding environment
- Reward for employees' worthy contribution

- Tolerance for diversity
- Service to the general public
- Development of the community
- Innovation
- Honesty
- Sincerity
- Transparency

Organizational values (Mukhopadhyay, 2006)

- work as worship
- social welfare
- equality
- openness
- honesty

Characteristics of Organizations in Developing Countries

A. External Environment: Economic/Political/ Legal

- i) Low predictability of events
- ii) Greater difficulty in obtaining resources

B. External Environment: Socio-cultural

- i) High uncertainty avoidance
- ii) High power distance
- iii) Low individualism/ high collectivism
- iv) Low masculinity/ high femininity
- v) Low abstractive/ high associative thinking

C. Internal Environment: Internal Work Culture

- (a) Descriptive assumptions about what people are like

- i) External locus of control
- ii) Limited and fixed potential
- iii) Past and present orientation
- iv) Short-term perspective
- (b) Perspective assumptions about how to behave
 - i) Passive/reactive task orientation
 - ii) Moralistic orientation in judging success
 - iii) Authoritarian/paternalistic
 - iv) Context dependent orientation to environment

Kanungo, R.N., & Jaeger, A.M. (1990). Introduction: The need for indigenous management in developing countries. In A.M. Jaeger & R.N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Management in developing countries*. London: Routledge.

Personal value system

Rokeach's Terminal values

1. A comfortable life 2. An exciting life 3. A sense of accomplishment 4. A world at peace 5. A world of beauty 6. Equality 7. family Security 8. Freedom 9. Happiness 10. Inner harmony 11. mature love 12. National security 13. Pleasure 14. Salvation. 15. Self respect 16. Social recognition. 17. True friendship. 18. Wisdom.

Instrumental values

1. Ambitious 2. Broadminded 3. Capable. 4. Cheerful. 5. Clean 6. Forgiving 7. Honest 8. Imaginative 9. Independent 10. Intellectual 11. Logical. 12. Loving 13. Obedient 14. Polite 15. Responsible 16. Self controlled 17. Courageous 18. Helpful

Work Values

Super (1968) 45 Items 15 Values

- Altruism
- Aesthetics
- Creativity
- Intellectual Stimulation

- Independence
- Achievement
- Prestige
- Management
- Economic Returns
- Security
- Surroundings
- Supervisory Relations
- Associates
- Variety
- Way of life

Dominant Work Values in Today's Workforce

Cohort	Entered the Workforce	Approximate Age	Current	Dominant Work Values
Veterans	1950s or early 1960s	60+		Hard working, conservative, conforming; loyalty to organization
Boomers	1965-1985	40-60		Success, achievement, ambition, dislike of authority, loyalty to career
Xers				Work/life balance, team

	1985-2000	25-40	oriented, dislike of rules; loyalty to relationships
Nexters	2000 to present	Under 25	Confident, financial success, Self-reliant but team oriented loyalty to both self and relationships

Questions

1. What is Emotional Intelligence? What is the relevance of Emotional Intelligence in OB?
2. What is attitude? How it related to *cognition, affect and behavior*?
3. What is cognitive dissonance? Discuss with example cognitive dissonance as an attitude change technique.
4. What are the major job attitudes? Discuss with example how attitude is related to job satisfaction.
5. Think of an important attitude you have regarding a career. Identify the three components of that attitude and indicates what each outcome response would be.
6. What are personal values and Organizational Values? Discuss with example the importance of values in the workplace.

Chapter Seven

Perceptions and Attributions

Objectives:

To gain an understanding of:

Perception

Perceptual process

Perceptual selectivity

Perceptual organization

Social perception

Attribution theory

Perceptual errors

Reducing perceptual errors

PERCEPTION

Perception is a cognitive process. Cognitions are basically bits of information and cognitive processes involve the ways in which people process that information. The key to understanding perception is that perception is a unique interpretation of a situation and not an exact recording of it. It is also a subjective process as different people may perceive the same environmental event differently.

Difference between Perception and Sensation:

Sensation is the response of a physical sensory organ while perception is broader and more complex. Although perception depends upon the senses for raw data, the cognitive processes may filter, modify or completely change these data.

Two persons, each receiving the same stimuli may often go through their individual process of PERCEPTION and come to different conclusions.

Example :

Seeing the same picture and perceiving different images

Why do people perceive things differently?

The perceptual process is different because of the different perceptual mechanisms that take place.

PERCEPTUAL MECHANISMS:

I PERCEPTUAL SELECTION:

We are confronted with many stimuli at the same time. Because all this cannot be processed simultaneously, only the most relevant things are selected and given attention. An individual selects certain objects in the environment for attention.

There are two types of factors which affect the selection of the stimuli. These are-

A) External and related to the stimuli

B) Internal and related to the perceiver

C) External and related to Characteristics of the setting.

A) External and related to the stimuli:

-Consist of environmental influences and are in the form of the characteristics of perceptual inputs or stimuli. Such characteristics may be in the form of:

i) Size: e.g. big and small letters in newspapers.

ii) Intensity: e.g. a loud sound, a bright light.

iii) Repetition and Frequency: e.g. advertisements.

iv) Motion: Moving objects draw more attention as compared to stationary objects

e.g commercials in TV get more attention than print media.

v) Novelty and Familiarity: New objects or events in a familiar setting, or familiar objects or events in a new setting draw better attention.

e.g. new assignments/jobs or even job rotation.

vi) Contrast: Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely to be attention catching than the stimuli that blend in. e.g. letter of bold types, people dressed differently from others.

vii) Colour: -impact perception. e.g. consumer perceptions.

viii) Smells:- serve as cues for current activities e.g. the aroma of food or drink etc.

ix) Sound:e.g. impact of music

B) Internal and related to the perceiver:

Internal stimuli are related to the individual's complex psychological make-up. People will select out stimuli or situations from the environment that appeal to, and are compatible with their: learning, motivation, and personality.

i) Learning: Learning affects our internal set by creating an expectancy to perceive in a certain manner. This implies that people hear and see what they want to see or hear. A lot of what a person "sees" in the world is a result of past experience and teaching.

RESPONSE DISPOSITION- the tendency to recognize familiar objects more quickly than unfamiliar ones; a clear recognition of the importance of past learning on what we perceive in the present.

ii) Needs and motives: People tend to perceive things they need or want; the stronger the need, the greater the tendency to ignore unrelated stimuli in the environment.

RESPONSE SALIENCE.- a tendency to focus on objects that relate to our immediate needs or wants.

iii) Personality: Personality, values and even age affect the way people perceive the world around them.

C)Related to Characteristics of the setting.

The perceptual process is influenced by the setting's:

Physical context.

Social context.

Organizational context.

II PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION:

After the information from the situation has been selected, it is organized to extract meaning out of what is perceived by the individual. Thus, while selection is a subjective process, organizing is a cognitive process. The specific principles underlying perceptual organization are often referred to as the Gestalt principle-the name of the school of psychology that first developed it: Gestalt psychology. (Gestalt, in German, means pattern or configuration.) .

Factors Influencing Gestalt Perception:

1. Stimulus factors are the physical and other observable characteristics of the person, object, or situation perceived.
2. Individual response factors are determinants of perception within the perceiver i.e. interest, needs, motivation, involvement, learning, attitudes, personality etc.

Principles of perceptual organization:

- figure and ground,
- closure,
- grouping,
- simplification.

a) Figure and Ground Relationships: Stimuli that contrast with their environment are more likely to be noticed. The perceived object, event or person stands out distinct or separable from its background and gets the cognitive attention of the individual.

b) Closure: If the pattern of stimuli to which people are exposed is incomplete, they tend to perceive it, nevertheless, as complete; that is, they consciously or subconsciously fill in the missing pieces. When faced with incomplete information, a person will fill the gaps himself to make the information meaningful. They thus perceive a whole when one does not actually exist.

c) Grouping: Continuity, Proximity and Similarity in Groups of Stimuli. When simple constellations of stimuli are presented to people, they tend to group them together by continuity, proximity or similarity.

Continuity: The continuity principle says that a person will tend to perceive continuous lines or patterns. People tend to perceive sensory data in continuous patterns even if the data are not actually continuous.

Proximity: When stimuli are near each other, people perceive them as being related. E.g. Several workers who work on a particular machine may be perceived as a single whole.

Similarity: When stimuli are alike in some way, people tend to group them. The greater the similarity of the stimuli, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group.

d)Simplification:Whenever people are loaded with information, they try to simplify it to make it more meaningful and understandable. In the process of simplification, the perceiver subtracts less salient information and concentrates on important one.

III PERCEPTUAL INTERPRETATION: Uniquely individual.The perceptual inputs that have been organized are interpreted by the perceiver so that he can sense and extract some meaning of what is going on in the situation.

Interpretation of stimuli is affected by:

- characteristics of stimuli,
- situation under which the perception takes place and
- characteristics of the perceiver.

There are often chances of misinterpretation and the perceiver may commit a mistake in perceiving because of several reasons.

These are called perceptual errors and distortions.

A) Selective perception:

-People tend to perceive what is in accordance with their needs, motives, interests, background, experience and interests; they may distort meanings so that they may fit what they want.

They are more likely to pay attention to those aspects of the environment which they anticipate or expect or are familiar with rather than those they do not anticipate or expect or are familiar with.

Important Selective Perception Concepts:

i) Selective exposure: - to seek out stimuli that they find pleasant or with which they are sympathetic, and they actively avoid painful or threatening ones. Huge number of stimuli are received daily and it is impossible to attend to all the stimuli. Hence most of the stimuli is screened out and few selected. These are: (1) a stimulus that bears on a current need, (2) stimuli that they anticipate, (3) stimuli whose change level is high / long in relation to the normal size of the stimuli

ii) Perceptual Defense: -to subconsciously screen out stimuli that they one would find psychologically threatening, even though exposure has already taken place.

iii) Selective attention: -to have a heightened awareness of stimuli that meet their needs or interests and minimal awareness of stimuli irrelevant to their needs.

iv) Perceptual Blocking: -to protect oneself from being bombarded with stimuli by simply "tuning out"—blocking such stimuli from conscious awareness.

v) Selective Distortion: Each person has an organized mind set and tries to fit in the stimuli selected into preexisting modes of the thinking. People tend to interpret information in a way that will be consonant rather than dissonant with their perceptions.

vi) Selective Retention: People tend to retain information that supports their attitudes and beliefs.

B) Distorting Influences:

i) Physical Appearances:

People tend to attribute the qualities they associate with certain people to others who may resemble them, whether or not they consciously recognize the similarity.

ii) Stereotypes:

- the tendency to perceive another person as belonging to a single class or category.
- The perceiver judges or perceives a person on the basis of characteristics of the group to which he belongs.

iii) Irrelevant Cues:

When required to form a difficult perceptual judgment, people often respond to irrelevant stimuli.

iv) First impressions:

People evaluate others on the basis of the first impression. This may/may not be a true reflection of people being perceived.

v) Jumping to conclusions:

Many people tend to jump to conclusions before examining all the relevant evidence.

vi) Inference:

This happens when there is a tendency to judge others on limited information.

vii) Halo Effect:

Under the halo effect, a person, product, situation etc is perceived on the basis of one trait.

Whatever the single trait is, it may override all other traits in forming the perception.

- The phenomenon of “reverse halo effect” case occur when due to one factor only all others positive factors of the organization are negated, in the perception of the employees.

viii) Perceptual set:

Previously held beliefs about objects influence an individual’s perception of similar objects.

So subsequent perceptions will be influenced by this set.

ix) Projection:

Assigning one’s own thoughts and feelings to a person being perceived.

x) Attribution :

Using observations and inferences to explain people’s behaviour.

xi) Contrast effect :

A perceptual error that involves perceiving something as larger or smaller than it really is because it differs significantly from the reference point used to interpret it.

-Evaluations of a person’s characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered who rank higher or lower on the same characteristics.

xii) Assimilation effect:

The judgments a person has made in the past influence the way the person will perceive stimuli in the future.

- Assimilation takes place through a combination of:

a) Priming:

Asking people to recall a set of events before asking them to make a judgment that may be related to those events.

b) Confirmation bias:

The tendency to give heavy weight to information that reaffirms past judgments and to discount information that would contradict past judgments.

Distortion management.

Managers should:

Balance automatic and controlled information processing at the attention and selection stage.

Broaden their schemas at the organizing stage.

Be attuned to attributions at the interpretation stage.

(For further details please refer to the **figure from Organizational behavior by Don Hellriegel; John W. Slocum; Richard W. Woodman-8th edition, Thomson South-Western**)

APPLICATION OF PERCEPTION CONCEPTS TO OB: PERSON PERCEPTION

1. SOCIAL PERCEPTION

2. IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

3. ATTRIBUTION THEORY

SOCIAL PERCEPTION:

It consist of those processes by which we interpret other people, how we categorize them and how we form impressions of them. The social aspects of perception play a very important role in OB.

3 basic categories of influence on the way we perceive other people:

(1) the characteristics of the person being perceived.

(2) the characteristics of the particular situation.

(3) the characteristics of the perceiver.

There are numerous complex factors which enter into social perception like: Attributions, Stereotyping, Halo effect

IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT:

- Also called “self presentation” Impression management, is the process by which people attempt to manage or control the perceptions others form of them. It is the tendency for people to try to present themselves in such a way as to impress others in a socially desirable way. According to Jones and Pitman , individuals engage in five impression management tactics.

1. Ingratiation: They seek to be viewed positively by flattering others or offering to do favours for them.
2. Self promotion: They tout their abilities and competence.
3. Exemplification: They seek to be viewed as dedicated by going above and beyond the call of duty.
4. Supplication: They seek to be viewed as needing help because of limitations
5. Intimidation: They seek to be viewed as powerful and threatening.

Impression Management Strategies:

a) Demotion preventive Strategy:

- try to minimize responsibility for some negative event or to stay out of trouble.

1.Accounts:Employees’ attempts to excuse or justify their actions. Eg. Not doing something on time because of another high priority assignment.

2.Apologies:Apologize to boss for some negative event.Eg. Gives the impression that the individual is sorry and indicates that it will not happen again.

3.Disassociation:When employees are indirectly associated with something that went wrong, they may

secretly tell the boss that they fought for the right thing but were overruled. Eg. They are a member of a committee that made a wrong decision- such people try to remove themselves both from the group and from the responsibility for the problem.

b) Promotion enhancing Strategy: try to seek maximum responsibility for a positive outcome or to look better than they really are.

1. Entitlements: Employees feel that they have not been given credit for the positive outcome.

2. Enhancements: Here employees may have received the credit, but they point out that they really did more and had a bigger impact than originally thought.

3. Obstacle disclosures: Here employees identify either personal (health or family) or organization (lack of resources or cooperation) obstacles they had to overcome to accomplish an outcome. - i.e. try to create an impression that they obtained the positive outcome despite the big obstacles and so they deserve a lot of credit.

4. Association: The employees make sure to be seen with the right people at the right times, thus creating an impression that the employee is well-connected and associated with successful projects.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY: The cognitive process by which people interpret the reasons or causes for their behavior is an area of study known as the attribution theory. Attribution theory aids in perceptual interpretation by focusing on how people attempt to (1) Understand the causes of a certain event (2) Assess responsibility for the outcomes of the event (3) Evaluate the personal qualities of the people involved in the event.

When individuals observe behavior, they attempt to determine whether it is internally or externally caused.

Internally caused behaviors are those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual.

Externally caused behaviors is seen as resulting from outside causes

How do people go about judging whether someones' actions were caused by internal or external causes?

- Kelly's Theory of Causal Attribution.

According to him, we base our judgments of internal and external causality on three types of information:

1. Consensus
2. Consistency
3. Distinctiveness

1. Consensus: the extent to which other people behave in the same manner as the person we are judging.

If everyone who is faced with a similar situation responds in the same way, we can say the behavior shows consensus.

If others do behave similarly, consensus is considered high; if they do not, consensus is considered low.

2. Consistency: the extent to which the person we are judging acts the same way at other times.

Does the person respond the same way over time?

If the person does act the same at other times, consistency is high; if he or she does not, then consistency is low.

3. Distinctiveness: the extent to which this person behaves in the same manner in other contexts.

If he or she behaves the same way in other situations, distinctiveness is low; if he or she behaves differently, distinctiveness is high.

Attribution of Causality:

When consensus is high, consistency is low and distinctiveness is high, the person's behavior is said to have stemmed from external causes: **SITUATIONAL ATTRIBUTIONS**.

When consensus is low, consistency is high and distinctiveness is low, the person's behavior is said to have stemmed from internal causes: **DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTION**.

(For further details please refer to the Exhibit from **Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P.Robbins, Timothy A.Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, pearson Education, pp177)**)

Attributional

Bias:

1. Fundamental Attribution Error:

A tendency to underestimate the effects of external or situational causes of behaviour and to overestimate the effects of internal or personal causes. Fundamental attribution error.

Applies to the evaluation of someone's else behavior.

Attributing success to the influence of situational factors.

Attributing failure to the influence of personal factors.

2. Self-Serving Bias:

A tendency for individuals to attribute success on an event or project to his or her own actions while attributing failure to others. Self-serving bias.

Applies to the evaluation of our own behavior.

Attributing success to the influence of personal factors.

Attributing failure to the influence of situational factors.

Attributions across cultures.

The fundamental attribution error and self-serving bias operate differently in different cultures.

SOME ORGANIZATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF PERCEPTUAL AND ATTRIBUTIONAL BIASES:

Employment Interview:

- Evidence indicates that interviewers make perceptual judgments that are often inaccurate.

A.Interviewers generally draw early impressions that become very quickly entrenched.

If negative information is exposed early in the interview, it tends to be more heavily weighted than if that same information comes out later.

B. Different panel members' views differ often regarding the evaluation of the same candidate.

C. Agreement among interviewers is often poor; that is, different interviewers see different things in the same candidate and thus, arrive at different conclusions about the applicant.

Problem solving and decision-making:

- A committee will blame other groups or departments when problems occur: the self-serving bias.

- when faced with identifying problems to be solved in a complex business situation, managers have a tendency to define the problem in ways that reflect their own functional competence than other functional areas: to interpret them in terms of our own experiences and capacity to solve problems.

Self-fulfilling prophecy: - if a manager expects big things from his people, they are not likely to let him down. If a manager expects people to perform minimally, they will tend to behave so as to meet those low expectations. Result: Expectations become reality.

Pygmalion Effect: When one person inaccurately perceives a second person and the resulting expectations, it causes the second person to behave in ways consistent with the original perception.

Ethnic Profiling: - a form of stereotyping in which a group of individuals is singled out, typically on the basis of race or ethnicity, for intensive inquiry, scrutinizing, or investigation.

Questions:

1. What is Perception? Describe in details with examples from daily life the Perceptual process
2. What are Perceptual selectivity and Perceptual organization? What are the Perceptual errors and distortions connected with these two processes? State ways of reducing perceptual errors
3. What is Social perception? Explain the relevance of Attribution theory for understanding social perception.
4. Write short notes on (a) Impression management (b) Attribution errors.

Chapter Eight

Motivation

Objectives

To gain an understanding about:

Concept of Motivation

Theories of motivation

- Need Theories
- Task Characteristics Theories.
- Goal-setting Theory
- Reinforcement Theory
- Equity Theory
- Expectancy Theory

Implication of Motivation theories for Performance and Satisfaction

What is Motivation?

- The willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need. Where 'need' is some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive.
- The individual forces that account for the direction, level, and persistence of a person's effort expended at work. Where 'direction' refers to an individual's choice when presented with a number of possible alternatives (e.g. whether to exert effort toward product quality or toward product quantity. "Level" refers to the amount of effort a person puts forth (e.g. a lot or a little). "Persistence" refers to the length of time a person sticks with a given action (e.g. to try to achieve product quality and give up when it is found difficult to attain.

Motivation Across Cultures

The determinants of motivation and the best ways to deal with it are likely to vary across different regions. Individual values and attitudes - both important aspects of motivation - have strong cultural foundations.

The theories of motivation

The theories of motivation can be divided into 3 broad categories.

1. **Reinforcement theories** - emphasize the means through which the process of controlling an individual's behavior by manipulating its consequences takes place.
2. **Content theories** - focus primarily on individual needs - the physiological or psychological deficiencies that we feel a compulsion to reduce or eliminate.
3. **Process theories** - focus on the thought or cognitive processes that take place within the minds of people and that influence their behavior.

Reinforcement Theories

Reinforcement is the administration of a consequence as a result of a behavior. Managing reinforcement properly can change the direction, level, and persistence of an individual's behavior. This is a counterpoint to goal-setting theory. While goal-setting theory is a cognitive approach proposing that an individual's purposes direct his or her action; reinforcement theory is a behavioristic approach which argues that reinforcement conditions behavior. "What controls behavior are reinforcers -- any consequence that, when immediately following a response, increases the probability that the behavior will be repeated.

Classical and Operant Conditioning:

Classical conditioning is a form of learning through association that involves the manipulation of stimuli to influence behavior. (Ivan Pavlov) This learning occurs through conditioned stimuli. A stimulus is something that incites action and draws forth a response (the meat for the dogs).

Operant conditioning is the process of controlling behavior by manipulating, or “operating” on, its consequences. Learning occurs through consequences of behavior. (B.F. Skinner, 1948, 1953, 1969)

Classical and operant conditioning differ in two important ways.

First, control in operant conditioning is via manipulation of consequences.

Second, operant conditioning calls for examining antecedents, behavior, and consequences. In operant conditioning, if a behavior is to be repeated, the consequences must be manipulated. The basis for manipulating consequences is E.L. Thorndike’s law of effect. (The behavior that results in a pleasant outcome is likely to be repeated while behavior that results in an unpleasant outcome is not likely to be repeated).

Reinforcement Strategies:

The integration of the notions of classical conditioning, operant conditioning, reinforcement, and extrinsic rewards can lead to changes in the direction, level, and persistence of individual behavior. This is known as OB Mod” or organizational behavior modification. OB Mod is the systematic reinforcement of desirable work behavior and the non-reinforcement or punishment of unwanted work behavior. Four strategies of OB Mod include: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement (for avoidance), punishment, and extinction.

- Positive reinforcement-Providing a reward for a desired behavior
- Negative reinforcement-Removing an unpleasant consequence when the desired behavior occurs
- Punishment-Applying an undesirable condition to eliminate an undesirable behavior
- Extinction-Withholding reinforcement of a behavior to cause its cessation

Schedules of Reinforcement

- Continuous Reinforcement-A desired behavior is reinforced each time it is demonstrated
- Intermittent Reinforcement-A desired behavior is reinforced often enough to make the behavior worth repeating but not every time it is demonstrated
- Fixed-Interval Schedule-Rewards are spaced at uniform time intervals

- Variable-Interval Schedule-Rewards are initiated after a fixed or constant number of responses

Reinforcement schedule	Nature of reinforcement	Effect on behaviour
Continuous	Reward given for each desired behaviour	Fast learning of new behaviour but rapid extinction
Fixed interval	Reward given at fixed time intervals	Average and irregular performance with rapid extinction
Variable-Interval	Reward given at variable times	Moderately high and stable performance with slow extinction
Fixed ratio	Reward given at fixed amounts of output	High and stable performance attained quickly but also with rapid extinction
Variable ratio	Reward given at a variable amount of output	Very high performance with slow extinction

Comparing Various Pay Programs

Approach	Strengths	Weaknesses
Variable pay	<p>Motivates for performance</p> <p>Cost effective</p> <p>Links organizational goals and individual rewards</p>	<p>Individuals do not always have control over factors that affect productivity</p> <p>Earnings vary from year to year</p> <p>Can cause unhealthy competition among</p>

		employees
Team based reward	<p>Encourages employees to work together effectively.</p> <p>Promotes goal of team based work</p>	<p>Difficult to evaluate team performance sometimes</p> <p>Equity problems could arise if all members paid equally</p>
Skill based pay	<p>Increases the skill level of employees</p> <p>Increases the flexibility of workforce</p> <p>Can reduce the number of employees needed.</p>	<p>Employers may end up paying for unneeded skills</p> <p>Employees may feel demotivated because they are not able to learn some skills.</p>

Content/Need Theories

Hierarchy of Needs theory

Abraham Maslow hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs:

1. Physiological.
2. Safety.
3. Social.
4. Esteem.
5. Self-actualization.

Maslow then categorized these 5 needs into lower-order needs and higher-order needs. Lower-order needs are needs that are satisfied externally: physiological and safety needs. Higher-order needs are needs that are satisfied internally (within the person): social, esteem, and self-actualization needs.

Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior toward subordinates according to these assumptions:

Theory X

Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it;

Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals;

Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.

Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

Theory Y:

Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play;

People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives;

The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility;

The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors include factors such as: company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary, Personal life, status, security. Motivator factors include factors such as: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth.

ERG Theory

ERG Theory proposed by Clayton Alderfer of Yale University: Alderfer argues that there are three groups of core needs:

- 1) existence
- 2) relatedness
- 3) growth

Existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. (They include physiological and safety needs) Relatedness group is the desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. Growth group is the intrinsic desire for personal development.

The ERG theory demonstrates that: more than one need may be operative at the same time; if the gratification of a higher-level need is stifled, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases.

McClelland's Learned Needs theory

Asserts that people learn many needs from culture. Three primary learned needs:

- a. Need for achievement (nAch) — a high nAch is reflected in a person's:

- i. Taking responsibility for solving problems.
 - ii. Setting moderate achievement goals and taking calculated risks.
 - iii. Desiring performance feedback.
- b. Need for affiliation (nAff) — reflects desire for social interaction. Social relationships valued more important than task performance.
- c. Need for power (nPow) — need for obtaining and exercising power and authority. Negative influence if manifested as dominance and submission; positive if it reflects persuasive and inspirational behavior.

McClelland asserts that needs are learned from coping with the environment; rewarded behaviors occur more often than unrewarded ones.

Allocating extrinsic rewards for behavior that had been previously intrinsically rewarded tends to decrease the overall level of motivation. (This concept was proposed in the late 1960s.)

The interdependence of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards is a real phenomenon.

Observations:

1. In the real world, when extrinsic rewards are stopped, it usually means the individual is no longer part of the organization.
2. Very high intrinsic motivation levels are strongly resistant to the detrimental impacts of extrinsic rewards.
3. On dull tasks, extrinsic rewards appear to increase intrinsic Motivation

Task Characteristic theories

These theories seek to identify task characteristics of jobs, how these characteristics are combined to form different jobs, and their relationship to employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

The task characteristics approach began with the pioneering work of Turner and Lawrence in the mid-1960s. There are at least 7 different task characteristics theories. Three most important task characteristics theories are:

1. Requisite task attributes theory
2. Job characteristics model, and
3. Social information-processing model.

Requisite Task Attributes Theory:

Turner and Lawrence predicted that employees would prefer jobs that were complex and challenging; that is, such jobs would increase satisfaction and result in lower absence rates. They defined job complexity in terms of six task characteristics:

1. Variety;
2. Autonomy;
3. Responsibility;
4. Knowledge and skill;
5. Required social interaction; and
6. Optional social interaction.

Turner and Lawrence's requisite task attributes theory was important for at least 3 reasons: They demonstrated that employees did respond differently to different types of jobs. They provided a preliminary set of task attributes by which jobs could be assessed. They focused attention on the need to consider the influence of individual differences on employees' reaction to jobs.

Job Characteristics Model:

From the foundation laid by Turner and Lawrence in the mid-1960s, Hackman and Oldham proposed a Job Characteristics Model (JCM).

According to JCM, any job can be described in terms of 5 core job dimensions, defined as follows:

1. Skill variety.
2. Task identity.
3. Task significance.
4. Autonomy.
5. Feedback.

The more that the psychological states are present, the greater will be the employee's motivation, performance, and satisfaction, and the lower his or her absenteeism and likelihood of leaving the organization.

For individuals:

High growth need ---> experience psychological states, given that their jobs are enriched than are their counterparts, with a low growth needs.

The core dimensions can be combined into a single predictive index, called the motivating potential score (MPS). Most of the empirical evidence supports the general framework-- that is, there is a multiple set of job characteristics and these characteristics impact behavioral outcomes.

Given the current state of evidence, the following statements can be made with relative confidence:

1. People who work on jobs with high-core job dimensions are generally more motivated, satisfied, and productive than are those who do not.
2. Job dimensions operate through the psychological states in influencing personal and work outcome variables rather than influencing them directly.

(For further details please refer to the Exhibit from Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, Pearson Education, pp255)

Computing a Motivating Potential Score:

$$\text{MPS} = \left(\frac{\text{skill variety} + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task significance}}{3} \right) \times \text{autonomy} \times \text{feedback}$$

Social Information-Processing Model:

Employees adopt attitudes and behaviors in response to the social cues provided by others with whom they have contact.

According to this model, the objective characteristic of a job does not change, but the job incumbent reconstructed reality based on messages he/she has gotten from others, i.e. peers, coworkers, etc.

Process/ Cognitive theories

Goal Setting theory

Focuses on the impact of performance goals on task performance

Central proposition: the performance goals that people hold for a particular task are likely to determine how well they perform the task. Difference in the content of the performance goals relate to differences in task performance. Specific and difficult goals lead to higher performance as they clearly define acceptable levels of performance, increase the amount of effort exerted, increase task persistence, lead to more extensive strategy development and planning, orient individuals toward goal-related knowledge and activities. Setting these kinds of goals also leads to more effort, greater task persistence, directing individuals toward goal-relevant activities/knowledge, the development of task strategies and more planning

Feedback leads to higher performance than does non-feedback.

In addition to feedback, other factors have been found to influence the goals-performance relationship. These are:

1. Goal commitment. 2. Adequate self-efficacy (Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. Individuals high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation, whereas those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort when given negative feedback) 3. Task-relevant ability and 4. Task complexity

Determinants of Self-Set Goals-

Goal choice is determined by 1. Past performance levels 2. Ability 3. Self-efficacy 4. Goal orientation 5. Conscientiousness 6. Need for achievement 7. Goal instrumentality 8. Mood

Control Theory

Developed to address the early criticisms of Goal Setting Theory (self-set goals; dynamic self-regulation, multiple goals)

It has two forms

Cybernetic control theory models (Miller et al, 1960; Powers, 1973, 1978)

Rational control theory models (Campion & Lord, 1982; Korman & Lord, 1990; Klein, 1989)

Both focus on how individuals gather and evaluate environmental feedback to regulate their behavior

A. Cybernetic Control Theory

The output passes through an environmental sensor and a comparison is made between current behaviour and behavioural referent (goal/standard). If there is no discrepancy behaviour is maintained. In case of discrepancy there is a self correcting motivational tendency which motivated the person to take a cognitive or behavioural measure to reduce the discrepancy and the result is a changed output which again passes through the loop .

B. Rational Control Theory

- A goal-behavior discrepancy does not automatically trigger a self-correcting process
- Individuals are tolerant of small goal-behavior discrepancies
- For discrepancies to trigger a reaction, the discrepancy must be known (inward attention)
- Goal must be important factors likely to influence the choice of cognitive and behavioral mechanisms for discrepancy reduction:
- Magnitude of discrepancy

- Expectancy of future success if discrepancy reduced
- Past success/failure in reducing discrepancy failure
- Tend to use cognitive strategies when discrepancy is large, expectancy for failure is high, and recent failures present

Social Cognitive Theory(Bandura, 1986)

Also holds that goals are the primary determinants of motivated behavior

Self-regulation of behavior entails 4 interrelated processes

1.Goal establishment 2.Self-observation 3.Self-evaluation 4.Self-reaction

Goal establishment

Set goals that represent a desired behavioral state. Goals are a function of: Past behavior; Are arranged in hierarchies (proximal-distal);Do more than just facilitate progress; Source of self-satisfaction; Personal mastery; Self-efficacy; Sustained interest. Proximal goals serve a self-satisfying function—lead to increases in feelings of efficacy and task interest when utilized as a means of facilitating distal goals

Goal- Behaviour Discrepancy

Negative goal-behavior discrepancies reduces self-efficacy & satisfaction, increases effort and leads to downward goal revision. Positive discrepancies leads to upward goal revision and increases self-efficacy. Self efficacy -impacts goal establishment, impacts performance and increases strategy development & planning.

Discrepancy Reduction/Production

It is the change in satisfaction and/or self-efficacy that motivates discrepancy reduction strategies. Some of these strategies are:

- **Increase effort**
- **Change task strategy**
- **Lower goal**
- **Abandon activity (if discrepancy is large)**

Also a discrepancy production process (set higher standards) depends on:

- **Self efficacy**
- **Ability level**
- **Perceived importance of the goal**

The process is not automatic. Responses may differ due to factors that will alter perceptions of discrepancies like Dispositional factors, Affective factors, Cognitive factors and Contextual factors

To know further about the joint effects of goals and self efficiency on performance please refer to Exhibit from Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P.Robbins, Timothy A.Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, Pearson Education, pp229

Equity theory

Individuals make comparisons of their job inputs and outcomes relative to those of others and then respond so as to eliminate any inequities. Inequity arises when an employee is either underrewarded or overrewarded. J. Stacy Adams proposed that this negative tension state provides the motivation to do something to correct it.

When employees perceive an inequity they can be predicted to make one of six choices:

1. Change their inputs .
2. Change their outcomes.
3. Distort perceptions of self.
4. Distort perceptions of others.
5. Choose a different referent.
6. Leave the field.

Specifically, the theory establishes 4 propositions relating to inequitable pay:

1. Given payment by time, over-rewarded employees will produce more than will equitably paid employees.
2. Given payment by quantity of production, over-rewarded employees will produce fewer, but higher-quality, units than will equitably paid employees.

3. Given payment by time, under-rewarded employees will produce less or poorer quality of output.
4. Given payment by quantity of production, under-rewarded employees will produce a large number of low-quality units in comparison with equitably paid employees

While most research on equity theory has focused on pay, employees seem to look for equity in the distribution of other organizational rewards.

Equity theory demonstrates that, for most employees, motivation is influenced significantly by relative rewards as well as by absolute rewards.

Justice and Equity Theory

Organizational justice is the overall perception of what is fair in the workplace. It has three components

- (a) Distributive justice: Perceived fairness of outcome
- (b) Procedural justice: Perceived fairness of process used to determine outcome
- (c) Interactional justice: Perceived degree to which one is treated with dignity and respect.

Expectancy Theory

Based on early work of Tolman, 1932.

Vroom's Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Model (VIE; 1964)

Human behavior is the result of conscious choices made by individuals among alternative courses of action. Goal is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain. This goal is achieved via 3 perceptions.

- Expectancy: perceived likelihood that engaging in a given behavior will lead to a 1st level outcome

- Instrumentality: perceptions of the link between obtainment of the 1st level outcome and the attainment of 2nd level outcomes
- Valence: Affective orientation held toward the outcome. Positively valent outcomes are desirable and Negatively valent outcomes are undesirable

These 3 perceptions combine to create a motivational force. The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that an act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. (This is first proposed by Victor Vroom)

$$V_j = f[\sum I_{jk} V_k]$$

V_j = valence of outcome j

I_{jk} = instrumentality of outcome j for the attainment of outcome k

V_k = Valence is anticipated satisfaction

$$F_i = f_i \sum (E_{ij} V_j)$$

F_i = force to perform act i

V_j = valence of outcome j

E_{ij} = expectancy that act i will lead to (be followed by) outcome j

Thus, it includes 3 variables or relationships:

1. Attractiveness (of the outcome).
2. Performance - reward linkage. Performance = f (A, M, O) Ability = intelligence and skills
O = Opportunity to perform
3. Effort - performance linkage.

The key to understanding of an individual's goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards, and finally, between rewards and individual goal satisfaction.

Some of the issues expectancy theory brought forward:

1. It emphasizes payoffs or rewards. (It is a theory based on self-interest. “ Expectancy theory is a form of calculative, psychological hedonism in which the ultimate motive of every human act is asserted to be the maximization of pleasure and/or the minimization of pain.”
2. The attractiveness of rewards.
3. Expectancy theory emphasizes expected behaviors

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Rewards exert their influence on intrinsic motivation through their ability to satisfy or frustrate two innate needs:

Need for competence (White, 1968)

Need for self-determination (deCharms, 1968)

If a reward enhances perceptions of competence and self-determination, intrinsic motivation will also increase

Theory considers both tangible and environmental rewards (feedback, recognition)

Factors that impact intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Negatively:

- **Performance contingent rewards**
- **Negative feedback**
- **Threats**
- **Deadlines**
- **Directives**
- **Competition**

Positively:

- Positive performance feedback
- Choice
- Self-direction

Four Key Rewards to Increase Intrinsic Motivation

1. Choice
2. Competence
3. Meaningfulness
4. Progress

Building Blocks for Intrinsic Rewards

In the book *Intrinsic Motivation at Work: Building Energy and Commitment*. Copyright © K. Thomas, the author has classified intrinsic rewards as follows:

Leading for Choice

Delegated authority

Trust in workers

Security (no punishment) for honest mistakes

A clear purpose

Information

Leading for Competence

Knowledge

Positive feedback

Skill recognition

Challenge

High, non-comparative standards

Leading for Meaningfulness

A noncynical climate

Clearly identified passions

An exciting vision

Relevant task purposes

Whole tasks

Leading for Progress

A collaborative climate

Milestones

Celebrations

Access to customers

Measurement of improvement

(For more details please read From Intrinsic Motivation at Work: Building Energy and Commitment. Copyright © K. Thomas. Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc., San Francisco, CA).

Comparison of Motivation Theories

Theory	Source of Motivation	Empirical Support	Industrial Applicability
Need Theory	Unconscious, innate needs	Weak: Little support for proposed relationships among needs	Very limited: Theory lacks sufficient specificity to guide behavior
Equity Theory	Drive to reduce feelings of tension caused by perceived inequity	Mixed: Good support for underpayment inequity, weak support for overpayment inequity	Limited: Social comparisons are made, but feelings of inequity can be reduced through means other than increased motivation
Expectancy Theory	Relationship among desired outcomes, performance-reward, and effort-performance	Moderate-strong: More strongly supported in within-subject (placement) than between-subject (selection) experiments	Strong: Theory provides a rational basis for why people expend effort, although not all behavior is as consciously determined as postulated

	variables		
Reinforcement Theory	Schedule of reinforcement used to reward people for their performance	Moderate: Ratio reinforcement schedules evoke superior performance compared to interval schedules, but little difference exists among various ratio schedules	Moderate: Contingent payment for performance is possible in some jobs, although ethical problems can be present in an organization's attempt to shape employee behavior
Goal Setting Theory	Intention to direct behavior in pursuit of acceptable goals	Moderate-strong: Performance under goal-setting conditions usually superior to conditions under which no goals are set	Strong: Ability to set goals is not restricted to certain types of people or jobs

Putting It All Together

However, for practical purposes all the motivation theories should be considered together as an integrated concept as in the organizational setup all of them work together in a well blended way to have an effect on an employee's attitude or behaviour. For further details please refer to Exhibit from Organizational Behaviour, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge and Seema Sanghi, 12th ed, Pearson Education, pp240

Implication of Motivation theories for Performance and Satisfaction

Reinforcement Theories

Reinforcement Theory - predicts factors like quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates.

Content Theories

Need Theories - These were Maslow's hierarchy, motivation-hygiene, ERG, and McClelland's need theories. Employees will be motivated to satisfy their needs. Therefore ...If needs are

assumed to differ: Match employees to situations (e.g., select leaders with high nPower). If needs are assumed to be common: Design jobs to satisfy basic needs (e.g., job enrichment)

Task Characteristics Theories - address all four dependent variables: skill variety, task identity and significance, autonomy, and feedback.

Process Theories

Goal-setting Theory - Clear and difficult goals lead to higher levels of employee productivity.

Equity Theory - deals with all 4 dependent variables. But it is strongest when predicting absence and turnover behaviors and weak when predicting differences in employee productivity.

Expectancy Theory - proves to offer a relatively powerful explanation of employee productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. But expectancy theory assumes that employees have few constraints on their decision discretion.

Questions

1. Why is it important for a manager to consider the various components of motivation when diagnosing motivation problems? Explain.
2. Which of the content approach or the process approach best explains motivation?
3. What implications does Herzberg's two-factor theory have for the design of organizational reward systems? How can the theory be used to explain differences in the three components of motivation?
4. What would it be like to manage an organization where all the employees were self-actualized? What kinds of opportunities and problems would this situation present to management?
5. How important a role does perception play in determining whether an employee is receiving equitable treatment? What kinds of things might a manager do to influence those perceptions?
6. Goal-setting can be a difficult system to implement effectively. What kinds of problems might be encountered in an effort to implement a goal-setting program in an organization? As a manager, what would you do to minimize the likelihood you would encounter these problems?

Chapter Nine

Job Design, Work and Motivation

Objectives:

To develop an understanding of:

- Job compared to work
- Job performance outcomes
- Job analysis
- Job designs: the result of job analysis
- The way people perceive their jobs
- A conceptual model of job design
- Designing Job range: Job rotation and job Enlargement
- Designing Job depth: Job enrichment
- Total quality management and job design

Job Compared to Work

Job - a set of specified work and task activities that engage an individual in an organization

Work – mental or physical activity that has productive results

Meaning of Work - The way a person interprets and understands the value of work as part of life

Job Performance Outcomes

A. Objective Outcomes

1. Quantity and quality of output, absenteeism, tardiness and turnover.

2. Outcomes that can be quantified and measured.
3. Outcomes for which quantifiable standards can be established.

B. Personal Behavior Outcomes

1. The jobholder's reaction to the job itself.
2. Psychological and health-related problems can develop as a result of job performance.
3. Stress related to job performance can contribute to physical and mental impairments.

C. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Outcomes

1. An intrinsic outcome is an object or event that follows from the worker's own efforts and does not require the involvement of any other person.
2. Extrinsic outcomes are objects or events that follow from the worker's efforts in conjunction with other factors or people (e.g., work conditions).
3. Extrinsic rewards reinforce intrinsic rewards in a positive direction when an employee can attribute the source of the extrinsic reward to his or her own efforts.

D. Job Satisfaction Outcomes

1. Depends on the levels of intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes and how the jobholder views those outcomes.
2. One such individual difference includes job involvement and commitment to the organization.
3. People differ in the extent that:
 - a. Work is a central life interest
 - b. They actively participate in work
 - c. They perceive work as central to self-esteem

- d. They perceive work as consistent with self-concept.
- e. They perceive the equity of the outcome in terms of what is a fair reward.

The various issues of Job Performance outcome can be answered by a proper Job Design.

What is Job Design?

This is defined as 'The process of combining tasks and responsibilities to form complete jobs and the relationships of jobs in the organization.' Job design is the process by which managers decide individual job tasks and authority. It involves determining (1) What is to be done (i.e., responses) (2)How it is to be done (i.e. What techniques, equipment, and procedures tools etc.)(3)Why it is to be done (i.e., purpose) .It results in job description (Shows nature of job in task-related behaviors).Human and organizational well-being depend on how well management designs jobs. Recent job design concerns have extended beyond job performance efficiency to providing quality of work life.QWL is a philosophy of management that enhances the dignity of all workers, introduces changes in an organization's culture, and improves the physical and emotional well-being of employees. Management's challenge is to provide for both quality of work life and improved production and efficiency through revitalization of business and industry. Job design/redesign techniques attempt:1.To identify the most important needs of employees and the organization.2.To remove obstacles in the workplace that frustrate those needs. Managers hope that the results are jobs which:1. Fulfill important individual needs.2.Contribute to individual, group, and organizational effectiveness.

Job Designs are the results of Job Analysis. Job Analysis provides an objective description of the job itself. It gathers information about three aspects of all jobs:

- 1.Job content—required activities the jobholder must perform to do the job successfully.
 - a. Descriptions may vary from very general to very detailed.
 - b. Functional job analysis (FJA)—one of the most used job analysis methods describes jobs in terms of four factors:(1)What the worker does in relation to data, people and jobs. (2)What methods and techniques the worker uses. (3)What machines, tools and equipment is used. (4) What materials, products, subject matter or services the worker produces.
- 2.Job requirements—minimum qualifications necessary to perform the job in an adequate manner.

3.Job context—physical demands and working conditions of the job, degree of accountability and responsibility, and other conditions or environmental variables.

From the Job Analysis, three elements of Job Design like Task Analysis, Worker Analysis and Environmental Analysis are developed. Task Analysis determines what tasks will be done ,how each task will be done and how the tasks fit together to form a job. Worker Analysis determines the capabilities the worker must possess and responsibilities the worker will have. Environmental Analysis is used to analyze physical environment including location, lighting, temperature, noise, ventilation etc.

Job Design specify three characteristics: 1.Job range—the number of tasks a jobholder performs.

2. Job depth—the amount of discretion a jobholder has in deciding job activities and outcomes.

3.Job relationships-Range and depth distinguish jobs in the same organization and across different organizations .In determining range and depth of jobs, managers should provide the optimum job range/depth feasible given the economic and technical requirements of the organization's mission and objectives. Job relationships is determined by departmentalization bases and spans of control that define the nature and extent of the jobholder's interpersonal relationships, individually and within groups. The wider the span of control, the more difficult it is to establish friendship and interest relationships. Functional departmentalization groups together jobs similar in range/depth. Product, territory and customer bases group together jobs that differ in range/depth. Perceptions of job characteristics are affected by:1.Individual differences which cause different people to see the same objective stimuli differently.2.Different social settings—e.g., different leadership styles, what peers say about the job.

Designing Job Range: Job Rotation and Job Enlargement: Two strategies were developed to improve jobs' range: job rotation and job enlargement. Job rotation involves rotating the employee from one job to another (boosting job range and perceived variety in job content); does not change the job's basic characteristics. Critics assert that rotation involves performing many boring tasks instead of one. It continues to be widely used. Job enlargement involves increasing the number of tasks that a jobholder performs. It requires more training but usually reduces boredom. It boosts job satisfaction and reduces

absenteeism/turnover if the jobholder can handle enlargement. However, employees may demand pay raises.

Redesigning Job Depth: Job Enrichment. Job Enrichment is an application of Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. It involves designing jobs that meet individuals' needs for psychological growth, especially responsibility, challenge, and achievement. It involves designing a job that meets the jobholder's needs for personal growth by: a. Direct feedback: timely and direct evaluation of performance. b. New learning: provide opportunities to learn and grow. c. Scheduling: jobholder schedules part of his or her own work. d. Uniqueness: each job holds some unique qualities and features. e. Control over resources: jobholders have some control over their tasks. f. Personal accountability: give people a chance to be accountable for the job.

The job enrichment process: a. Encourages employees to behave like managers in managing their jobs. b. Redesigns the jobs to make such behavior feasible. Positive outcomes result from increasing employees' expectancies that: a. Efforts lead to performance. b. Performance leads to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. c. These rewards have the power to satisfy needs. However, it requires a supportive work environment to succeed.

Job Characteristics Model combines job enrichment and job enlargement approaches and attempts to account for interrelationships between: a. Certain job characteristics. b. Psychological states associated with motivation, satisfaction and performance. c. Job outcomes. d. Growth need strength. Core dimensions of the job characteristics model are: a. Variety—degree to which a job requires a wide range of operations and a variety of equipment and procedures. b. Autonomy—extent to which job holders have a say in work scheduling and selection of equipment and procedures in their work. c. Task identity—extent to which jobholders do an entire piece of work and identify with the results of their efforts d. Feedback—degree to which jobholders receive information about their job performance. e. Dealing with others—the degree to which a jobholder can establish informal relationships with other workers on the job. f. Friendship opportunities—degree to which a jobholder can establish informal relationships with other workers on the job.

Application of core dimensions to job design: a. Variety, task identity and feedback are perceptions of job range. b. Autonomy is a perception of job depth. c. Dealing with others and friendship opportunities reflect perceptions of job relationships. The problems associated with job redesign using a job characteristics approach: a. Program is time-consuming. b. Unless lower level needs are satisfied, people

will not respond to opportunities to satisfy upper level needs. c. Unrealistically high expectations for satisfaction may lead to dissatisfaction. d. Union may oppose it as an attempt to get more work for the same pay. e. It may not produce tangible improvements for some time.

Job engineering (JEng)- The scientific management approach evolved into what is now generally called job engineering. It is closely associated with cybernation and sophisticated computer applications, computer assisted design (CAD), and human-machine interactions. In fact, it has been the dominant aspect of job design analysis.

Quality of work life (QWL) and socio-technical design

The overriding purpose of quality of work life is to change the climate at work so that the human-technological-organizational interface leads to a better quality of work life.

Social information processing approach (SIPA)-The social information processing approach to job design suggests that individual needs, task perceptions, and reactions are socially constructed realities. The process includes choice, revocability, publicness, explicitness, social norms and expectations and external priming, which combine with social information (from others and the organizational environment) and influence the jobholders' perceptions, attitudes and behavior. Four premises of this model are: 1) people provide cues to understanding the work environment 2) people help us judge our jobs 3) people tell us how they see our jobs 4) people's positive & negative feedback help us understand our feelings about our jobs

Self-managed teams— job redesign at a group level. A self-managed team (SMT) is a small group of individuals empowered to perform certain activities based on procedures and decisions made within the group; minimum outside direction. Possible forms: a. Task forces. b. Project teams. c. Quality circles. d. New venture teams. Team management determine own work assignments within team and are responsible for work from start to finish.

Alternative work arrangements—job redesign aimed at improving the job's context. New approaches are: a. Compressed workweek—working longer hours for fewer days. b. Flextime—employees determine, within some limits, when they will go to work. c. Job sharing—two or more individuals share one job. d. Telecommuting—involves working at home while being linked to the office via a computer and/or fax machine.

Total Quality Management and Job Design-It combines the ideas of technical knowledge and human knowledge. It empowers employees to handle the complexities and variabilities of work technologies. When the integration of technology and employee is considered, the employee's job is often redesigned to enhance this interaction. In the current global environment, socio-technical system design has been incorporated in the total quality management approach to management. An elaborated model of job (Garg and Rastogi, 2006) considers the designing of job at individual and group level keeping in view the various factors that influence and constrain the choice of job design. The antecedents are (a) external organizational factors like environmental uncertainty (downsizing,layoff),available technology(E commerce,E business,EPM) and labour market and (b) Internal organizational factors like management styles (HRM), technology and tasks(Knowledge management, ergonomics),Organizational design(Leadership styles,culture) workplace spirituality and High performance improvement.

The antecedents have an effect on the expanded job characteristics at (a) Individual level like job control, skill variety, performance/ feedback, cognitive demands(attention demands/problem solving demands),emotional demands,opportunity for skill acquisition,variable performance linked pay,flexible working hours.

(b)Group level like team autonomy,team feedback,team skill variety,team task interdependence,creativity and innovation

(c) Social level like social capital(structural,relational and cognitive social capital),establish intergroup processes, establish credibility,encourages interactions,meets social demands.

The expanded job characteristics leads to outcome in the form of proactive performances like motivation,quick response,learning and developing organizations, innovation and creativity,high performance environment.

The proactive performance leads to (a) Organizational outcomes like high productivity, customer satisfaction/retention and reduced accidents (b)Individual/group outcomes like increased job performance, rational decision making, reduced stress, group effectiveness, collectivistic culture (c) Social outcomes like collective representations, collective emotional experiences and within group solidarity. The proactive performance also influences the antecedents which in turn again has an effect on the job characteristics.

For further reading please refer to New model of job design:motivating employees'performance by Pooja Garg and Renu Rastogi Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, Uttaranchal, India, published in Journal of Management Development Vol. 25 No. 6, 2006, pp. 572-587; Emerald Group Publishing Limited 0262-1711 DOI 10.1108/02621710610670137

Questions

1. What is Job analysis? Describe Job design in the light of job analysis
2. What is job design? Discuss methods of Designing Job range and Job depth
3. Explain the relationship of Total quality management and job design with a suitable model.

Chapter Ten

Evaluation ,Feedback and Rewards

Objectives:

To develop an understanding of:

- Evaluation of Performance
- Performance Evaluation feedback
- Reinforcement theory
- A model of Individual rewards
- Rewards Affect Organizational concerns
- Innovative reward system

Organizations use rewards to attract, retain, and motivate people. But methods for distributing rewards vary from organization to organization, within the same organization across different levels and according to the nature of rewards. Some rewards may be universal or across the board rewards, some rewards may be a function of seniority while others may be related to job performance. To distribute rewards equitably, organizations develop systems for performance evaluation. To maximize effectiveness of the organization, it is necessary to link employee evaluation systems with reward systems.

Evaluation of Performance: Performance of an individual is the function of ability, motivation, resources available to perform the task and direction / target set for the job. Purposes of evaluation may be judgmental or developmental. Judgmental purposes focus on past performance, helping managers evaluate training programs and decide on how rewards should be distributed. It provides a basis for reward allocation, identifies high-potential employees, validates the effectiveness of employee selection procedures and evaluates previous training programs. Developmental purposes seek to improve future performance by clarifying expectations and identifying training needs. It stimulates performance improvement, develops ways of overcoming obstacles and performance barriers, identifies training and

development opportunities and establishes supervisor-employee agreement on performance expectations.

Methods of Performance Evaluation

Rating formats-Evidence indicates that ratings are not strongly related to results. Rating depends heavily on the mental process of the rater and as the processes are complex, there may be errors of judgment in the rating. Results depends heavily on conditions that may be outside the control of the individual employee and most measures of results provide only partial coverage of the overall domain of job performance

Behavior – Oriented rating method

Relative rating system

Absolute rating system

Result – Oriented rating system

Management by objective

Work planning and review

Behavior – Oriented rating method

Relative rating system

- Ranking and paired comparison-Good for making comparison across employees, but provides little basis for individual feedback and development
- Forced Distribution-Forces rater to make distinction among employees but may be unfair and inaccurate comparisons across employees if a group of employees, as a group, is very effective or ineffective
- Graphic rating scales(including behavioral anchored rating scales - BARS) are easy to use and very helpful for providing feedback for individual development. It facilitates comparison across employees but does not define dimensions and scale points are not defined clearly

- BARS – Very time consuming to develop, but dimensions and scale points are defined clearly

Absolute rating system

- Narrative essay-Good for individual feedback and development , but difficult to make comparisons across employees
- Behavioral checklist -Are easy to use and provide a direct link between job analysis and performance appraisal. They can be numerically scored and facilitate comparison across employees. However meaning of response categories may be interpreted differently by different raters
- Critical incident-Focus directly on job behavior.Emphases on what employees did that was effective or ineffective, but can be very time consuming to develop

Result – Oriented rating system

Management by objective- Focuses on results.Each individual contribution to the success of the unit or organization. It is short – term oriented in approach. It provides few insights into employee behavior. But it does not facilitate comparison across employees.An example of an objective for a sales manager might be: Increase the gross monthly sales volume

Work planning and Review- It focuses on results. It emphasizes process over outcomes. It requires frequent supervisor– subordinate reviews of work plan. It is time consuming to implement properly and does not facilitate comparison across employees

Effective performance evaluations are continuous, ongoing processes asking two questions:

a. Is the work being done effectively? b. Are employee skills and abilities being fully utilized?

Focus should be on: a. Translating job responsibilities into daily activities. b. Helping employees understand and develop these responsibilities, relate them to goals, and recognize accomplishments. c. Emphasizing job performance, not individuals. d. Weighting relevant behaviors appropriately.

Relevancy in evaluations has three aspects: a. Deficiency-failure to focus on all aspects of the job. b. Contamination-Focusing on activities that are not part of the job. c. Distortion-improper emphasis of various job elements.

Improving evaluations—may be accomplished through: 1.Increasing employee participation in the evaluation process. 2. Setting specific performance goals. 3. Giving evaluators training. 4. Communicating results to employees. 5. Focusing on good performance, as well as performance problems.6.Conducting evaluations informally, throughout the year.

Performance Evaluation Feedback- Purpose of Evaluation Feedback 1.Instructional—when areas needing improvement are clearly identified and needed changes explained. 2. Motivational—when rewards or incentives are provided as part of the evaluation process.

Feedback should be:

- Behavioral: Focus feedback on employee's behavior
- Specific: Give specific examples of observations; avoid exaggerations, e.g. "always" "never"
- Job-related: feedback must be about behaviors exhibited on the job
- Timely: feedback should be given as soon as possible; time lapse allows inappropriate behavior to be repeated
- Balanced: the "sandwich" method; deliver positive feedback, followed by constructive feedback, then positive again
- Respectful: feedback is more easily accepted if the employee's dignity and self-worth are kept intact

Effective Feedback is descriptive and not evaluative. It focuses on the behaviour of the person and not on the person himself. It is data based and specific and not impressionistic. Effective feedback reinforces positive new behaviour . It is continuous, suggestive and not prescriptive, need based and solicited. It is intended to help the person to whom feedback is given, focuses on modifiable behaviour and satisfies needs of both the feedback given and one who receive feedback

Approaches to increase the effectiveness of feedback in improving performance-

- a. Feedback should be given frequently.
- b. Permit the person being evaluated to participate in the feedback session.
- c. Focus on both ineffective and effective behaviors.
- d. Focus on results and goals.
- e. Gain and maintain respect throughout the entire process.

Multisource Feedback: A 360-Degree Approach uses information about the employee from various locations within, and sometimes outside of, the organization. An employee is rated on a range of competencies by people with whom he or she has a work or business relationship-self, boss, peer, subordinates, customers, and even family members. It is a common belief that such programs are effective when used for developmental purposes but not for administrative (e.g. promotion) purposes. A 360-degree feedback process usually consists of multiple steps –(1)Planning (2)buy-in (3)evaluation instrument design or selection (4) report generation (5)feedback delivery (6) setting development plan (7) follow-up.

Feedback can enhance self-awareness about own strengths and weaknesses. Based on Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957), a significant gap between self-ratings and ratings from others can cause psychological dissonance. When this happens, people are motivated to reduce this gap and feel assonant again. According to Control Theory (Carter & Schneier, 1981,1982), when people detect discrepancies between their goals and their behavior, they are likely to take actions to reduce the discrepancies.

360-Degree Feedback is considered to be more fair and credible as it provides multiple points of view; thus, allowing comparisons. Also, it is considered more thorough.

However, feedback providers may be reluctant to provide honest and direct information for fear of retaliation that the information could negatively affect the recipient's salary and/or career aspirations; results might be inflated; concern that the peer or subordinate evaluator does not have enough information upon which to make the evaluation.

There is a plenty of room between feedback and actual individual development /change

Feedback: How was a person perceived by various raters?

Judgment: what does the feedback mean to the person?

Intention: What does the person plan to do?

Action: What does the person really do?

Results: What does the person finally achieve?

To close the gap between feedback and actual individual development/change steps should be taken at both organizational and individual level.

What should be done at the Organizational Level

When designing a 360-degree feedback program, it is important to make it clear that actual individual development /change is the major goal. It is better to model the individual learning process instead of simply using “follow-up”. During implementing the program , it is important to align the whole effort with the goal of individual development e.g., train people how to give constructive feedback in real work situations. After giving feedback, it is important to(1) ensure to keep focus on the major goal—individual development(2)set realistic expectations(3)allocate sufficient resources(4) provide supportive conditions(5)create a learning culture

What should be done at the Individual Level

Firstly, it is necessary for the individual to understand why he or she needs to learn or develop. Finding a good coach or mentor is the second important thing. The individual should have a focus-One of the keys is to identify one or two areas for improvement. Three ways to make a development focus: (a) focusing on strengths (from good to great) (b) focusing on weaknesses when they really create problems (c) leveraging strengths and compensating for weaknesses and learning how to mix them to have a better outcome. Being patient, persistent, resilient and creative is very much necessary. It is important to reflect. Seeking external emotional, strategic and technical support whenever needed

Benefits of this Integration

It ensures the main objective, individual development is always at focus. Both organizations and individuals are responsible for making actual learning happen—they work as a joint force aligning personal development goals and organizational goals and objectives. Organizations can provide sufficient resources and create supportive conditions and culture to facilitate individual learning. Ideally, organizations can finally create a feedback culture which is characterized as (1) People often receive constructive feedback from various sources on a regular basis (2) People also often actively seek feedback for improvement. In a feedback culture, individuals can get feedback on a regular basis so that feedback is given in a timely manner and more likely to focus on behavior instead of trait because of vivid memory.

Reward Programs of Organizations

A model of Individual Rewards—A reward program's main objectives are to attract qualified individuals to join the organization, to keep employees coming to work, to motivate employees to perform well. According to the model of the reward process: 1. An individual is motivated to perform. 2. Performance is affected by abilities, skills, and experiences. 3. Evaluating performance determines intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. 4. These rewards are evaluated by the employee and result in some degree of satisfaction, which influences motivation. According to Lawler, the degree to which rewards satisfy an individual depends on: 1. The amount given and how much the individual feels should be given. 2. The individual's comparison of the rewards received with those received by others. 3. The individual's satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. 4. The importance of different rewards to the individual. 5. The extent to which some extrinsic rewards satisfy because they lead to other rewards. Managers should develop a rewards system that: 1. Satisfies basic needs. 2. Employees consider fair. 3. Responds to individuals.

Rewards can be Extrinsic and Intrinsic in nature.

Extrinsic rewards are initiated from outside the person. Some primary ones are:

1. Salary and wages—money is a major extrinsic reward. It's a powerful motivator if employees perceive a link between performance and pay.
2. Fringe benefits—usually financial benefits (the major financial fringe benefit is a pension), and usually based on seniority or attendance.

3. Interpersonal rewards—e.g., status and recognition.

4. Promotions—performance and seniority are usually the criteria used in making promotion decisions.

Intrinsic rewards are self administered by the person. It provides a sense of satisfaction or gratification and often a feeling of pride for a job well done. Some major ones are:

1. Completion—the ability to start and finish a project or job.
2. Achievement—a self-administered reward received when a challenging goal is reached.
3. Autonomy—the right and privilege of working and making decisions without close supervision.
4. Personal growth—expanding capabilities via the job.

Organizations generally assume that motivation is determined by the sum of the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, but this assumption is questionable. The addition of extrinsic rewards tends to reduce the extent to which the individual experiences self-administered intrinsic rewards.

Administering rewards—three approaches are:

1.Reinforcement theory- It is based on the learning theory of Operant conditioning which attempts to influence behavior by using rewards and punishments as consequences. Operants are behaviors that can be controlled via manipulating consequences.

Reinforcement

1. Positive reinforcer—a stimulus that when added to the situation strengthens the probability of a desired behavioral response.
2. Negative reinforcer—when removed immediately after a response increases the frequency of that response.
- 3.Punishment— presenting an uncomfortable or undesired consequence for a particular behavioral response (e.g., a demotion, suspension, criticism, termination). Punishment is increasingly used, but still controversial managerial strategy. It should be used with caution because it can have unintended consequences.

4. Extinction—Reduces unwanted behavior by withholding positive reinforcement from a learned response.

Reinforcement schedules—the timing of rewards or punishments

1. Continuous reinforcement—reinforcing a behavior each time it occurs.
2. Intermittent reinforcement—reinforcing after some expressions of behavior, but not every one.
 - a. Fixed interval—reinforcing a desired behavior after a certain period of time.
 - b. Variable interval—reinforcing at some variable time interval.
 - c. Fixed ratio—reinforcing after a fixed number of desired behaviors (e.g., a bonus for every ten houses sold).
 - d. Variable ratio—reinforcing after a number of desired responses with the number varying around an average.

According to research ratio schedules produce higher response rates than do interval schedules.

Rewards in Organizations are generally based on Positive reinforcement—reinforcing desired behavior that leads to performance rather than performance alone.

2. Modeling and social imitation—employees acquire desired behaviors by observational learning or imitating.

- a. Imitation depends on whether the modeled person was rewarded or punished for a behavior.
- b. For imitation to occur, the individual must view the model receiving a valued reward for the behavior.
- c. To use modeling to administer rewards, management must consider who responds to the approach, the appropriate model, and the modeling context.

3. Expectancy theory—requires that managers:

- a. Identify desired rewards.

- b. Make them available (if possible) for desired behaviors, or;
- c. Increase the desirability of other rewards.

Often, a combination of these approaches is used in a rewards system.

Rewarding Employees: Four Aspects are (1)What to Pay (Internal vs. external equity) (2)How to Pay (e.g., Piece rate, merit based, bonuses, profit sharing, gain sharing, ESOPs, skill-based pay) (3)What Benefits to Offer (e.g., Flexible benefits) (4)How to Recognize Employees

Types of Rewards in the Workplace are based on (1)Membership and seniority (2)Job status (3)Competencies (4)Performance.

Membership/Seniority Based Rewards-Fixed wages, increases with seniority .Advantages are (1)Guaranteed wages may attract job applicants (2)Seniority-based rewards reduce turnover. Disadvantages are (1)Doesn't motivate job performance(2)Discourages poor performers from leaving(3)May act as golden handcuffs (tie people to the job)

Job Status-Based Rewards-Includes job evaluation and status perks. Advantages are (1)Job evaluation tries to maintain pay equity(2)Motivates competition for promotions. Disadvantages are (1)Employees exaggerate duties, hoard resources (2)Reinforces status, hierarchy(3)Inconsistent with workplace flexibility

Competency-Based Rewards-Pay increases with competencies acquired and demonstrated. Skill-based pay-Pay increases with skill modules learned. Advantages are more flexible work force, better quality, consistent with employability. Disadvantages are that it is potentially subjective and involves higher training costs

Performance-Based Rewards

(a)Organizational rewards like profit sharing,share ownership,stock options,balanced scorecard

(b) Team rewards like bonuses and gain sharing

(c)Individual rewards like bonuses, commissions, piece rate

Rewarding Employees:

Variable Pay Programs-A portion of an employee's pay is based on some individual and/or organization measure of performance.

Piece rate pay plans -Workers are paid a fixed sum for each unit of production completed

Profit sharing plans-Organization-wide programs that distribute compensation based on some established formula designed around a company's profitability

Flexible Benefits- Employees tailor their benefit program to meet their personal need by picking and choosing from a menu of benefit options. (a)Core-Plus Plans-A core of essential benefits and a menu-like selection of other benefit options (b) Modular Plans -Predesigned benefits packages for specific groups of employees (c) Flexible Spending Plans- Allow employees to use their tax-free benefit dollars to purchase benefits and pay service premiums

Employee Recognition Programs- It is an intrinsic reward which stimulates intrinsic motivation. Here personal attention is given to an employee, approval and appreciation is given for a job well done. Growing in popularity and usage. Benefits of Recognition Programs are (1)fulfill employees' desire for recognition (2)inexpensive to implement (3)encourages repetition of desired behaviors. Drawbacks of Programs are that they are susceptible to manipulation by management

Innovative Reward Systems

Skill-based Pay Plans-Pay levels are based on how many skills employees have or how many jobs they can do. Clear demonstration of skill acquisition results in pay increase. It approximates how professionals are compensated. It relies on surveys of what other firms pay professionals to establish pay grades and maturity curves. Benefits of Skill-based Pay Plans are (1)Provides staffing flexibility to assign workers to different jobs (2) Requires fewer job classifications.(3) Requires fewer employees.(4)Facilitates communication across the organization (5)Lessens "protection of territory" behaviors (6)Meets the needs of employees for advancement (without promotion) (7)Leads to performance improvements.(8) May reduce turnover and absenteeism. Drawbacks of Skill-based Pay Plans are: (1)Lack of additional learning opportunities that will increase employee pay (2)Continuing to pay employees for skills that have become obsolete (3)Paying for skills that are of no immediate use to the organization (4)Paying for a skill, not for the level of employee performance for the particular skill

Broadbanding—involves reducing numerous pay grades to a relatively few broadband grades.

Concierge Services—a variety of benefits from tracking down tickets to an event to massages and other lavish services. Only a small number of companies have these services for employees.

Team-Based Rewards—paying all members of a team equally based on the outcome performance of the entire team's work. Team members must be rewarded differently than when individuals simply worked independently. To continue to reward employees, who are now functioning in teams, as independently organizational members increases competition among these members at the very time that collaboration is essential for both team and therefore, organizational success.

Part-time Benefits—with the shortage of talent more employers are relying on part-time employees and may are now providing benefits that only full time employees used to receive such as sick leave and paid vacations.

Gainsharing—provides employees with a share of the financial benefits the organization accrues from improved operating efficiencies and effectiveness. It is an incentive plan in which improvements in group productivity determine the total amount of money that is allocated. It may take many forms, including cash rewards and bonuses. To succeed, Gainsharing requires strong managerial and employee commitment to operating efficiencies.

Employee Stock Ownership Plans—companies contribute stock or cash to purchase stock to employees. Employee Stock Ownership Plans (ESOPs) is a company-established benefit plans in which employees acquire stock as part of their benefits. It is typically allocation is based on seniority. Benefit for the organization comes from improved performance by employees who have a direct financial stake in the business. Effectiveness of these plans is questionable, and seems to depend on how well management introduces and implements the plan.

Rewards Affect Organizational Concerns

Turnover—the focus should be on frequency and who leaves (turnover of low performers is desirable). A reward system should retain the best employees and cause poor ones to go. A merit reward system should encourage the better employees to stay if the system clearly discriminates between high and low performance in rewards.

Absenteeism is a costly and disruptive problem. Managers exert some influence over attendance behavior via use of rewards and punishments.

Job Performance-To motivate individuals, rewards must be valued by the employee (high valence) and related to the performance level that is to be motivated (high performance-outcome expectancy).

Organizational commitment -Organizational Commitment involves: 1. A sense of identification with organizational goals. 2. A feeling of involvement in organizational duties. 3. A feeling of loyalty to the organization. A committed employee: 1. Is less likely to leave. 2. Requires less supervision. 3. Perceives the value and importance of integrating individual and organizational goals, viewing his/her goals and organizational goals in personal terms. Intrinsic rewards facilitate the development of organizational commitment.

Key issue

Promotions, increased pay, recognition for a job well done or the opportunity to own a part of an organization can be motivators if there is a clear line of sight between what the employee is doing and the reward. Line of sight is that the employee perceives that there is a "real" linkage between his or her performance and the rewards received. In case of extrinsic rewards, organizations need to have systems that clearly tie rewards to desired performance. Intrinsic rewards are personal and come from the employees. However, organizations can influence intrinsic rewards and employees' perception of them by providing jobs that are challenging and by providing clear feedback on job performance.

Questions

1. Describe Evaluation of Performance. Explain with suitable examples the methods of Performance Evaluation. Also describe Performance Evaluation feedback
2. State the three approaches of administering rewards in the organization. What are the four aspects of rewarding employees?. Describe the relationship of Types of Rewards in the Workplace with (1)Membership and seniority of employees (2)Job status (3)Competencies (4)Performance.
3. Describe a model of Individual rewards. State with examples the different ways of rewarding employees in the organization. State the Innovative reward system in the organization.
4. Rewards Affect Organizational concerns-Explain.

Chapter Eleven

Managing misbehaviour

Objectives:

To develop an understanding of:

- The emergence in Management of the study of misbehaviour
- Selected misbehaviours

Defining misbehaviour

In the academic discipline of OB Misbehaviour is said to involve: ...any intentional action by member/s of organisation/s that defies and violates (a) shared organisational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, mores and standards of proper conduct (Vardi and Wiener, 1996: 153).

Vardi and Wiener subdivide misbehaviour into three categories – to benefit the self, to benefit the member's employing organisation as a whole, and, inflict damage. Subsequent work by Vardi and Weitz (2004) reiterates the same definition and categorisation. Other OB theorists with a specific interest in misbehaviour, such as Sagie et al (2003: 153), believe it to be equated with 'dysfunctional attitudes', or, 'the kind of organisational behaviour that can be expected when normative work values are not a deciding factor'. Acts not considered to be misbehaviour include accidental damage, human error, accidents and slip-ups. Broadly, OB theorists take a functional approach to misbehaviour and see consciously breaking and violating formal company rules and regulations to be management practitioners. Misbehaviour in this sense is also said to be about breaching broader societal norms or moral order.

In industrial sociology, however, Ackroyd and Thompson (1999: 2) borrow Sprouse's (1992:3) definition of sabotage – anything you do at work you are not supposed to do – to define misbehaviour, although questions remain about how useful this definition is. Further comments by Ackroyd and Thompson leads to a portrayal of misbehaviour as a range of conflicts between employer and employee concerning time, product, work and identity. The conflicts, in turn, are defined by levels of intensity that range from commitment to hostility. Such conflicts usually involve employees seeking to carve out of autonomy in the face of confining or working practices. Excluded acts include whistleblowing and serious organisational fraud. More recently, Thompson and Newsome (2004) likened misbehaviour to anything other than organised and conscious collective action by labour as a wider class agent. A further definition is presented by Watson (2003) who outlines what he calls organisational mischief: [Organisational mischief involves] [a]ctivities occurring within the workplace that (a) according to official

structure, culture and rules of the organisation, 'should not happen', and (b) contain an element of challenge to the dominant modes of operating or to dominant interests in the organisation (2003: 230).

Samples of misbehaviour at work

Arson, Blackmail, Bribery, Bullying, Cheating, Discrimination, Dishonesty, Espionage, Fraud, Incivility, Intimidation, Kickbacks, Lying, Misinformation, Privacy violation, Revenge, Sabotage, Sexual harassment, Substance abuse, Theft, Threats, Whistle blowing, Withholding information. Four types of antecedents to misbehavior: individual, job, group, and organizational.

A model of Organizational Misbehaviour adapted from Yoav Vardi and Ely Weitz, Misbehaviour in Organizations (Mahwah, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2004), p 251, states the following:

The antecedent conditions A are the characteristics of (a) individual like values, attitudes, personality, emotion, stress (b) job like task identity, task significance, task variety, emotion, stress (c) Organizational like strategy, goal, culture, history, systems, ethics (d) group like norm development, cohesiveness and leadership.

The mediators B are (a) normative force like organizational pressure and expectations and instrumental force like personal interest and belief which together determines the intention to misbehave and (b) management interventions in terms of focus on antecedents like selection, education and training and focus on outcomes like sanctions, suspensions, EAPs, termination.

Management Interventions

Management interventions are the actions taken by managers (representing the organization) to prevent, control, or respond to harmful misbehavior. The figure displays three specific points for management intervention: A, B, and C. At "A" management can carefully screen and refuse to hire "risky" individuals. Management also can intervene at the other antecedent points - Job, group, and organizational. The problem with interventions at these points is that the person is already employed. The most efficient intervention point is during the pre employment phase.

Management intervention at "B" requires affecting the normative force, as well as the instrumental force. The goal of this intervention point is to reduce the possibility of a job, group, or organizational antecedent triggering misbehavior. For example, some organizations use mentor programs to provide a role model of proper (normative) attitudes and behavior and communicate-through mentor-mentee discussion consequences of misbehaving (instrumental).

The attention of an intervention at "C" shifts from prevention to deterrence. The manager works to reduce the possibility of the intention to misbehave. A member of a team that values being a part of the unit may learn that misbehavior could mean being transferred to another unit. She may decide that staying with the preferred unit is important and elect to behave properly. The threat of a transfer may be powerful enough to evoke a change in behavior plans.

These intervention points offer managers different opportunities and challenges. If properly executed, that can possibly reduce the consequences or costs of misbehavior.

The outcome C are the different forms of interpersonal (sexual harassment, violence, discrimination, bullying), intrapersonal (substance abuse, fraud), performance (cyberslacking, social loafing, absenteeism), property (theft, sabotage, espionage) and political misbehavior (impression management, favouritism)

These outcomes have a cost D in terms of (a) financial cost like reduced productivity, law suits, loss of image and (b) social cost like mental and physical injuries and job satisfaction. The financial and social cost influence each other and in turn have an effect on management interventions and antecedents of misbehavior.

Selected Misbehaviours

Sexual harassment is a form of aggression and unethical behavior. This misbehavior takes the form of unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when (a) submission to or rejection of such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (b) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting that individual, or (c) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment.

Aggression and Violence The word aggression is used to describe many forms of behavior. Aggression at work is the effort of an individual to inflict harm on others with whom person has worked for or currently works for or on the organization itself. The attempt to bring harm is intentional and includes psychological as well as physical injury. Buss categorized aggression along physical, verbal, active, passive, direct and indirect dimensions. Physical forms of aggression could involve an attack with fists, pushing, slapping, or a weapon. Verbal aggression is inflicted by words, gossip, or innuendo. Active aggression brings harm through a specific behavior, while passive aggression is accomplished through the withholding of something desired (e.g., deserved praise, information, resources).

The direct form of aggression is found when the aggressor delivers harm personally. In indirect aggression another person produces the harm. The Buss framework addresses interpersonal forms of aggression. The fact presented by Buss is that the aggressor intends to inflict harm on another person or organization.

Physical-Verbal dimension	Active-Passive Dimension		Direct-Indirect Dimension
		Direct	Indirect
Physical	Active	(Cell 1) Homicide Assault Sexual assault Dirty looks Interrupting others Obscene gestures	(Cell 2) Theft Sabotage Defacing property Consuming needed resources
	Passive	(Cell3) Intentional work slowdowns Refusing to provide needed resources Leaving area when target enters Preventing target from expressing self	(Cell 4) Showing up late for meetings Delaying work to make target look bad Failing to protect the target's welfare Causing others to delay action
Verbal	Active	(Cell 5) Threats Yelling Sexual harassment Insults and sarcasm Flaunting status	(Cell 6) Spreading rumors Whistle-blowing Talking behind target's back Belittling opinions

		Unfair performance evaluation	Attacking protege Transmitting damaging information
	Passive	(Cell7) Failing to return phone calls Giving target the silent treatment Damning with faint praise Refusing target's request	(Cell 8) Failing to transmit information Failing to deny false rumors Failing to defend target Failing to warn of impending danger

Bullying is repeated actions that are directed to another worker which are unwanted which may be done deliberately or unconsciously but cause humiliation. Researchers have found that many victims perceive envy as the reason for the hostility directed at them; they also have inadequate coping skills, are introverted, and have low self-esteem. Other researchers have found that overachievers are bullied more frequently than average performers.

Workplace Incivility involves acting rudely, discourteously, or in a demeaning manner toward others. It is on the low end of the continuum of abuse. Incivility is not violence or harassment, but it is a lack of respect for others. Incivility appears to be on the increase both outside and inside the workplace. It is important for individuals that are interacting and working together to conduct themselves in a civil way. It is also important for employees to treat customers or external individuals interacting with an organization with respect. Being civil or polite with regard to others in an organization is preferred and constitutes organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Incivility has taken on a vast number of behaviors, such as condescending remarks, being disruptive in meetings, ignoring others, insulting another person, being abrupt, giving negative eye contact, not answering when asked a question, refusing to say "thank you" or "please," interrupting another person who is speaking, and sending flaming e-mails. Some of the reasons for incivility are alienation from work, fear of future, sheer workload etc.

Fraud is defined as the intentional act of deceiving or misrepresenting in order to induce another individual or group to give up something of value. Fraud is a combination of motive and opportunity. The opportunity to commit fraud is typically through internal control systems. If the proper checks and balances exist, it is more difficult to defraud an organization. To deter opportunity, there should be a clear division of responsibility. If one person or group controls the financial and accounting books and the assets, the ability to behave fraudulently is more.

The use of internal controls is fine, but they can be overcome by strongly motivated people. Ensuring fairness, good working conditions, and sound leadership will reduce employees' motivation to resort to fraud. The disgruntled, dissatisfied, and hopeless employee is a breeding ground for creating fraudulent schemes.

Substance Abuse at Work Substance abuse among workers leads to lost productivity, premature and preventable health problems, increased workers' compensation claims, and behavioral problems.

A survey of full-time workers who reported illicit drug use were more likely than nondrug users to have worked for three or more employers in the past year, taken unexcused absences from work, and either voluntarily left an employer or been terminated in the past year.

Substances are not only addictive, but they may be dangerous to nonusers. Assembly line workers, transportation workers (e.g., drivers, pilots, ship captains), and various professionals (e.g., physicians, pharmacists) are singled out because of their impact on others for abusing illicit drugs on the job.

Cyberslacking is the use of the Internet for personal reasons is a form of virtual goldbricking or "cyberslacking." This behavior costs organizations in terms of time and energy devoted to non-organization matters. Personal cyberslacking also can place a burden on organization's computer network. Employees who access pornography sites in the office also may contribute inordinately to sexual harassment behaviors.

Sabotage is an extreme form of workplace violence instituted to disrupt, destroy, or damage equipment, data, or a work area. Employee sabotage can range from simple, prank-like behaviors to vandalism to computer bombs. Angry covertly and overtly resort to sabotage to get even, to correct a perceived wrong, to take revenge, or to make a statement to others. Three types of sabotage targets exist: people, equipment, and operations. In sabotaging people the objective is to destroy the person's career, progress, reputation, or work area. The sabotage of equipment or operations involves physically destroying something. The use of sabotage is usually the method of choice of a person who is bored and not challenged, who believes that something in their work history was very unfair to them, or who wants to gain an advantage over a colleague.

Theft is defined as the unauthorized taking, consuming, or transferring of money or goods owned by the organization. This definition of theft should indicate that stealing is not limited to tangible property. Data, information, and intellectual property can and are stolen as well. Why do employees steal anything from their employers? This is a difficult question to answer. Some believe that people steal because they have an opportunity to do so. This perspective offers the employer choice of eliminating opportunities (e.g., impose inventory control systems, lock up merchandise, and' surveillance cameras). However, the elimination of all opportunities is problematic and not likely. The individuals who have the same opportunities as thieves and never steal are subjected to the same controls and surveillance. Another perspective focuses on individual differences. Employee theft is assumed to be better controlled at the entry point when a person is selected for employment.

The STEAL Model

Greenberg and associates believe that the motives underlying theft misbehavior are complex. These searchers categorize the motives behind theft as being either prosocial (helpful) or antisocial (harmful). The term STEAL refers to four motives behind theft behavior-S(upport), T(hwart), E(ven the score) and A(pprova)L. These four motives and the intentions of the person are presented below.

Approach Motive- Most managers work to prevent theft. However, in some cases there is an unwritten of conduct that permits (approves) some theft. For example, some managers allow observed theft or may participate in the stealing. Some research has found that managers permit the theft as a part of the worker's reward.

Support Motive -A work group with deviant norms about theft can have a powerful influence on theft behavior. The group can, through behaviors, display what, when, and where to steal. The group establishes the plan, shows how to execute it, and rewards participating members. The colleagues participating in the thefts are considered members in good standing.

The art of stealing and participating displays an allegiance to the group. By being recognized as a good group member, the thief has his or her stealing behavior reinforced. Stealing is supported by the group and more stealing occurs. The thief under this type of support considers the stealing behavior as accepted and good,

Even the Score Motive- An antisocial behavior is designed to inflict some form of harm on the organization. Evening the score is a way of attempting to harm an organization for something it has done (e.g.,_rejected a request, didn't promote, reprimanded for not completing a job on time). Stealing is an attempt to bring about a balance in the mind of an aggrieved employee who wants to get even.

Thwart Motive-The thwart motive is proposed to oppose group norms that regulate theft. The rationale is to harm the employer by striking out at members of one's work group. It is an attempt to thwart the group's attempt to control theft. By challenging group norms, a person that steals is likely to create strong pressure. This pressure can involve isolation, being chastised, having work flow disrupted, or being rudely treated. Responses from the challenged group members may be sullen or severe.

Greenberg offers suggestions that focus on managerial actions that may be taken in an attempt to weaken STEAL motives. He recommends rotating group membership, communicating the personal costs of theft and treating employees equitably. The STEAL model provides a reasonable, but not complete, heuristic framework for helping managers cope with theft. There is no complete solution to employee theft. Recognizing the problem, attempting to understand the motives behind theft behavior, establishing a culture of trust and respect, and using fair, predictive selection tools to minimize the entry of those candidates with poor integrity and high dishonesty tendencies are some of the actions that can legally be taken by managers

Questions

1. Define misbehaviour. Describe different misbehaviours in the organization with suitable examples
2. Write short notes on (a) aggression and violence (b) Theft with special reference to STEAL model.

Chapter Twelve

Stress and Counseling

Objective

To develop an understanding of:

Stress

Stress model

Work stressors

Stress outcomes

Stress moderators

Stress prevention and management

Employee counseling

Types of counseling

I. **What is stress?**

- Stress – The mental and physical response of our bodies to the changes and challenges in our lives.
- Stressor – Any physical, social, or psychological event or condition that causes the body to adjust to a specific situation.
- Homeostasis – A level of functioning in which the body's systems operate smoothly and maintain equilibrium

Stress definitions.

1. Stimulus definition:

Treats stress as some characteristic, event, or situation in the environment that in some way results in a potentially disruptive consequence. It represents an "engineering" definition of stress, borrowed from the physical sciences. The response is "strain."

2. Response definition:

Treats stress as a response to a stimulus, called a stressor, or a potentially harmful or threatening external event or situation. Stress results from the unique interaction between an environmental stimulus and the individual's predisposition to respond in a particular way.

3. Comprehensive definition:

An adaptive response moderated by individual differences, that is a consequence of any action, situation, or event that places special demands on a person. It includes the person's response and the stimulus conditions. Stress results from dealing with something that places "special," or unusual demands on an individual.

Potential stressors—not all stressors will always place the same demands on all people. To result in stress, an action, situation, or event must be perceived by the individual as the source of threat, challenge, or harm. If there are no perceived consequences, there is no stress.

Factors that determine whether 'what an individual experiences' is likely to result in stress are:

- i. Importance—how significant the event is to the individual.
- ii. Uncertainty—lack of clarity about what will happen.
- iii. Duration—the longer the demands are placed upon us, the more stressful the situation

General Adaptation Syndrome has got three phases:

- Alarm Phase
- Resistance Phase
- Exhaustion Phase

Alarm Phase: In this phase an alert is generated. In alarm phase the Cerebral cortex of the brain becomes active. Cerebral Cortex is the region of the brain that interprets the nature of events. Autonomic Nervous System (ANS) regulates bodily functions that we do not normally consciously control and Sympathetic Nervous System (SNS) energizes the body for "fight-or-flight" by signaling the release of hormones. Adrenal Gland releases Epinephrine and Cortisol. Endorphins helps in pain Relief

Resistance Phase

Parasympathetic Nervous System (PNS) slows all body systems stimulated by the stress response to normal levels of functioning and it is a return to homeostasis

Exhaustion Phase

- Depletion of Energy
- Short-Term Stress
- Long-Term Stress

Organizational Stress: A Model

Work stressors can come from the physical environment, the individual, the group, or the organization. The potential sources of stress are environmental factors like economic uncertainty, political uncertainty and technological change; organizational factors like task demands, role demands, interpersonal demands and personal factors like family problems, economic problems and personality. Moderated by individual variables like perception, job experience, social support, belief in locus of control, self efficacy and hostility the experience of work stress always produces some consequences. Potential stress consequences may be: a. Individual. b. Organizational. The individual consequences can be physiological symptoms like blood pressure, headache, heart disease, psychological symptoms like anxiety, depression, decrease in job satisfaction and behavioural outcomes like productivity, absenteeism and turnover.

Relationship between work stressors and stress is not necessarily direct. Stress moderators may influence or mediate stress relationships. Moderators are extremely important in understanding stress.

Stress prevention and management may impact organizational stress.

- a. Stress prevention—minimizes the occurrence of stress.
- b. Stress management—attempts to eliminate or minimize negative consequences of stress.

Work Stressors: Individual, Group, and Organizational

Stressors are actions situations, or events that place special demands on a person

Individual stressors—the most widely examined category of stressors.

1. Role conflict—the most widely examined individual stressor. It occurs when compliance by an individual to one set of expectations about the job is in conflict with compliance to another set of expectations. It can result from organizational policies or from other persons. Role conflict is linked to lower satisfaction and higher job-related tension. The greater the power or authority of the people sending conflicting messages the greater is the job dissatisfaction produced by role conflict.

Prevalent types of role conflict:

- i. Work and nonwork roles interfere with one another.

ii. Increases when both spouses in a family are employed, and one partner's career progress may be negatively affected by the other's progression.

2. Work Overload.

Quantitative overload—having too many things to do and too little time. Research studies show that it may cause biochemical changes (i.e., elevated blood cholesterol levels) Executives with quantitative overload have more medical problems. Relationship between stressors, stress, and disease may be curvilinear—underloaded and overloaded people are most at risk. Physiological changes may persist even after one has left a job with high workload demands.

3. Change—most pervasive individual stressor. Today we experience unprecedented levels of change. Within organizations, restructurings, new forms, mergers, acquisitions, "downsizings," renewed emphasis on teams and quality, all have intensified stress levels. Holmes and Rahe's research led to the development of the Social Readjustment Rating Scales (SRRS). The (SRRS) measures an individual's susceptibility to illness based on the life change events experiences in the last 12 months. Holmes and Rahe found individuals reporting "life-change units" at certain threshold levels within a limited time were more likely to experience a serious illness. Research does not strongly support the relationship between life change event scores and health problems. According to Kobasa, the relationship may be moderated by "hardiness," a personality characteristic. Hardy individuals believe they can control the events they encounter, are extremely committed to the activities in their lives and treat life changes as challenge. Hardiness buffers negative impact of life changes.

Group and organizational stressors.

Good relationships among the members of a work group are central to individual well-being. Participation can be a stressor as employees are asked to be a greater part of the decision process.

Intra and Intergroup Relations: Poor relations include low trust, low supportiveness and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with problems that confront an employee. Research shows that mistrust of the people one works with in a group is positively related to high role ambiguity, which leads to inadequate communications and low job satisfaction.

Several aspects of groups and group activity can be stressors:

- a. Norms and how they are enforced.
- b. Hierarchy.
- c. Group leadership.
- d. Intergroup differences in goals, perceptions, and demand for specialists.

Organizational factors: Organizational Politics can be a source of stress for many employees. Organizational culture, because of its distinct personality, can be a stressor. Lack of performance feedback, Inadequate career development opportunities and Downsizing can also lead to stress.

Organizational Role Stress

Inter-role distance. Conflicts may exist between two roles played by an individual. Goffman (1961) introduced the concept of role distance to describe how an individual may demonstrate that his or her identity is not fully defined by a role in an organization.

Role stagnation. People grow into the roles they occupy in an organization. As they advance in an organization, their roles may change, and they may feel the need for new challenges. In some cases, if an individual occupies a role for a long period of time, he or she may feel too secure to take on new roles and challenges. In other cases, especially during middle age and usually at middle-management levels, an individual may have fewer chances to advance in an organization. Job opportunities are fewer, and those jobs that are available take longer to master and old knowledge and methods become obsolete. Levinson (1973) and Constandse (1972) stated that many middle-aged, middle-management managers suffer from fear and disappointment in silent isolation

Role expectations conflict. Individuals develop expectations as a result of their socialization and identification with significant others, and there is usually some incompatibility between an individual's expectations of a role and the expectations of others

Personal inadequacy. An individual may sacrifice his or her own interests, preferences, and values for a job because he or she is afraid of being inadequate enough to fill the role.

Self-role conflict. Conflict often develops between employee's self-concepts and their expectations about their roles

Role erosion. Role erosion is likely to be experienced in an organization that is redefining roles and creating new roles. In these situations, people with not enough to do or not enough responsibility for a task experience as much stress as those with too much to do. People do not enjoy feeling underutilized (Beukel & Molleman, 2002).

Role overload. People experience role overload when they believe the expectations are too high for their role (Kahn et al., 1964). Kahn and Quinn (1970) suggested some conditions under which role overload is likely to occur: (a) in the absence of role integration, (b) in the absence of role power, (c) when large variations exist in expected output, and (d) when duties cannot be delegated. Marchall and Cooper (1979) categorized overload into quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative refers to having too much to do, and qualitative refers to work that is too difficult. A number of studies (Breslow & Buell, 1960; French & Caplan, 1970; Margolis, Kroes, & Quinn, 1974; Miller, 1969; Russek & Zohman, 1958) have shown that quantitative overload is significantly related to a number of symptoms of stress: alcohol abuse, absenteeism, low motivation, lowered self-esteem, and many physical ailments. The result of some studies (e.g., French, Rupper, & Mueller, 1965) showed that (for some occupations) qualitative overload is a significant source of stress and lowered self-esteem. French and Caplan (1973) summarized the

research by suggesting that qualitative and quantitative overload produce at least eight different symptoms of psychological and physical strain: (a) job dissatisfaction, (b) job tension, (c) lowered self-esteem, (d) paranoia, (e) embarrassment, (f) high cholesterol levels, (g) rapid heart rate, and (h) increased smoking.

Role isolation. People often believe that individuals occupying other roles are either psychologically near or distant. The main criterion of perceived role distance is frequency and ease of interaction. When relationships are strong, the role distance is considered low. When relationships are weak, the role distance can be measured in terms of the gap between desired and existing relationships. Kahn et al. (1964) and French and Caplan (1970) concluded that mistrust of coworkers is positively related to high role ambiguity and low job satisfaction.

Role ambiguity. When people are not clear about the expectations others have about them and their roles, whether due to poor feedback or poor understanding, they experience role ambiguity. Kahn and Quinn (1970) stated that role ambiguity may be related to activities, responsibilities, personal style, and norms. They suggested that role ambiguity is created by the actual expectations held by others, the expectations of the role occupant, and the expectations the role occupant receives and interprets in the light of prior information and experience. According to Kahn and Quinn, four types of roles are most likely to experience ambiguity: (a) roles new to an organization, (b) roles in expanding or contracting organizations, (c) roles in organizations exposed to frequent changes in demand, and (d) roles concerned with process.

Stress Outcomes

On performance

There is an inverted U shaped relationship between stress and job performance. An individual performs best under an optimum or moderate level of stress and performance drops down both at low and high level of stress.

Individual outcomes.

Psychological consequences—such as anxiety, frustration, apathy, lowered self-esteem, aggression, and depression. According to the National Mental Health Association, the cost of depression is \$43 million a year in medical bills, lost productivity, and absenteeism.

Cognitive effects—such as inability to make sound decisions, poor concentration and short attention span.

Behavioral effects—such as alcoholism, drug abuse, accident proneness, and excessive eating and smoking.

Physiological effects—as sweating, pupil dilation, increased heart rate and blood pressure are most dysfunctional because they can in turn contribute to physical illness.

Coronary Heart Disease (CHD)—job and life stress accounts for about 75 percent of the incidence of CHD. CHD accounts for about two-fifths of all deaths in the U.S. each year.

Burnout—a psychological process brought about by unrelieved work stress that results in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and feelings of decreased accomplishment. It tends to be particularly likely among individuals whose jobs require much contact with other people. A high degree of involvement in, identification with, or commitment to one's job or profession is a prerequisite to burnout. People with lower job commitments are less likely to burn out.

Ways in which organizations contribute to burnout:

- i. High levels of work overload.
- ii. Dead-end jobs.
- iii. Excessive red tape and paperwork.
- iv. Poor communication and feedback, especially about job performance.
- v. Role conflict and ambiguity.
- vi. Difficult interpersonal relationships.
- vii. Reward systems that are not contingent on performance.

Organizational consequences.

Hospital and medical costs, lost work time, turnover, sabotage, and other variables contribute to stress costs. It's estimated that stress costs U.S. society about \$150 billion a year (in reduced operating effectiveness).

Stress Moderators

Moderators in the stress model are variables that intensify or weaken the relationship between stress, stressors, and consequences.

Personality facets: Personality is a relatively stable set of characteristics, temperaments, and tendencies that shape the similarities and differences, or facets, in individuals' behavior.

Facets which moderate stress is long, but includes:

- a. Tolerance for ambiguity—extent to which an individual is comfortable with unstructured or ambiguous situations.

b. Locus of control—beliefs individuals have regarding where control over their lives resides.

i. Internals—people who perceive themselves to be in control of events that shape their lives.

ii. Externals—people who feel control is external to them.

iii. Internals are more likely to experience stress they are unable to exercise the control they believe they should.

iv. Externals will be more stress in situations in which they do have the capability to exercise some control over what is happening.

c. Self-esteem—degree of confidence in ones abilities and the way one feels about oneself. It plays a pervasive role in moderating stress. It may moderate the perception of stressors and the consequences of stress.

Type A Behavior Pattern—Discovered by cardiologist researchers Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman in the 1950s. A pattern of behavior or traits that is significantly linked to CHD. The pattern is comprised of several characteristics including a struggle to complete things very quickly; aggressiveness; ambitiousness and competitiveness; fast, explosive speech; impatience; preoccupation with deadlines; and a struggle with people, things, and events.

Type B individuals may have drive and work hard but work at a steadier pace.

According to much research TABP is a significant predictor of CHD (some research indicates that Type A's run twice the risk of incurring CHD as Type B's; however more research is needed). Recent research indicates that not all aspects of behavior are equally associated with negative consequences: e.g., hostility is the Type A subcomponent most like to lead to CHD. Overall, managers attempting to manage stress should include TABP in their assessments.

Social support—the comfort, assistance, or information that an individual receives via contacts with others (e.g., a co-worker listening to a friend who failed to get a promotion). Social support buffers individuals from the negative effects of stressors.

Stress Prevention and Management

Stress prevention vs. stress management:

Stress prevention—focuses on controlling or eliminating stressors that might provoke the stress response.

Stress management—suggests procedures for helping individuals cope effectively with or reduce stress already being experienced.

Some of the targeted, corrective programs include:

- Training programs for managing and coping with stress
- Redesigning work
- Changes in management style
- More flexible work hours
- Better communication and team-building
- Better feedback

Maximizing person-environment fit.

Person-environment fit (P-E fit) approach focuses on two dimensions of fit:

- a. Extent to which work provides formal and informal rewards that meet or match the person's needs. (E.g., job provides too little money or job security to meet the individual's needs.)
- b. Extent to which the employee's skills, abilities, and experience match the demands and requirements of the employer.

Strategies for maximize P-E fit:

- a. Recruitment and selection programs.
 - i. Match the right people with requisite skills, knowledge, experience, and abilities for the job.
 - ii. Link personal predispositions to relevant aspects of the work environment.
- b. Socialization—process by which the individual learns and internalizes the values, expected behaviors, and social knowledge that are linked to being an effective member.

Effective job design and on-going redesign efforts.

Well-designed reward systems, communication processes, and leadership.

Organizational stress prevention and management programs.

Programs are generally comprised of two types:

- a. **Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs):**
 - i. Designed to deal with a wide range of stress-related problems, both work and non-work related.
 - ii. Tend to be based on the traditional medical approach to treatment.

Diagnosis of the employee's problem.

Treatment via counseling or supportive therapy.

Screening—periodically examining employees in high stress jobs to detect early problems.

Prevention—via education and persuasion.

- iii. May be company-run programs or external efforts.
- iv. Usually staffed by a psychologist, a physician, and counselors.
- v. Focuses on individual intervention.
- vi. Offers biofeedback, relaxation training, and counseling.
- vii. Success depends on employees trusting:

On getting real help.

Confidentiality.

Use carries no negative job implications.

b. Wellness programs.

It focus on employee's overall physical and mental health. It includes a variety of activities designed to identify and help prevent or correct specific health problems (e.g., smoking).

Importance of wellness programs in stress management:

Stress prevention and management is often a component of wellness programs. Many concerns of wellness programs are stress related. Organizations are interested in healthier, more productive and effective employees, which wellness programs help create. Stress cannot be separated from health issues. Ensuring program success requires: a. Top-management support. b. Union support. c. Long-term commitment. d. Extensive employee involvement. e. Clearly stated objectives. f. Employees freely participate. g. Confidentiality.

Individual Approaches to Stress Prevention and Management

- 1. Cognitive Techniques—involves teaching people to change the underlying expectations, beliefs, and assumptions which trigger emotional responses.
- 2. Relaxation—reduced arousal level, bringing about calmer states.
- 3. Meditation.

4. Biofeedback—involves training individuals to detect, monitor and control changes in the body (temperature, heart rate).

Employee Counseling at Workplace

Many firms today realize the importance of attracting and retaining highly skilled, quality employees as a necessary component of their competitive advantage. One of the reasons that a quality workforce along with innovative tools for attracting and retaining has become so important is because previous sources of competitive advantage have become less important overtime.

For example, previously, a firm's success was attributed to an emphasis on product and process technology, access to financial markets, developing economies of scale & learning curves, patents, protected and regulated markets & individual attractiveness. Recently, however, some scholars have noted that these traditional sources of success are less important than in the past and emphasize that the selection and management of a quality workforce has become an increasingly critical factor to organizational success. Today, HR practitioners are busy developing new and innovative tools to attract and retain quality workforce.

One such tool that soon is likely to gain popularity in the corporate world is Employee Counseling. Employee Counseling is a service offered by companies to their employees. Organizations that care for their employees are perceived as more meaningful and purposeful. Every organization has economic and social goals. Here, it is worthwhile to note some observations made by the Chairman of Infosys in this regard. He states, "The task of leadership is to make people believe in themselves, the organization, in the aggressive targets the organization sets. Belief comes from trust: the trust that this organization isn't about making one set of stakeholders better off; it is about making every one of us better off...."

A firm may gain competitive advantages from Employee Counseling activities especially if its reputation and image is valuable, rare and not easily imitated. Employee Counseling therefore is a very powerful tool in the hands of companies in attracting and retaining quality workforce.

Organisations have realized the importance of having a stress-free yet motivated and capable workforce. Therefore, many companies have integrated the counseling services in their organisations and making it a part of their culture. Organisations are offering the service of employee counseling to its employees.

What is Counseling?

Counseling is a process through which one person helps another by purposeful conversation in an

understanding atmosphere. It seeks to establish a helping relationship in which the one counseled can express their thoughts and feelings in such a way as to clarify their own situation, come to terms with some new experience, see their difficulty more objectively, and so face their problem with less anxiety and tension. Its basic purpose is to assist the individual to make their own decision from among the choices available to them. (British Association for Counseling, Rugby 1989) Although Counseling is known by many names like 'therapy' or 'helping' it is by and large, an attempt to encourage change. The counselee's problems could be so complex that it might be difficult to see any system of help as an elegant solution. But, Counseling has shown some effectiveness over the years, as a process of helping people come through with their troubles.

Counseling is a process of helping people to learn how to solve certain interpersonal, emotional and decision problems. Counsellors help their counsees to 'learn'. The criterion for success in any Counseling is real changes in behaviour on the part of the counselee. Counsellors are concerned that their counsees become independent problem solvers. Continued dependence on the counsellor as well as others is discouraged. Counsellors are concerned with habit changes that increase peoples' satisfaction with themselves. It could be anything from helping people choose a career option, becoming appropriately assertive or communicating more harmoniously with team members. Largely, Counseling has been a 'remedial approach'. But recently there has been a slight change in emphasis, from remedial to 'preventive'.

What is Employee Counseling?

Employee Counseling can be explained as providing help and support to the employees to face and sail through the difficult times in life. At many points of time in life or career people come across some problems either in their work or personal life when it starts influencing and affecting their performance and, increasing the stress levels of the individual. Counseling is guiding, consoling, advising and sharing and helping to resolve their problems whenever the need arises. Counseling is discussion of an employee's problem that usually has an emotional content to it, in order to help the employee cope with the situation better. Counseling seeks to improve employee's mental health. People feel comfortable about themselves and about other people and are able to meet the demands of life when they are in good mental health.

Technically, Psychological Counseling, a form of Counseling is used by the experts to analyze the work related performance and behaviour of the employees to help them cope with it, resolve the conflicts and tribulations and re-enforce the desired results.

Ingredients of Counseling:

Counseling of staff is becoming an essential function of the managers. The organisation can either take the help of experienced employees or expert, professional counselor to take up the Counseling activities. Increasing complexities in the lives of the employees need to address various aspects like:

Performance Counseling: Ideally, the need for employee counseling arises when the employee shows signs of declining performance, being stressed in office-hours, bad decision-making etc. In such situations, Counseling is one of the best ways to deal with them. It should cover all the aspects related to the employee performance like the targets, employee's responsibilities, problems faced, employee aspirations, inter-personal relationships at the workplace, et al.

Personal and Family Wellbeing: Families and friends are an important and inseparable part of the employee's life. Many a times, employees carry the baggage of personal problems to their workplaces, which in turn affects their performance adversely. Therefore, the counselor needs to strike a comfort level with the employees and, counseling sessions involving their families can help to resolve their problems and getting them back to work- all fresh and enthusiastic.

Other Problems : Other problems can range from work-life balance to health problems. Counseling helps to identify the problem and help him / her to deal with the situation in a better way.

Need of Counseling at workplace

An employee should be counseled when he or she has problems that affect job performance. Apart from their personal problems like various family problems, health problems, career problems, etc, there are various reasons which can create stress for the employees at the workplace like unrealistic targets or work-load, constant pressure to meet the deadlines, career problems, responsibility and accountability, conflicts or bad inter-personal relations with superiors and subordinates, problems in adjusting to the organizational culture. "HR initiatives only look at the organizational perspective, but the well being of the workforce depends just as much on the individual's well being. And stress, from home or from the routine of work affects not just the individual, but the workplace in turn," says Dr Samir Parikh, consultant psychiatrist at Max Healthcare.

Some signs of a troubled employee include :

- Sudden change of behavior
- Preoccupation
- Irritability
- Increased accidents
- Increased fatigue
- Excessive drinking
- Reduced production
- Waste
- Difficulty in absorbing training

Counseling at workplace is a way of the organisation to care about its employees. Counseling helps the employee to share and look at his problems from a new perspective, help himself and to face and deal

with the problems in a better way. Counseling is a process of helping an individual to help himself. Counseling, basically aims at helping individuals take charge of their lives. For this, individuals need two types of skills: ability to make decisions wisely and altering one's own behaviour to yield desirable consequences. A counsellor's job, then, becomes one of arranging appropriate learning experiences so that people develop these skills.

Hurdles faced for counseling at workplace

The biggest bottleneck in employee counseling at the workplace is the lack of trust on the employee's part to believe in the organisation or his superior to share and understand his problems. Also, the confidentiality that the counselor won't disclose his personal problems or issues to others in the organisation. Time, effort and resources required on the part of the organisation are a constraint. For introducing and sustaining employee counseling system at workplace, the following four steps prove handy – creating awareness, educating the employees, then motivating them and finally all this will lead to (expected or required) actions.

Benefits of Counseling

According to Eisenberg & Delaney, the aims of Counseling are as follows:

1. Understanding self
2. Making impersonal decisions
3. Setting achievable goals which enhance growth
4. Planning in the present to bring about desired future
5. Effective solutions to personal and interpersonal problems.
6. Coping with difficult situations
7. Controlling self defeating emotions
8. Acquiring effective transaction skills.
9. Acquiring 'positive self-regard' and a sense of optimism about one's own ability to satisfy one's basic needs.

Basic requisites of employee Counseling

Sometimes the problems in the employee are first recognized by the peers and peers can take an active role in counseling the employee so that this stress is relieved or may make referrals to the counseling centre if the case of the employee is serious and requires professional intervention,

Two skills form the basic foundation for peer counseling. They are active listening and Messaging.

Active Listening

Active listening is a listening process that forces you, the listener, into an active role. Active listening is more than merely hearing or listening. Rather, it is a conglomerate of specific behavior that directs your peer counseling session towards a successful conclusion. Active listening is divided into two forms of behavior, verbal and non-verbal.

Non-verbal behavior

Non verbal behavior is a natural and essential part of communication. Actually, some researchers say that up to 80% of all communication is non-verbal. The fact that you were chosen to become a RA proves that you already possess, perhaps unconsciously, the ability to read other people's body language as well as control your own. Yet in order to be an effective peer counselor, you will have to learn to consciously utilize and read non-verbal behavior. Although in a peer counseling session, your resident will be the main focus of your attention, it is wise to periodically monitor your own behavior. This will not detract from the counseling session, but rather enhance it. Here are some rules of thumb.

Active non-verbal behaviors include:

- making eye contact
- maintaining an interested facial expression
- nodding
- facing the other person
- maintaining an open position (i.e.. not crossing legs and arms)
- maintaining an attentive posture
- keeping a close proximity
- Active non-verbal behaviors do not include:
- checking your watch
- fidgeting
- sighing
- foot tapping
- listening to loud music or other conversations

Verbal Behavior

The verbal behavior component of active listening is more complex than the non-verbal component. Verbal active listening is comprised of open-ended questions and reflection.

Open-ended Questions

Simply put, open-ended questions are questions that cannot be answered with a "yes" or "no." These types of questions moving a peer counseling session forward.

Reflection

Reflection is the process of acting like a verbal mirror. Rephrasing someone's thoughts help clarify issues and usually have a calming effect on the situation. Effective reflection is actually quite complicated for in order to reflect well, you must capture the speaker's content and emotion. This is a skill that takes a great deal of practice and, at first, may feel unnatural. However, mastering this skill will make you a very successful peer counselor.

"I Messages"

"I Messages are a clear assertive and non-threatening way of telling another person how you feel, when something happens and why" (DeBenedetti, 1992). As a RA you will probably find them most useful when dealing with conflict, especially when you are thrust into the role of mediator. I messages usually conform to the following format .

"I feel . . ." State how you feel

"When . . ." State the problem

"Because . . ." State why

Example:

"I feel disappointed when you cancel our plans at the last minute, because I look forward to the time we spend together."

is much better than . . .

"You are so irresponsible and unorganized, you always cancel our plans last minute."

"I messages" DO:

- focus on the present conflict
- speak about yourself
- describe your needs

"I messages" DO NOT:

- blame
- criticize
- name call
- bring up past grievances
- offer solutions

- assume the other person knows how you feel
- accuse
- attack

Making a Referral

Making a referral is an important skill. It is useful for all types of peer counseling sessions.

"I don't know what they could do."

"Give them a try--you've got nothing to lose."

"I want to deal with the problem myself."

"You will have to. The counselor won't deal with it for you."

"I don't want anyone to know."

"Your conversations with anyone in the Counseling Center are confidential. You don't even have to give your name. No one will tell me, or your parents, or professors, or deans or anyone without your permission."

"I hate to call to make an appointment."

"Would you like me to call?" (make the call with the student there)"

"I feel funny about going in there and talking to a stranger."

"I know they are very friendly. If you'd like, I'll come along with you for your first appointment."

Skills of a counselor

Employee Counseling needs to be tackled carefully, both on the part of the organization and the counselor. The Counseling can turn into a sensitive series of events for the employee and the organisation; therefore, the counselor should be either a professional or an experienced, mature employee.

Types of counseling processes generally followed are: Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Therapy; Carl Roger's Client Centered Therapy; Carkhuff Model of Personal Counseling; Gestalt approach to Counseling; Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy by Albert Ellis.

Freud's Psychoanalytic Therapy is based on the power of the unconscious mind. According to Freud, who is the Father of Psychology the human mind is like an iceberg. As only the tip of the iceberg is seen by the naked eye so is only one tenth of the human mind known to us. Psychoanalytic therapy taps this semi and unconscious mind through different techniques like dream analysis, etc. (should be tried only by someone who is professionally trained for it)

It was Carl Roger who supported a view that counselees should be addressed as 'clients' and unlike Freud's psychoanalytic therapy where a counselee plays a passive role, in Client centered therapy the client plays a more active role as compared to the counselor. Hence the name Client Centered Therapy".

Carkhuff model of personal counseling is an offshoot of Roger's Client Centered Therapy. It focuses on attending, responding, personalizing and initiating action as indispensable counselor skills.

Gestalt approach to counseling focuses on looking at human beings from a 'holistic' perspective. The word 'gestalt' means "a whole being".

REBT is a practical, action-oriented approach to coping with problems and enhancing personal growth. REBT places a good deal of its focus on the present: on currently-held attitudes, painful emotions and maladaptive behaviors that can sabotage a fuller experience of life. REBT then provides a variety of methods to help people reformulate their dysfunctional beliefs into more sensible, realistic and helpful ones by employing the powerful REBT technique called "disputing." Ultimately, REBT helps people to develop a philosophy and approach to living that can increase their effectiveness and happiness at work, in living successfully with others, in parenting and educational settings, in making our community and environment healthier, and in enhancing their own health and personal welfare.

REBT is based on a few simple principles having profound implications:

1. You are responsible for your own emotions and actions,
2. Your harmful emotions and dysfunctional behaviors are the product of your irrational thinking,
3. You can learn more realistic views and, with practice, make them a part of you,
4. You'll experience a deeper acceptance of yourself and greater satisfactions in life by developing a reality-based perspective.

REBT distinguishes clearly between two very different types of difficulties: practical problems and emotional problems. Your flawed behavior, unfair treatment by others, and undesirable situations, represent practical problems. Regrettably, your human tendency is to upset yourself about these practical problems, thereby unnecessarily creating a second order of problems--emotional suffering.

Based on one or a combination of the above processes and according to the need of the counselee the counselor develops his/her own process of counseling.

The set of attitudes required for an efficient counselor are:

- Respect i.e. High esteem for human dignity, recognition of a person's freedom & rights and faith in

human potential to grow.

- Sincerity, authenticity.
- Understanding
- Non-judgmental approach towards the counselee.

The set of skills required for an efficient counselor are:

- Decency skills i.e. social etiquettes, warm manners
- Excellent communication skills which also include non-verbal communication and listening skills
- Objectivity
- Maintaining confidentiality
- Empathy

Through these attitudes and skills the counselor creates a positive feeling in the counselee, and a hope that the counselor will be of some help. The establishment of this rapport marks the start of treatment.

There are seven core techniques given by Rogers, Carkheff and Patterson, which assist the counselor to apply appropriate core Counseling conditions. They are as follows:

Structuring

Active Listening

Silence

Responding

Reflection

Questioning

Interpretation

Employee Counseling — Do's and Don'ts

Employee counseling can be one of the most difficult aspects of being a good manager. Since employees can come to you with a variety of different questions, needs, etc, it is important to follow some key guidelines to ensure your employee counseling sessions are productive and bring resolution to any issues at hand.

DO counsel employees behind closed doors. It's important that the employee is able to speak freely without fear that someone will hear the conversation.

DO keep all conversations confidential. Provided the conversation is not one in which the employee has indicated that they may harm another individual or themselves, it is critical that the employee can trust that your conversation will be kept private.

DO take notes. This will help you effectively address questions or concerns the employee may have objectively, and will also ensure you don't forget anything that was said during your discussion.

DO remain objective. Regardless of your relationship with the employee, it is critical that you remain objective toward the employee and their situation. (Again, taking notes helps with this) You can empathize with the employee's situation while remaining objective in your response.

DO support positive behavior. When you are counseling an employee for behavioral reasons, make sure you support positive behaviors before addressing any behaviors that are unproductive. This will help the employee feel good about themselves while understanding that there area in which they may need work.

DON'T record your conversation. It is against the law to record conversations without prior written consent from your employee. Taking notes is legal, but recording conversations is not.

DON'T repeat what is said. Make sure that you do not share your discussion with co-workers. This will damage your reputation as a manager and could potentially put the employee at risk.

DON'T get angry. If you are providing behavioral counseling, it is important that you remain calm and stick to the subject at hand. Do not get angry or show emotion, as it will minimize your position as a manager and a leader within your company.

DON'T gossip. If an employee has come to your office to "chat" about someone else in the office, politely inform them that you don't participate in such activities and would appreciate it if they would not as well. Establishing this guideline is very important to ensure success, especially early in the working relationship.

DON'T make empty promises. If you promise to do something to help them, then do it. If not, the employee will not forget the empty promises. Make sure you commit your promises to paper, whatever they might be. This will ensure you are committed to helping the employee through their situation quickly and effectively.

Ethics for counseling and psychotherapy

Values of counseling and psychotherapy

The fundamental values of counseling and psychotherapy include a commitment to:

- Respecting human rights and dignity
- Ensuring the integrity of practitioner-client relationships
- Enhancing the quality of professional knowledge and its application
- Alleviating personal distress and suffering
- Fostering a sense of self that is meaningful to the person(s) concerned
- Increasing personal effectiveness

- Enhancing the quality of relationships between people
- Appreciating the variety of human experience and culture
- Striving for the fair and adequate provision of counseling and psychotherapy services

Values inform principles. They represent an important way of expressing a general ethical commitment that becomes more precisely defined and action-orientated when expressed as a principle.

Ethical principles of counseling and psychotherapy

Principles direct attention to important ethical responsibilities. Each principle is described below and is followed by examples of good practice that have been developed in response to that principle.

Ethical decisions that are strongly supported by one or more of these principles without any contradiction from others may be regarded as reasonably well founded. However, practitioners will encounter circumstances in which it is impossible to reconcile all the applicable principles and choosing between principles may be required. A decision or course of action does not necessarily become unethical merely because it is contentious or other practitioners would have reached different conclusions in similar circumstances. A practitioner's obligation is to consider all the relevant circumstances with as much care as is reasonably possible and to be appropriately accountable for decisions made.

Fidelity: honouring the trust placed in the practitioner

Being trustworthy is regarded as fundamental to understanding and resolving ethical issues. Practitioners who adopt this principle: act in accordance with the trust placed in them; regard confidentiality as an obligation arising from the client's trust; restrict any disclosure of confidential information about clients to furthering the purposes for which it was originally disclosed.

Autonomy: respect for the client's right to be self-governing

This principle emphasises the importance of the client's commitment to participating in counseling or psychotherapy, usually on a voluntary basis. Practitioners who respect their clients' autonomy: ensure accuracy in any advertising or information given in advance of services offered; seek freely given and adequately informed consent; engage in explicit contracting in advance of any commitment by the client; protect privacy; protect confidentiality; normally make any disclosures of confidential information conditional on the consent of the person concerned; and inform the client in advance of foreseeable conflicts of interest or as soon as possible after such conflicts become apparent. The principle of autonomy opposes the manipulation of clients against their will, even for beneficial social ends.

Beneficence: a commitment to promoting the client's well-being

The principle of beneficence means acting in the best interests of the client based on professional assessment. It directs attention to working strictly within one's limits of competence and providing services on the basis of adequate training or experience. Ensuring that the client's best interests are

achieved requires systematic monitoring of practice and outcomes by the best available means. It is considered important that research and systematic reflection inform practice. There is an obligation to use regular and on-going supervision to enhance the quality of the services provided and to commit to updating practice by continuing professional development. An obligation to act in the best interests of a client may become paramount when working with clients whose capacity for autonomy is diminished because of immaturity, lack of understanding, extreme distress, serious disturbance or other significant personal constraints.

Non-maleficence: a commitment to avoiding harm to the client

Non-maleficence involves: avoiding sexual, financial, emotional or any other form of client exploitation; avoiding incompetence or malpractice; not providing services when unfit to do so due to illness, personal circumstances or intoxication. The practitioner has an ethical responsibility to strive to mitigate any harm caused to a client even when the harm is unavoidable or unintended. Holding appropriate insurance may assist in restitution. Practitioners have a personal responsibility to challenge, where appropriate, the incompetence or malpractice of others; and to contribute to any investigation and/or adjudication concerning professional practice which falls below that of a reasonably competent practitioner and/or risks bringing discredit upon the profession.

Justice: the fair and impartial treatment of all clients and the provision of adequate services

The principle of justice requires being just and fair to all clients and respecting their human rights and dignity. It directs attention to considering conscientiously any legal requirements and obligations, and remaining alert to potential conflicts between legal and ethical obligations. Justice in the distribution of services requires the ability to determine impartially the provision of services for clients and the allocation of services between clients. A commitment to fairness requires the ability to appreciate differences between people and to be committed to equality of opportunity, and avoiding discrimination against people or groups contrary to their legitimate personal or social characteristics. Practitioners have a duty to strive to ensure a fair provision of counseling and psychotherapy services, accessible and appropriate to the needs of potential clients.

Self-respect: fostering the practitioner's self-knowledge and care for self

The principle of self-respect means that the practitioner appropriately applies all the above principles as entitlements for self. This includes seeking counseling or therapy and other opportunities for personal development as required. There is an ethical responsibility to use supervision for appropriate personal and professional support and development, and to seek training and other opportunities for continuing professional development. Guarding against financial liabilities arising from work undertaken usually requires obtaining appropriate insurance. The principle of self-respect encourages active engagement in life-enhancing activities and relationships that are independent of relationships in counseling or psychotherapy.

Personal moral qualities

The practitioner's personal moral qualities are of the utmost importance to clients. Many of the personal qualities considered important in the provision of services have an ethical or moral component and are therefore considered as virtues or good personal qualities. It is inappropriate to prescribe that all practitioners possess these qualities, since it is fundamental that these personal qualities are deeply rooted in the person concerned and developed out of personal commitment rather than the requirement of an external authority. Personal qualities to which counselors and psychotherapists are strongly encouraged to aspire include:

- Empathy: the ability to communicate understanding of another person's experience from that person's perspective.
- Sincerity: a personal commitment to consistency between what is professed and what is done.
- Integrity: commitment to being moral in dealings with others, personal straightforwardness, honesty and coherence.
- Resilience: the capacity to work with the client's concerns without being personally diminished.
- Respect: showing appropriate esteem to others and their understanding of themselves.
- Humility: the ability to assess accurately and acknowledge one's own strengths and weaknesses.
- Competence: the effective deployment of the skills and knowledge needed to do what is required.
- Fairness: the consistent application of appropriate criteria to inform decisions and actions.
- Wisdom: possession of sound judgement that informs practice.
- Courage: the capacity to act in spite of known fears, risks and uncertainty.

The challenge of working ethically means that practitioners will inevitably encounter situations where there are competing obligations. In such situations it is tempting to retreat from all ethical analysis in order to escape a sense of what may appear to be unresolvable ethical tension. These ethics are intended to be of assistance in such circumstances by directing attention to the variety of ethical factors that may need to be taken into consideration and to alternative ways of approaching ethics that may prove more useful. No statement of ethics can totally alleviate the difficulty of making professional judgements in circumstances that may be constantly changing and full of uncertainties.

Providing a good standard of practice and care

All clients are entitled to good standards of practice and care from their practitioners in counselling and psychotherapy. Good standards of practice and care require professional competence; good relationships with clients and colleagues; and commitment to and observance of professional ethics.

Good quality of care

1. Good quality of care requires competently delivered services that meet the client's needs by practitioners who are appropriately supported and accountable.
2. Practitioners should give careful consideration to the limitations of their training and experience and work within these limits, taking advantage of available professional support. If work with clients requires the provision of additional services operating in parallel with counselling or psychotherapy, the availability of such services ought to be taken into account, as their absence may constitute a significant limitation.
3. Good practice involves clarifying and agreeing the rights and responsibilities of both the practitioner and client at appropriate points in their working relationship.
4. Dual relationships arise when the practitioner has two or more kinds of relationship concurrently with a client, for example client and trainee, acquaintance and client, colleague and supervisee. The existence of a dual relationship with a client is seldom neutral and can have a powerful beneficial or detrimental impact that may not always be easily foreseeable. For these reasons practitioners are required to consider the implications of entering into dual relationships with clients, to avoid entering into relationships that are likely to be detrimental to clients, and to be readily accountable to clients and colleagues for any dual relationships that occur.
5. Practitioners are encouraged to keep appropriate records of their work with clients unless there are adequate reasons for not keeping any records. All records should be accurate, respectful of clients and colleagues and protected from unauthorised disclosure. Practitioners should take into account their responsibilities and their clients' rights under data protection legislation and any other legal requirements.
6. Clients are entitled to competently delivered services that are periodically reviewed by the practitioner. These reviews may be conducted, when appropriate, in consultation with clients, supervisors, managers or other practitioners with relevant expertise.

Maintaining competent practice

7. All counsellors, psychotherapists, trainers and supervisors are required to have regular and on-going formal supervision/consultative support for their work in accordance with professional requirements. Managers, researchers and providers of counselling skills are strongly encouraged to review their need for professional and personal support and to obtain appropriate services for themselves.
8. Regularly monitoring and reviewing one's work is essential to maintaining good practice. It is important to be open to, and conscientious in considering, feedback from colleagues, appraisals and assessments. Responding constructively to feedback helps to advance practice.

9. A commitment to good practice requires practitioners to keep up to date with the latest knowledge and respond to changing circumstances. They should consider carefully their own need for continuing professional development and engage in appropriate educational activities.

10. Practitioners should be aware of and understand any legal requirements concerning their work, consider these conscientiously and be legally accountable for their practice.

Keeping trust

11. The practice of counselling and psychotherapy depends on gaining and honouring the trust of clients.

Keeping trust requires:

- attentiveness to the quality of listening and respect offered to clients
- culturally appropriate ways of communicating that are courteous and clear
- respect for privacy and dignity
- careful attention to client consent and confidentiality.

12. Clients should be adequately informed about the nature of the services being offered.

Practitioners should obtain adequately informed consent from their clients and respect a client's right to choose whether to continue or withdraw.

13. Practitioners should ensure that services are normally delivered on the basis of the client's explicit consent. Reliance on implicit consent is more vulnerable to misunderstandings and is best avoided unless there are sound reasons for doing so. Overriding a client's known wishes or consent is a serious matter that requires commensurate justification. Practitioners should be prepared to be readily accountable to clients, colleagues and professional body if they override a client's known wishes.

14. Situations in which clients pose a risk of causing serious harm to themselves or others are particularly challenging for the practitioner. These are situations in which the practitioner should be alert to the possibility of conflicting responsibilities between those concerning their client, other people who may be significantly affected, and society generally. Resolving conflicting responsibilities may require due consideration of the context in which the service is being provided. Consultation with a supervisor or experienced practitioner is strongly recommended, whenever this would not cause undue delay. In all cases, the aim should be to ensure for the client a good quality of care that is as respectful of the client's capacity for self-determination and their trust as circumstances permit.

15. Working with young people requires specific ethical awareness and competence. The practitioner is required to consider and assess the balance between young people's dependence on adults and careers and their progressive development towards acting independently. Working with children and young people requires careful consideration of issues concerning their capacity to give consent to receiving any

service independently of someone with parental responsibilities and the management of confidences disclosed by clients.

16. Respecting client confidentiality is a fundamental requirement for keeping trust. The professional management of confidentiality concerns the protection of personally identifiable and sensitive information from unauthorised disclosure. Disclosure may be authorised by client consent or the law. Any disclosures should be undertaken in ways that best protect the client's trust. Practitioners should be willing to be accountable to their clients and to their profession for their management of confidentiality in general and particularly for any disclosures made without their client's consent.

17. Practitioners should normally be willing to respond to their client's requests for information about the way that they are working and any assessment that they may have made. This professional requirement does not apply if it is considered that imparting this information would be detrimental to

the client or inconsistent with the counselling or psychotherapeutic approach previously agreed with the client. Clients may have legal rights to this information and these need to be taken into account.

18. Practitioners must not abuse their client's trust in order to gain sexual, emotional, financial or any other kind of personal advantage. Sexual relations with clients are prohibited. 'Sexual relations' include intercourse, any other type of sexual activity or sexualised behaviour. Practitioners should think carefully about, and exercise considerable caution before, entering into personal or business relationships with former clients and should expect to be professionally accountable if the relationship becomes detrimental to the client or the standing of the profession.

19. Practitioners should not allow their professional relationships with clients to be prejudiced by any personal views they may hold about lifestyle, gender, age, disability, race, sexual orientation, beliefs or culture.

20. Practitioners should be clear about any commitment to be available to clients and colleagues and honour these commitments.

Ethical Framework for Good Practice in Counseling & Psychotherapy © BACP 2001, 2002, 2007

Conclusion:

Counseling can go a long way in helping the employees to have better control over their lives, take their decisions wisely and better charge of their responsibilities, reduce the level of stress and anxiety. Counseling of employees can have desirable consequences for the organisation. It helps the organisation when the employees know that the organization cares for them, and build a sense of commitment with it. It can prove to be of significant help to modify the behaviour of the employees and more so to re-enforce the desired behaviour and improve and increase the employee productivity.

Questions

1. Define Stress. Describe an Organizational Stress model with special emphasis on Organizational Role Stress.
2. What are the Stress outcomes? Describe the moderators of Stress. Explain with examples Stress prevention and management techniques.
3. What is Employee counseling? What are the types of counseling? What are the do's and don't's of counseling.
4. What are the ethical principles of Counseling and psychotherapy? What are the moral qualities required of a counselor- Describe with suitable examples.