1

TOPIC - I

WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR?

Unit Structure :

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you should be able to:

- Appreciate the importance of interpersonal skill; Understand what managers do?

- Able to define organisational behaviour.

- Complementing intuition with systematic study.

- Understand disciplines that contribute to the OB field.

- There are few absolutes in OB.

- Know the challenges and opportunities for OB.

- Developing an OB Model.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This is one of the most important and introductory unit in the study of Organisational Behaviour. In this unit we would discuss the importance of the study of interpersonal skills and study what managers do, we will basically examine the management functions, especially with respect to Mintzberg's managerial roles. We will also discuss the various management skills and the difference between effective and successful managerial activities.

In the study of Organisational Behaviour it is important to first define Organisational Behaviour. After defining organisational behaviour the topic of Complementing Intuition with Systematic Study would be discussed. Following this we would discuss the various disciplines that contribute to the Organisational Behaviour Field. It should be remembered that there are few absolutes in Organisational Behaviour, these would be discussed. Today there are many Challenges and Opportunities for Organisational Behaviour, each of these would be discussed in detail. Towards the end of this unit we would discuss the topic of developing an Organisational Behaviour Model.

Understanding human behavior is very important in determining a manager's effectiveness. The ability to get along with others is very important in order to achieve success. As a manager having a good inter personal skills is very important.

Interpersonal skills refer to the ability to work well with other people. Individuals who have this skill are able to interact well with others, show leadership skills and deal successfully with conflicts in the organisation. Managers with good interpersonal skills are likely to make the workplace more pleasant and this in turn makes it easier to hire and keep qualified people who are also highly performing.

1.2 IMPORTANCE OF INTERPERSONAL SKILLS AND WHAT MANAGERS DO?

1.2.1 Who are managers? What do managers do?

Managers are individuals who get things done through other people. They make decisions, allocate resources and direct the activities of others to attain goals. Managers do their work in an **organisation** which is a consciously coordinated social unit which is composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals. Examples of organisations are schools, hospitals, churches, retail

stores, police departments, local, state and central government agencies, etc.

Those who oversee the activities of others and who are responsible for attaining goals in these organisations are managers or administrators.

1.2.2 Management Functions.

In the early part of the twentieth century, a French industrialist, Henri Fayol stated that managers perform five management functions; planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Today, we have condensed it to four: planning, organising, leading and controlling.

Planning includes defining an organization's goals, deciding on a strategy to achieve these goals and developing plans to integrate and coordinate activities.

Organising would determine what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom and what decisions are to be made.

Leading would be directing the activities of others, selecting the most effective communication channels, resolving conflicts among members.

Controlling would be ensuring that things are going as they should. Management must monitor the organisation's performance.

1.2.3 Management Roles

The late 1960's Henry Mintzberg on the basis of his observations concluded that managers perform 10 highly related roles which can be grouped under three broad categories as shown in the following table.

Exhibit 1-1	Mintzberg's Managerial Roles
Role	**Description**
Interpersonal	
Figurehead	Symbolic head; required to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and direction of employees
Liaison	Maintains a network of outside contacts who provide favors and information
Informational	
Monitor	Receives a wide variety of information; serves as nerve center of internal and external information of the organisation
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsides or from other employees to members of the organisation
Spokesperson	Transmits information to outsiders on organisation's plans, policies, actions, and results; serves as expert on organisation's industry
Decisional	
Entrepreneur	Searches organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates projects to bring about change
Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances
Resource allocator	Makes or approves significant organisational decisions
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations

I. Interpersonal Roles.

All managers are required to perform duties that are ceremonial and symbolic in nature. When managers perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature, they are acting in a **figurehead** role. All managers also have a **leadership** role which includes hiring, training, motivating and disciplining employees. Managers also play the **liaison** role, contacting outsiders who provide them with information.

II. Informational Roles.

All managers collect information from outside organisations and institutions by reading magasines, talking to other people, etc. Mintzberg called this the **monitor** role. Managers may also transmit information to organisational members. This is the **dissemination** role. Managers perform a **spokesperson** role when they represent the organisation to outsiders.

III. Decisional Roles.

In the **entrepreneur** role, managers initiate and oversee new projects. As **disturbance handlers**, they may have to take corrective action to some problems. As **resource allocators** managers are responsible for allocating human, physical and monetary resources. In the role of a **negotiator,** they discuss issues and bargain with other units to gain advantages for their own unit.

1.2.4 Management Skills

Managers need skills or competence to achieve their goals. Robert Katz has identified 3 essential management skills: technical, human and conceptual.

I. Technical Skills.

Through formal education, they have learned the special knowledge and practices of their field. All jobs require some specialised expertise and many people develop their technical skills on the job.

II. Human Skills.

It is the ability to work with, understand and motivate other people both as individuals and in groups. People may be technically proficient, but may be poor listeners or unable to understand the needs of others or may have difficulty managing conflicts. Because managers get things done through other people, they must have good human skills to communicate, motivate and delegate.

III. Conceptual Skills

Managers must have the mental ability to analyse and diagnose complex situations. These tasks require conceptual skills.

1.2.5 Effective versus Successful Managerial Activities.

Research studies have revealed that managers who are most effective in their jobs are promoted the fastest. Luthans et al studied more than 450 managers and found that effective managers were those who performed well both in terms of quantity

and quality of work. Also their employees reported satisfaction and commitment.

They found out that all these managers engaged in 4 managerial activities.

1. Traditional management.
This involves decision making, planning and controlling.

2. Communication.
This involves exchanging information and processing paperwork.

3. Human Resource Management.
This involves motivating, disciplining, managing conflict, selecting employees and training.

4. Networking.
This involves socialising and making contacts with people within and outside the organisation.

Luthans et al found vast differences with regards to the time that the average, effective and successful manager spent on the four managerial activities. They found that:

a) Average Managers spent maximum time on traditional management and least time on networking.

b) Effective managers spent maximum time on communication and least time on traditional management.

c) Successful managers spent maximum time on networking and least time on human resource management.

These results show that promotions are not based on performance but rather on a manager's ability to network and to play politics.

Exhibit 1-2 Allocation of Activities by Time

Average managers

32%
20%
29%

Successful managers

13%
28%
11%

Effective managers

19%
26%
44%

Traditional management   Communication
Human resource management   Networking
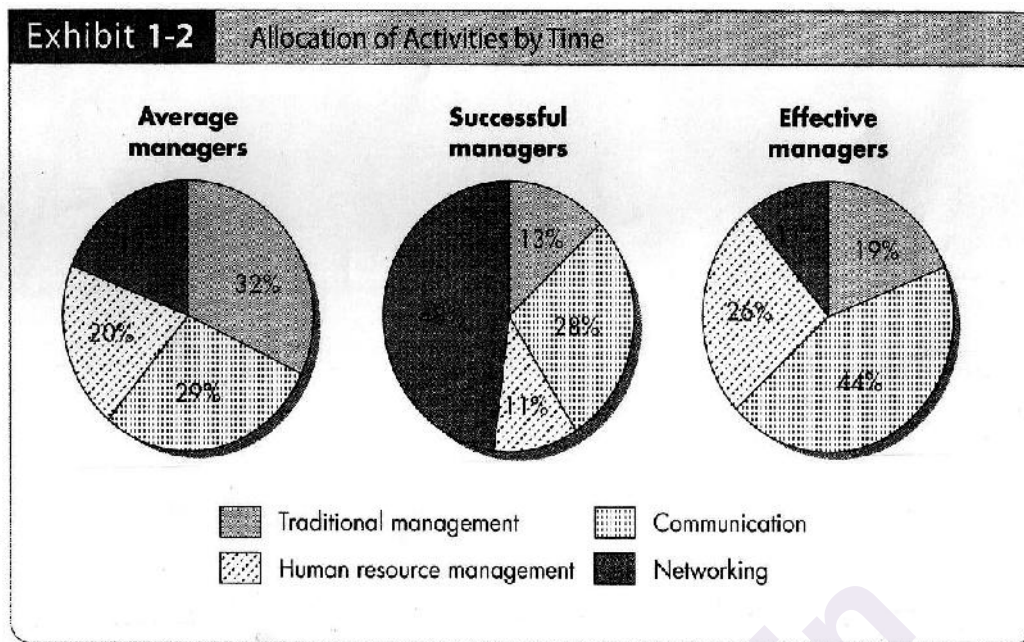
1.3 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Robbins and Judge (2009) define organisational behavior as a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behavior within organisations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organisation's effectiveness. Organisational Behavior is a field of study, meaning that it is a distinct area of expertise with a common body of knowledge. It studies three factors that determine behavior in organisations : individuals, groups and structure. Organisational Behavior applies the knowledge gained about industries, groups and the effect of structure on behavior in order to make organisations work more effectively. It is concerned with what people do in an organisation and how their behavior affects the organisation's performance.

1.4 COMPLEMENTING INTUITION WITH SYSTEMATIC STUDY

People often try to predict other's behavior based on intuition. But our intuition can be wrong. Organisational Behavior studies behavior in a very systematic manner. Organisational Behavior believes that behavior is not random but there are certain fundamental consistencies underlying the behavior of all individuals and if we can identify these consistencies then that will help us to make reasonably accurate predictions about behavior.

When we use the phrase systematic study, we mean

a) looking at relationships, b) attempting to attribute cause and effects c) basing our conclusions on scientific evidence.

Along with a systematic study of behavior, organisational behavior also uses **evidence-based management** (EBM). It involves basing managerial decisions on the best available scientific evidence. Organisational Behavior wants managers to have a scientific approach when faced with people management problems.

Knowledge of Organisational Behavior (based on systematic study) and EBM add to intuition and increases the chances of predicting behavior more accurately.

1.5 DISCIPLINES THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR FIELD

Organisational Behavior is an applied behavioral science that is built on contributions from a number of behavioral disciplines. The predominant sciences are psychology, social psychology, sociology and anthropology. The contribution of psychology has been more at the individual or micro level while the other disciplines have been at the macro or group level.

1. Psychology is the science that seeks to measure, explain and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals. The main concern here is to understand and explain human behavior. Early Industrial Organisational psychologists were concerned with the problems of fatigue, boredom and other factors that could hamper efficient work performance. Recently they have contributed to learning, perception, personality, emotions, training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, decision making processes, performance appraisals, attitude measurement, job stress, etc.

2. Social Psychology. It is an area of psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and that focuses on the influence of people on one another. Social psychologists have made significant contributions in behavioral and attitude change, communication, group processes and decision making, change-how to implement it and how to reduce barriers to its acceptance, etc.

3. Sociology studies people in relation to their social environment and culture. Sociologists have contributed to organisational behavior through their study of group behavior in organisations, organisational theory, communication, organisational technology, power and conflict.

4. Anthropology is the study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities. The work of anthropologists has helped OB understand the difference in values, attitudes and behavior of people of different countries and different organisations. It has also contributed to our current understanding of organisational culture and organisational environment.

1.6 THERE ARE FEW ABSOLUTES IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Human beings are complex. Two people often act very differently in the same situation and the same person's behavior changes in different situations.

Therefore, predicting human behavior is no easy task. There are no simple and universal principles to explain cause and effect relationships.

Secondly, Human beings are very complex beings as no two people are the same, no two situations are the same. And two people may not always act in the same manner in the same situation and neither will the same person act in the same way in the same situation. But that does not mean that we cannot offer reasonably accurate explanations of human behavior. We can say that X leads to Y, but only under conditions specified in Z – the contingency variables. Contingency variables are situational factors that affect the relationship between two or more variables.

1.7 THE CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES BEFORE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Managers face people issues that they have never faced before. The need to understand the behavior of people in organisations has become more important than ever before.

There are dramatic changes, currently, taking place in organisations. Hence, there are many challenges and opportunities today for managers to use organisational behavior concepts.

1.7.1 Responding to Globalisation :

Organisations are no longer constrained by national borders. Eg, Burger King is owned by a British firm and Mc Donald's sells hamburgers in many parts of the world, not just in the USA. The world has become a global village. Globalisation has a tremendous impact on the way people are managed and businesses are run. In the process, the manager's job is changing.

i) Increased foreign assignments.

Because of globalisation, many employees are regularly sent on foreign assignments. Internal transfers are common. Managers manage offices and divisions in different countries and hence have to manage employees whose needs, attitudes and aspirations are very different from those back home.

ii) Working with people from different cultures.

To work effectively with people from different cultures, managers need to understand how their culture, geography and religion have shaped them. Hence, managers need to change their management style accordingly, so as to become effective managers.

iii) Coping with anti capitalism backlash.

Capitalist countries like USA, Australia, etc., focus on efficiency, growth and profits but these values are not very popular in other parts of the world such as France, the Middle East, etc., So it is a challenge to the managers to be sensitive to the different values of their employees.

iv) Overseeing movements of jobs to countries with low cost labor.

In a global economy, jobs tend to flow to places where lower costs provide business firms with a comparative advantage. Hence, jobs are moving to the developing countries creating problems of unemployment in the developed countries.

Outsourcing of jobs has led to severe criticisms from labor groups as well as politicians. So managers must take every decision carefully. There needs to be a balance between goals of the organisation and their responsibility to the community in which they work.

v) Managing People during the war on terror.

Terrorism has had a great impact on the business world. Studies have found that managers have cut down on their business travel due to fear of terror attacks. But travel is not the only concern. Organisations also need to find ways to deal with security of the employees. An understanding of Organisational Behavior topics such as emotions, motivation, communication and leadership can help managers to deal more effectively with their employee's fear about terrorism.

1.7.2 Managing Workforce Diversity :

One of the most important challenges currently facing organisations is adapting to people who are different. This is workforce diversity. It means that organisations are becoming a

more heterogeneous mix of people in terms of gender, age, race, ethnicity and sexual orientation. A diverse workforce, for example, includes women, people of color, the physically disabled, senior citizens and gays and lesbians.

In India, organisations have to accommodate a workforce that is very diverse in terms of its socio-economic, ethnic and linguistic composition.

The various categories of workforce diversity are :

a) Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes as per notification of the government of India.

b) Other backward castes.

c) Bonafide members of the State. This would also help to control the problem of migration of people from one state to another and more specifically from rural to urban centres.

d) Ex-Defense Personnel and Paramilitary Personnel. This is in order to rehabilitate retiring defense personnel from all ranks.

e) Disabled persons – whose capacity to work is limited because of their mental or physical abilities and who can avail of jobs in the public sector.

f) Displaced Persons. The government as part of its employment generation scheme, promises a factory job to one member of each family displaced by the development of public sector enterprises. Most of these people have an agrarian background and are not as educated and hence have to be provided with employment that is suited to their level of literacy and skills.

g) Gender. In India there are more women entering the workforce. This has led to concern over important issues such as maternity leave, child care, sexual harassment, etc.

h) Age. Discrimination based on age can be made between the older and younger workers. Organisations need to work out strategies to accommodate older workers.

i) Temporary/Casual Contracts. Workers employed on temporary or contract basis are paid a minimum fixed wage as determined by the government. Since they are not permanent employees of an organisation, the terms and conditions of employment are much lower than that of the regular employees of the organisation.

Diversity in the workforce is very obvious and earlier managers used to take the melting point approach to differences in organisations which meant that employees who are different would finally adjust to the rest of them. People do not want to forget their cultural values and differences and hence it is a herculean task for

the organisation to make themselves more accommodating to diverse groups of people by taking into consideration their different lifestyles and family needs, etc. Also the percentage of women joining the workforce has also increased in technical professions and managerial jobs.

India will soon be the biggest source of labor. It is estimated that India will have enough resources with a surplus workforce of 47 million.

Workforce diversity has important implications for management practice. Managers should respond to those differences so that there is greater productivity and employee retention. They can do so by providing employees with diversity training and modifying the welfare and benefits programs to satisfy the needs of the diverse workforce.

1.7.3 Improving Quality and Productivity :

In the 1900's, companies expected an increase in consumer demand. Hence, new factories, new facilities, more services and increased staff were added to meet this demand. But today almost every industry suffers from excess supply. There are too many malls and shopping centers. In India, this has led to increased competition and it is forcing managers to reduce costs as well as improve the productivity-quality of the products and services. So managers need to work and introduce quality management process engineering programs. The program must involve employees.

1.7.4 Improving Customer Service :

Majority of employees in developed countries work in service jobs today. Management needs to ensure that employees do what it takes to please customers. Friendly and efficient customer service could help retain a customer or client. Organisational Behavior can help managers to improve employee attitudes and behavior associated with customer satisfaction. It can guide managers in creating a culture in which employees are friendly and polite, accessible, knowledgeable, provide prompt service and willing to do all that is necessary to please the customer.

1.7.5 Improving People Skills :

People skills are important to managerial effectiveness. Improving listening skills, building a sense of belongingness and team spirit, learning ways to design motivating jobs, is a challenging task for the manager.

1.7.6 Stimulating Innovation and change :

Any successful organisation must be able to master the art of change or else will become extinct. Organisations must be flexible and innovative and continually improve their quality. Giant Organisations have gone bust and closed down or are struggling for survival as they have not been able to adapt to change. Examples, TWA, Mafatlal, etc.

However, without the support of the employees, innovation and change can be very difficult. This can be done by increasing employee participation, stimulate employee creativity and increase employee tolerance for change.

1.7.7 Coping with "Temporariness" :

Along with change comes temporariness. Globalisation, advanced technology has caused organisations to be fast and flexible in order to survive.

Temporariness can be experienced in organisations in different ways. Jobs are continually being redesigned. Teams that do the jobs are flexible and companies are relying more on temporary workers. Also jobs are subcontracted to other firms and pensions are redesigned to move with people as they change jobs. In order to cope with temporariness :

a) Employees constantly have to update their knowledge and skills to perform their new jobs.

b) They have to be flexible as they are moved from one work group to another and from one project to another.

c) They have to learn to live with unpredictability and insecurity of employment.

Organisations today are in a state of flux. They are continually reorganising their divisions, selling off businesses that are not doing so well, downsizing operations, subcontracting services and operations to other organisations and replacing permanent employee,s with temporary workers.

1.7.8 Working in Networked Organisations :

Computerisation, Internet, portable communication tools such as think pads, laptop computers, video conferencing, cellular phones, etc., have created a "networked" organisation. Such technology allows people to communicate and work together even though miles apart.

People such as software programmers, graphic designers, systems analysts, technical writers, photo researchers, book editors

can work from home or other non-office locations. Here the manager needs to motivate and lead people to make collaborative decisions "online". Organisational Behavior can help the manager to develop new skills.

1.7.9 Helping Employees Balance Work-Life Conflicts :

Earlier in the 1960's and 1970's, the work place and hours were clearly specified. But today, the line between work and non-work time has become blurred creating a lot of conflict and stress.

Many factors have contributed to blurring the lines between the employees' work life and personal life.

a) The creation of global organisations. At any time on any day employees are working somewhere and that means that many employees of global firms are "on call" 24 hours a day.

b) Advances in Communication Technology allows employees to operate from anywhere in the world.

c) Organisations have become more demanding and expect their employees to put in longer hours of work.

d) The number of dual-career couples has increased and it is difficult to give time to home, spouse, children, parents and friends.

Employees have been increasingly dissatisfied with work-life imbalance. In order to correct this imbalance, employees are demanding greater flexibility in their jobs and work schedules. Workers want to achieve a work-life balance and managers must help the employees strike this balance between their work and personal lives if they want to attract and retain talented and motivated employees.

1.7.10 Creating a positive work environment :

This is another challenge to the manager especially when there is competitive pressure on most organisations. "In the time of turmoil and cynicism about business you need to be passionate, positive leaders." is what Mr Jeff Immelt recently told his top managers. Positive Organisational scholarship (also called positive organisational behavior) is an area of organisational behavior research that concerns how organisations develop human strength, foster vitality and resilience and unlock potential. This is done through a concept called "reflected best-self". According to this technique, employers should ask employee's to describe situations in which they were at their "personal best" or exceptionally good. They should try to understand their employees strengths and then try to exploit it rather than focusing on the employees' weaknesses.

1.7.11 Improving Ethical Behavior :

Managers are constantly facing ethical dilemmas, situations in which they are required to define right and wrong conduct. Employees often doubt whether they should "blow the whistle" if they uncover illegal activities. Should they follow orders with which they don't personally agree? Should they engage in different types of unethical practices.

As managers they have a code of ethics that they distribute to guide their employees. They offer seminars, workshops and other training programmes to improve ethical behaviors. In-house advisors are provided to deal with ethical issues.

Creating an ethically healthy climate for the employees is a major challenge for the manager.

1.8 DEVELOPING AN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODEL

A model is an abstraction of reality, a simplified .representation of some real world phenomenon (Robbins and Judge 2009). According to this model there are 3 levels of analysis.

a) The first level is at the individual level.
b) The second analysis is at the group level.
c) The third analysis is at the organisational systems level.

Each level acts as a building block for the next level i.e., each level is constructed on the previous level. In order to understand this model we need to understand two terms : Independent variable and Dependent variable.

The Independent Variable is the factor that causes a change in the dependent variable. "It is the presumed cause of some change in the dependent variable (Robbins and Judge, 2009).

The Dependent Variable is the key factor that you want to explain or predict and that is affected by some other factor. This is the response or behavior that is the outcome of the independent variable.

Egs., absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, productivity. Recently deviant workplace behavior and organisational citizenship behaviors have been added to this list. Let us try to understand these variables in more detail.

The Dependent Variable: There are many different types of dependent variable. The six most common dependent variable related to work behaviour are discussed below :

1) Productivity is a performance measure that includes effectiveness and efficiency. An organisation is said to be productive if it achieves its goals and it does so by transferring inputs to outputs at lowest cost.

Eg., An organisation is effective when it successfully meets the needs of its clientele, but it is considered efficient when it can do so at a low cost. We can also look at productivity from the perspective of an individual employee. Here when we measure productivity, we must take into account the costs incurred in reaching the goal. In service organisations employee attitudes and behaviors are linked to productivity. If there is an improvement in employee attitudes, then it will automatically lead to an increase in customer satisfaction which in turn would lead to an increase in revenue for the organisation.

2) Absenteeism is defined as the failure to report to work.

Impact of Absenteeism

1) It can be very costly as well as disruptive for the organisation.

2) It would become very difficult for the organisation to operate smoothly and achieve its goals, if employees do not report to work.

3) The work flow is disrupted and often decisions that have to be taken may be delayed.

4) There would be a drastic reduction in quality of output and may also cause shutdown of certain departments.

5) It may put additional pressure on employees who do report to work.

But absences are not always bad. Sometimes, it may be better for the individual to stay away from work if he is ill or mentally or physically exhausted. This is because some jobs may require increased alertness (eg., pilots and surgeons) and even a small accident could be disastrous.

3) Turnover is the voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organisation.(Robbins and Judge,2009) It is the rate at which people leave the organisation.

Effects of high turnover :

a) It results in increased recruiting, selection and training costs. It therefore proves very costly to the organisation.

b) The efficient running of the organisation is disrupted especially when an experienced staff leaves. This is because the experienced staff has a thorough knowledge about the job and if such staff have to be replaced, then it would take time for the new staff to learn the job. It is often difficult to replace such key employees.

c) Also the employees witnessing such high turnover can become demoralised due to the loss of valued coworkers and may not be able to function at optimal level.

d) The reputation of the organisation would go down as a result of high turnover.

On the other hand turnover can also be positive and beneficial for the organisation.

1) When the "right" people leave i.e., under performing, poorly performing individuals leave then it is a gain for the organisation. It can create an opportunity to select an individual who has both better skills and motivation for the job.

2) It creates more opportunities for promotions within the organisation.

3) The organisation could benefit from the expertise and new ideas that the new employees could bring on the job.

But when turnover is excessive or when it involves losing a key employee then it could be a hindrance to the organisation's effectiveness.

4) Deviant Workplace Behavior is also called antisocial behavior or workplace incivility. It is voluntary behavior that violates important organisational norms and thus threatens the well being of other employees. Some examples of such deviant behaviors are stealing, sabotage, gossiping, playing loud music, insulting or humiliating colleagues or customers, irritating coworkers or customers. All these behaviors can cause huge financial losses to the organisation.

A dissatisfied employee can express himself in many varied deviant ways, and unless the manager tries to understand the root cause of his dissatisfaction and deal with it, there can be no solution.

5) Organisational Citizenship Behavior is "discretionary behavior that is not part of an employee's formal job requirements, but it nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organisation." (Robbins and Judge, 2009) Organisations need employees who will engage in "good" citizenship behaviors such as

helping others and cooperating with others in the group, doing extra work, avoiding conflicts, tolerating minor nuisances and irritations at the workplace, showing enthusiasm and putting an extra effort to complete the task. Managers should find ways to motivate and encourage employees to engage in organisational citizenship behavior.

6) Job Satisfaction is a positive feeling about one's job resulting from the individual's evaluation of the various characteristics of the job. It is an attitude rather than a behavior. It was believed that satisfied employees are more productive than dissatisfied employees. Usually dissatisfied employees are more likely to remain absent and quit their jobs.

Researchers with strong humanistic values argue that satisfaction is a legitimate objective of an organisation. Advanced societies should be concerned not only with the quantity of life but also with its quality. And so, the manager here again should see that the employees are provided with jobs that are interesting, challenging and intrinsically rewarding.

The Independent Variables.

The independent variables as stated earlier are factors responsible for causing a change in the dependant variable. The independent variable can be at the individual or group or organisational system level.

a) Individual level variables. Each individual in the organisation is different and come into the organisation with certain intact characteristics which will influence their behavior at work. Examples of these are personal or biographical characteristics such as age, gender and marital status, personality characteristics such as various emotions, values and attitudes and basic ability levels. Management can do little to alter them. Yet they have a real impact on employee behavior, perception, individual decision making, learning and motivation.

b) Group level variables. People's behavior in groups is different from their behavior when alone. So the study of group behavior is important. Individuals in groups are influenced by the group and conform and exhibit patterns of behavior that are accepted by the group. Knowledge of how the group functions is important. Group norms, cohesiveness of the group, group size, communication patterns, leadership, power and politics and levels of conflict are some factors that would influence the behavior of employees in organisations.

c) Organisational System Level Variables. Many factors at this level, such as, organisation's policies and practices, employee selection, training and development programs, performance evaluation methods have an impact on the independent variables.

1.9 SUMMARY

In this unit we have discussed the importance of the study of interpersonal skills and examined as to what managers do, we have also studied the management functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling. We have also discussed the different management roles as given by Mintzberg. Various management skills such as technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills were also discussed. The differences between effective and successful managerial activities were also discussed. Following this we had defined the concept of Organisational Behaviour. After defining organisational behaviour the topic of Complementing Intuition with Systematic Study was also discussed. The various disciplines that contribute to the Organisational Behaviour Field were also discussed. It should be remembered that there are few absolutes in Organisational Behaviour each of these absolutes were also discussed. Some important Challenges and Opportunities for Organisational Behaviour, were discussed in detail. Towards the end of this unit we had discussed the topic of developing an Organisational Behaviour Model.

1.10 GLOSSARY

Organisation : It can be defined as a consciously coordinated social unit, composed of two or more people that function as a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.

Organisational Behaviour : OB is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction, and control of human behaviour in organisations"

Evidence-Based Management (EBM) : It is a recent concept in the area of management practice, which refers to basing managerial decision on the best available scientific evidence. EBM emphasises on taking a scientific approach to management problems.

Workforce Diversity : It refers to adapting to people who are different.

Network Organisation : It is an organisation that operates as far as possible without a traditional organisation structure. Instead, it creates teams to handle specific projects and, when those projects are completed, break up the teams and creates new ones.

The Dependent Variable : It is the measure of the behaviour of the subject or a report of the subject's response to a stimulus, a change in the behaviour after administration of a drug, a score on a test and so on. The dependent variable is almost always some measure of the participant's behaviour.

Turnover : It refers to voluntary as well as involuntary permanent withdrawal from an organisation.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour : It refers to discretionary behaviour that is not a part of an employee's formal job requirements but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organisation.

Independent variable : It can be defined as the factor whose effect the researcher wishes to find out. In other words it is a condition selected by the researcher.

1.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Robbins, S. P., Judge, T. A., & Sanghi, S. (2009). Organisational Behaviour. (13th ed.), Pearson Education, Dorling Kindersley, New Delhi.

2. Kumar V. B. (2011) Psychology of Human Behaviour at Work, Himalaya Publishing House, Mumbai, pages 3-32.

1.12 QUESTIONS

Q.1   Discuss the importance of interpersonal skills in the study of Organisational Behaviour.

Q.2   Explain the different Management Functions.

Q.3   What role does a manager perform?

OR

Discuss the different roles performed by the manager as identified by Henry Mintzberg.

Q.4   Discuss the different types of Skills that managers possess.

Q.5   Discuss the various disciplines that contribute to Organisational Behaviour.

Q.6 Discuss the various challenges and opportunities for Organisational Behaviour.

Q.7 Define Dependent Variable and discuss different types of dependent variable in Organisational Behaviour.

Q.8 What is Independent Variable? Discuss the various levels of Independent Variable in the study of Organisational Behaviour.

Q.9 Write short notes on the following :
- Effective vs. Successful Managers
- Definition of Organisational Behaviour
- Evidence Based Management
- Coping with "Temporariness"
- Improving Ethical Behaviour

Q.10 Define or explain the following terms :
- Organisation
- Organisational Behaviour.
- Evidene-Based Management (EBM)
- Workforce Diversity
- Network Organisation
- The dependent Variable
- Turnover
- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
- Independent variable

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TOPIC - II

ATTITUDES AND JOB SATISFACTION - I

UNIT STRUCTURE:

2.0   OBJECTIVES:

The major objectives of this unit are:

- To discuss the nature and definition of attitudes.
- To understand the main components of attitude.
- To know whether behaviour always follow from attitudes?
- To discuss moderating variables and understand moderators of the attitude - behaviour relationships.
- To discuss major job attitudes.

2.1   INTRODUCTION:

Attitudes are important components of social behaviour and thought. Attitude is one of the most central concepts of Psychology. Employee attitudes play an important role in the smooth functioning of the organisation. It influences many aspects of organisational functioning. Negative employee attitude is a symptom of underlying problems and contributing cause of forthcoming difficulties in an organisation. Attitude is one of the most important aspects of human behavior. It influences many aspects of organisational behavior like job performance, absenteeism and job turnover. In

this unit we will discuss the nature and definition of attitudes as well as the main components of attitudes. We will also discuss the moderating variables and the major job attitudes. Some of the major job attitudes that would be briefly discussed include job satisfaction, job involvement, organisational commitment, perceived organisational support and employee engagement and job engagement.

2.2   ATTITUDES AND ITS MAIN COMPONENTS:

Attitude can be defined as stable cluster of feelings, beliefs and behavioral intentions towards specific aspects of the external world. Attitude can also be defined as mental representations of various features of the social or physical world. They are acquired through experience and exert a direct influence on subsequent behavior.

Attitudes are evaluative statements — either favourable or unfavourable — about people, or events. They reflect how we feel about something. For e.g., when a person says, "I like my job" he is expressing his attitude about work. Attitudes represent beliefs, feelings and action tendencies towards objects, ideas or people. An attitude is a tendency to respond positively (favourably) or negatively (unfavourably) to certain people, objects or situations. In other words, it is a tendency to react emotionally in one direction or another.

Attitudes are limited. They are hypothetical construct. They cannot be directly observed. They could only be inferred on the basis of observation or observable responses. Attitudes are complex. They are difficult to express in words. If you ask people about their attitude toward religion, culture, or the organisation they work for, you may get a simple response, but the reasons underlying the response are probably complex.

Psychologists are interested in understanding, predicting and changing work related attitudes. Psychologists want to change work-related attitude for two reasons:

- There is an intimate connection between attitude and various aspects of job performance (turnover and absenteeism). In order to alter certain aspects of job performance, attitude change in necessary.

- A second reason that we may want to change attitude is to improve those attitudes themselves.

In order to fully understand attitudes, we need to consider their fundamental properties or components. Attitude can be characterised in three ways:

(i) First, they tend to persist unless something is done to change them.

(ii) Second, attitudes can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable.

(iii) Third, attitudes are directed toward some object about which a person has feelings (sometimes called "affect") and beliefs.

Main Components of Attitudes: In general, attitudes consist of three major components

1. Affective Component: The feelings, sentiments, moods and emotions about some event or object constitute the affective component of attitude.

2. Behavioural Component: Behavioural component of attitude refers to an intention to behave in certain ways toward someone or something.

3. Cognitive Component: It refers to the beliefs, opinion, knowledge, or information held by the individual.

Above three components are interrelated to each other, they function together. These components help us understand better the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. For e.g., suppose that an individual holds a strong, negative attitude towards particular type of software (cognitive). During recruiting, this person will reject employees who use this software (behaviour). Cognition and affect in particular are inseparable in many ways. They are intertwined. In organisations, attitudes are important for their behavioural component.

Does Behaviour Always Follow from Attitudes?

One of the most important issues related to research on attitude is that does there exist a relationship between behaviour and attitudes. Do certain attitudes influence an individual's subsequent behaviour? What is the correlationship between attitudes and behaviour. We would discuss these issues in brief.

Early research on attitudes assumed that they are causally related to behaviour, that is, the attitudes people hold determine what they do. Festinger argued that attitudes following behaviour illustrate the effect of cognitive dissonance.

Cognitive dissonance refers to any incompatibility between two or more attitudes or between behaviour and attitudes. Cognitive dissonance can be defined as an unpleasant internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more of their attitudes or between their attitudes and their behaviour. In its simpler form, the theory of cognitive dissonance says that human behaviour is motivated by a tendency to achieve consonance (consistency), and to avoid dissonance (inconsistency) in the organisation of cognitive experience which may contain an individual's beliefs, attitudes, values, knowledge, information and so forth.

According to Festinger, the cognitive elements in an individual's total experience are not discrete and unrelated but interconnected. The attitudes, beliefs, values held by an individual are not unrelated to one another but are part of his organisation, are interdependent and interacting. According to Brown, a state of cognitive dissonance is said to be a state of psychological discomfort or tension which motivates efforts to achieve consonance.

(i) Individuals seek to reduce this uncomfortable gap, or *dissonance*, to reach stability and consistency.

(ii) Consistency is achieved by changing the attitudes, modifying the behaviours, or through rationalisation.

(iii) Desire to reduce dissonance depends on:

- Importance of elements creating it.

- Degree of influence the individual believes he has over the elements.

- Individuals will be more motivated to reduce dissonance when the attitudes or behaviour are important or when they believe that the dissonance is due to something they can control.

- Rewards involved in dissonance. High rewards accompanying dissonance tend to reduce the tension inherent in the dissonance.

Research has generally concluded that people seek consistency among their attitudes and between their attitudes and their behaviour. More recent research shows that, in many cases attitudes predict future behaviour and confirmed Festinger's original belief that certain "moderating variables" can strengthen the link.

2.3   MODERATING VARIABLES*:*

It is also called as the moderator variable. The moderating variable is one that has a strong contingent effect on the independent variable and dependent variable relationship. That is the presence of a third variable modifies the original relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. For example, it has been found that there is a relationship between the availability of reference manuals that manufacturing employees have access to and the product rejects. That is when workers follow the procedures laid down in the manual; they are able to manufacture products that are flawless. Although these relationships can be said to hold true generally for all workers, it is nevertheless contingent on the inclination or urge of employees to look into the manual every time a new procedure is to be adopted.

The most powerful moderators of the attitude behaviour relationship are:

(i) Importance of the attitude: Attitudes that individuals consider important tend to show a stronger relationship to behaviour. Important attitudes have a strong relationship to behaviour.

(ii) Correspondence to behaviour: The more closely the attitude and the behaviour are matched or correspond, the stronger the relationship. Specific attitudes predict specific behaviour whereas general attitude predict general behaviour.

(iii) Accessibility: Attitudes we remember easily are more likely to predict our behaviour

(iv) Existence of social pressures: Social pressures from significant others, especially people to whom we are emotionally attached considerably influence our attitude.

(v) Personal and direct experience of the attitude: Attitudes based on personal experience are stronger predictors.

(vi) The closer the match between attitude and behaviour, the stronger the relationship:

- Specific attitudes predict specific behaviour
- General attitudes predict general behaviour

(vii) The more frequently expressed an attitude, the better predictor it is: An attitude that is expressed more frequently the more strongly it predicts a given behaviour.

(viii) High social pressures: Reduce the relationship and may cause dissonance.

2.4   MAJOR JOB ATTITUDES:

Individuals have many different types of job-related attitudes. Organisational Behaviour focuses on only limited number of job-related attitudes. Most research has studied the following important types of job-related attitudes in detail.

1. Job Satisfaction

2. Job Involvement

3. Organisational Commitment

4. Perceived Organisational Support

5. Employee Engagement or Job Engagement

We would discuss each of these briefly.

1. Job Satisfaction: It refers to positive feelings about one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. An individual who has high levels of job satisfaction will hold positive feelings about his/her job. Very often, job satisfaction is equivalent to employee attitude. It has received great deal of research attention among OB researchers. The topic of job satisfaction has been discussed in detail in the next Unit.

2. Job Involvement: It is related to job satisfaction. Job involvement refers to the degree to which a person identifies with a job, actively participates in it and considers performance important to self-worth. It can be defined as 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. In other words, it refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her work and the importance of work to one's self-image. Those employees who have a high level of job involvement will strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. High levels of job involvement have been found to be related to fewer absences and lower resignation rates. It has also been suggested that job involvement is more strongly related to how people view their work and their approach to it and less related to how well they perform their job. One important concept closely related to job involvement is *Psychological Empowerment.* It refers to employee's beliefs in the degree to which they influence their work environment, their competence, the meaningfulness of their jobs and the perceived autonomy in their work. Research studies have observed that good leaders empower their employees by involving them in decisions, making them feel their work is important and giving them direction to "do their own things". It has also been noted that high level of job involvement and psychological empowerment are positively related to:

(a) Organisational citizenship
(b) Enhanced job performance
(c) Reduced number of absences
(d) Lower resignation rates

3. Organisational Commitment: It refers to a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation. Organisational commitment reflects the extent to which an individual identifies with and is involved with his/her organisation and is unwilling to leave it. High job involvement means identifying with your specific job. On the other hand high organisational commitment means identifying with your employing organisation.

Organisational Commitment is also called as employee loyalty. Organisational commitment can be defined as the extent to which employee identifies with the organisation and wants to continue actively participating in it. Organisational commitment is a measure of an employee's willingness to remain with a firm in the future. In other words, it refers to the extent to which an employee feels a sense of allegiance to his/her employer.

Organisational commitment involves the following:

- It is a measure of an employee's belief in the goals and mission of the organisation.

- It reflects the degree of willingness to expend effort in the accomplishment of goals of organisation.

- It also refers to the desire of the employee to continue working with the organisation.

It has been observed that organisational commitment is higher and stronger among employees who have the following characteristics.

- Those who have been in the organisation for a long period of time.

- Those who have experienced personal success in the organisation.

- Those working within a committed employee group.

Employees who score higher on organisational commitment generally show the following features.

- They have good attendance record. Their attendance is higher and employee turnover is lower.

- They demonstrate willingness to adhere to company policies.

- They act as an integrating and coordinating force holding many people, i.e., colleagues, customers, clients, dealers, etc., together.

Organisational Commitment has three separate dimensions:
(a) Affective Commitment
(b) Continuance Commitment
(c) Normative Commitment

We would discuss each of these briefly.

(a) Affective Commitment: It refers to emotional attachment to the organisation and belief in its values.

(b) Continuance Commitment: It refers to the commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. It is the perceived economic value of remaining with an organisation compared to leaving it. An employee who perceives that the job is well paying will be more committed as leaving it would result in economic hardships for him/her.

(c) Normative Commitment: It is an obligation to remain with the organisation for moral or ethical reasons. Organisational commitment is positively co-correlated with job productivity. The relationship between commitment and job performance is strongest for new employees and is weaker for more experienced employees. There is a negative correlationship between organisational commitment and absenteeism as well as turnover.

Research studies have demonstrated that employees from different cultures are committed to their organisations in different ways.

- Normative commitment was higher in the Chinese sample rather than in the Canadian and South Korean samples.

- Affective commitment was also found to be higher in China than in Canada and South Korea.

- Recent research has also shown that organisational commitment is probably less important as a work-related attitude than it was once.

4. Perceived Organisational Support (POS): It is defined as the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being. People perceive their organisation as supportive when:

- Rewards are deemed fair.
- When employees have a voice in decisions.
- When their supervisors are seen as supportive.

It has also been observed that employees with strong POS perceptions are likely to have higher levels of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Job Performance. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is an informal form of behaviour in which people go beyond what is formally expected of them to contribute to the well-being of their organisation and those in it.

5. Employee Engagement and Job Engagement: Employee engagement can be defined as an individual's involvement with, satisfaction with and enthusiasm for, the work he/she does. Highly engaged employees have a passion for their work and feel a deep connection to their company. Disengaged employees do not put their energy or effort, they only put their time. It has been observed that employees who demonstrate higher than average levels of engagement showed:

(a) Higher levels of customer satisfaction

(b) Were more productive

(c) Had higher levels of profits and

(d) Had lower levels of turnover and accidents

Watson and Waytt's Survey report has revealed that in Asia-Pacific region, the key factors that lead to engagement include:

- Customer focus
- Compensation and benefits
- Communication

In India, the key driver of engagement is performance management rather than communication. It has also been observed that:

- Highly engaged employees are committed and focused.
- They were also more likely to be top performers.
- They tend to stay for a longer time in their companies.
- Engaged employees were five times less likely to have accidents and when it did occur, it was much less serious and less costly.

Increase in engagement lead to drop in grievances and increase in highly satisfied customers. Job engagement occurs when there are:

- Clear job guidelines.
- Personal control/autonomy over job performance.
- Performing work consistent with one's identity.

The various job attitudes such as organisational commitment, job involvement, perceived organisational support, etc., are highly correlated to each other.

2.5 SUMMARY:

In this unit we have discussed the nature and definition of attitudes and the main components of attitudes. The three main components of attitudes that we discussed were Affective Component, Behavioural Component and Cognitive Component. We have also discussed whether behaviour always follows from attitudes. We have discussed the concept of cognitive dissonance and the concept of moderating variables with reference to attitudes. We had also discussed some of the most powerful moderators of the attitude behaviour relationship. Following this we had discussed the major job related attitudes. The five major job related attitudes include Job Satisfaction, Job Involvement, Organisational Commitment, Perceived Organisational Support and Employee Engagement or Job Engagement.

2.6 GLOSSARY:

Attitudes: Attitudes represent beliefs, feelings and action tendencies towards objects, ideas or people.

Cognitive Dissonance: It refers to any incompatibility between two or more attitudes or between behaviour and attitudes. It is defined as an unpleasant internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more of their attitudes or between their attitudes and their behaviour.

Moderating Variable: The moderating variable is one that has a strong contingent effect on the independent variable and dependent variable relationship.

Job involvement: It refers to the degree to which a person identifies with a job, actively participates in it and considers performance important to self-worth. It refers to 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.

Organisational Commitment: It refers to a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organisation.

Employee Engagement: Employee engagement also called as Job Engagement can be defined as an individual's involvement with, satisfaction with and enthusiasm for, the work he/she does.

Perceived Organisational Support (POS): It is defined as the degree to which employees believe the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being.

2.7   SUGGESTED READINGS:

Robbins, S. P., Judge, T. A., & Sanghi, S. (2009). <u>Organizational Behavior.</u> (13[th]ed.), Pearson Education, Dorling Kindersley, New Delhi

Muchinsky, P.M. (2003). <u>Psychology Applied to Work.</u>(7th ed.). Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning

Landy, F. J., & Conte, J. M. (2004). <u>Work In The 21st Century.</u> (International ed.), McGraw Hill co.

2.8   QUESTIONS:

1.   Define Attitude and discuss the main components of Attitude.

2.   Write short notes on the following with reference to job satisfaction:
    - Cognitive Dissonance
    - Moderating Variables

3.   Discuss major job attitudes and its effects.

4.   Define or explain the following terms
    i.   Attitudes
    ii.   Cognitive Dissonance
    iii. Moderating Variable
    iv.   Job involvement
    v.   Organisational Commitment
    vi.   Employee Engagement
    vii. Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

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TOPIC - II

ATTITUDES AND JOB SATISFACTION – II

UNIT STRUCTURE:

3.0   OBJECTIVES:

This unit has the following objectives.

- To understand the concept and nature of job-satisfaction
- To know the various measures of job-satisfaction
- To discuss the various causes of job-satisfaction
- To explain the various implications of Job-satisfaction/job-dissatisfaction
- To understand the global implications of Job-satisfaction by discussing cross cultural data.

3.1   INTRODUCTION:

In this unit we would discuss the concept of Job-satisfaction, which is one type of job attitude. Job-satisfaction describes a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. Psychologists have been concerned with measurement of job satisfaction, what causes job satisfaction and the impact of satisfaction and dissatisfaction on employee's behaviour at workplace. Towards the end of the chapter, we will discuss about the global implications of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is an important element of work related attitude. It can be defined as a set of favourable or unfavorable feelings and emotions with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction is also defined as the sum total of attitudes a worker has towards his company, job content, supervision, salary and rewards, working environment, co-workers and other work related factors. The term job satisfaction is used to refer to attitude of a single employee. The term used to refer to over all group satisfaction in morale.

3.2   MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION:

An employee's assessment of how satisfied he/she is with the job is a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements, because a person's job includes many things, some of which are as follows:

i.   Handling paperwork
ii. Writing a program code
iii. Waiting for customers
iv. Driving a truck
v.   Interacting with co-workers, bosses, clients, customers, etc.
vi. Following organisational rules and policies
vii. Meeting performance standards
viii.Living with working conditions that are often less than ideal, etc.

Two important widely used approaches to measurement of job satisfaction include:

1.   Single global rating: The single global rating method is a response to one question, such as "overall how satisfied you are with your job on a five point scale":

2.   A summation score made up of a number of facets: The second approach which consists of a summation of score made up of a number of job facets is more sophisticated. It identifies key elements in a job and asks for the employee's feelings about each. Typical elements include:

• Nature of work
• Supervision
• Present pay
• Promotion opportunities
• Relations with coworkers

Respondents rate these elements on a standardised scale and researchers add the ratings to create an overall job satisfaction score. Some researchers believe that the approach using summation score gives a more accurate evaluation of job satisfaction.

How satisfied are people in their jobs? Research studies carried out during the last few years in USA and most developed countries have pointed out that most people are satisfied with their jobs.

Satisfaction levels have found to vary considerably depending upon which facets of job satisfaction one measures. People, on an average, have been found to be satisfied with following three things:

- Their overall job
- Their work itself
- With their supervisors and coworkers

In general, people are found to be less satisfied with their pay and with promotion opportunities. Studies conducted in the Asia-Pacific region have also found compensation and benefits to be a major source of complaint among employees. One study covering more than 500 companies in a dozen Asian countries found that only 30 per cent of the employees were satisfied with compensation benefits.

3.3 CAUSES OF JOB-SATISFACTION:

Research studies have revealed that following factors contribute to job satisfaction (not necessarily in the same order).

i. Challenging and stimulating work environment
ii. Nature of work
iii. Pay
iv. Advancement opportunities
v. Supervision
vi. Co-workers
vii. Jobs that provide training opportunities,variety, independence and control.

Research studies have also found that pay/salary and job satisfaction are highly correlated, especially among people who live in poor countries. However, once an individual reaches a level of comfortable living, the relationship virtually disappears. One's personality variables also influence the experience of job satisfaction. It has been noted that people who are less positive about themselves are less likely to like their jobs. People who have

positive core self-evaluations, i.e., who believe in their inner worth and basic competence are more satisfied with their jobs than those with negative core self-evaluations. Not only have they seen their work as more challenging and fulfilling but they are also more likely to gravitate towards challenging jobs. Those who have negative core self-evaluations generally set less ambitious goals and are more likely to give up when they encounter difficulties. Those who have negative core self-evaluations are likely to land up in boring, repetitive jobs leading to experience of job dissatisfaction.

3.4 IMPLICATIONS OF JOB-SATISFACTION / JOB-DISSATISFACTION:

One model that helps to explain the implications of employee dissatisfaction includes four types of behaviour: "Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect".

Exit: This response occurs when employees prepare to leave the organisation. Such employees look for new jobs, positions, organisation, etc. They seek voluntary retirement, go on long, indefinite leave or resign from jobs.

Voice: This response involves making constructive attempts to improve the situation/conditions. They suggest improvements; discuss problems with supervisor/ boss/management, etc. They also undertake some form of union activity, indulge in agitation, etc.

Loyalty: This response involves passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve. They do not criticise the management / boss. They often stand by the organisation in the face of external criticism and they have faith in the management and trust them and the organisation to "do the right thing".

Neglect: This response involves passively allowing the conditions to worsen. It leads to behaviours such as absenteeism, coming late to work, reduced effort, increased error rate, poor quality of output, etc.

Exit and neglect response lead to following three types of workplace behaviour:
1. Reduce productivity
2. Increased absenteeism
3. Increased turnover

Voice and loyalty are constructive response to dissatisfaction. It demonstrates employee's tolerance. Union members express dissatisfaction in following ways:

- Grievance procedure
- Contract negotiation

The following outcome of employee satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction at workplace is worth noting and will be discussed briefly.
1. Job satisfaction and job performance
2. Job satisfaction and OCB
3. Job satisfaction and customer satisfaction
4. Job satisfaction and absenteeism
5. Job satisfaction and turnover
6. Job satisfaction and workplace deviance
7. Perception of managers about employee satisfaction/ dissatisfaction

We would discuss each of these briefly.

1.   Job satisfaction and job performance: High positive correlationship has been observed between job satisfaction and job performance. Happy workers have been found to be most productive workers. Recent reviews of more than 300 studies by Judge *et al.* (2001) have found that the correlationship between job satisfaction and job performance is very strong. It has also been observed that organisations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organisations with fewer satisfied employees.

2.   Job satisfaction and Organisation Citizenship Behaviour (OCB): Job satisfaction has been found to be a major determinant of an employee's OCB. Satisfied employees are more likely to talk positive about the organisation, help others and go beyond normal expectations in their job. Satisfied employees often go beyond their call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Some research studies have revealed that job satisfaction is moderately correlated with OCB. People who are more satisfied with their jobs are more likely to engage in OCB. Those who are satisfied also perceive fairness in their jobs in terms of outcomes, procedures and treatment.

3.   Job satisfaction and customer satisfaction: One of the important questions that have been often asked is that is employee satisfaction related to positive customer outcomes. The answer as provided by large number of research studies is "yes". It has been observed that satisfied employee increases customer satisfaction and loyalty. Satisfaction of employees in service organisation is of great importance because in such an organisation, customer retention and defection are highly dependent on how front-line employees deal with customers. Satisfied employees are more likely to be friendly, upbeat and responsive which customers

appreciate. Satisfied employees establish good rapport and bonding with customers. It has also been observed that dissatisfied customers can increase employee's dissatisfaction. Employees who have regular contacts with such customers often report that rude, thoughtless or unreasonably demanding customers adversely affect employee's job satisfaction. Many service organisations are highly obsessed with pleasing their customers. These organisations include:

- FedEx
- Southwest Airlines
- Four Seasons
- American Express
- Office Depot, etc.

Since these organisations are primarily concerned with pleasing their customers, they also tend to see to it that their employees are satisfied. They make active attempts to keep the satisfaction levels of their employees high. In order to achieve employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction, these organisations indulge in following:

- Hire upbeat and friendly employees.
- Train employees in the importance of customer service.
- They reward customer service.
- They provide employee work climate.
- They regularly track employee satisfaction through attitude surveys.

4.   Job satisfaction and absenteeism: There is a moderate to low negative corelationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. Dissatisfied employees are more likely to miss work, go on leave — either medical or long unpaid leave, etc. High absenteeism is detrimental for the efficient working of an organisation. Company's resources cannot be fully utilised if more people remain absent. Increase absenteeism is a sign of dissatisfaction. Absenteeism can also drain an organisation's resources because replaced employees will have to be paid overtime or double salary. Replaced employees, in place of those who are absent, may also not be efficient as the regular employees.

5.   Job satisfaction and turnover: Turnover is defined as the proportion of employees leaving an organisation during a given period of time (usually one year). Job satisfaction is negatively correlated with turnover. Correlation is stronger than that found for absenteeism. Turnover among employees is influenced by following factors:

- Availability of alternative job opportunities.
- Length of tenure with the organisation.
- Level of performance, i.e., whether you are a poor or high performer.

Job satisfaction is more important in influencing poor performers to stay than in retaining superior performers.

Satisfied employees generally do not think about quitting the jobs. Higher rate of turnover is generally found among employees who have lower satisfaction. Some important factors that are associated with high job turnover are as follows:

- Lack of self-fulfillment.
- Not receiving due recognition for one's work.
- Experiencing continued conflict with a supervisor or peer.
- Reaching personal plateau in one's career.

High employee turnover has many negative consequences; some of which are as follows:

- The cost of replacing an employee, especially experienced employee, is generally very high.
- Loss of co-worker due to turnover may lead to demoralising effect on the remaining workers.
- Work and social patterns are often disrupted until proper replacement is found.

High turnover can affect business, customer relations and stability in functioning. A manager in whose department there is a high turnover would reflect poorly on the manager. It would indicate that concerned manager either lacks the necessary human relations skill or something is wrong with his strategy that is the cause of his high turnover in his/her department.

In spite of its negative consequences, high employee turnover have many functional effects. It provides opportunities for internal promotion. Some important characteristics of employers with lower employee turnover are as follows:

- They clarify job expressions.
- Provide opportunities for employees to excel.
- They use their employee's talents in optimal manner.
- They offer recognition and praise regularly.
- They demonstrate and make their employees feel that the employer cares for them and has concern for them.

6. Job satisfaction and workplace deviance: Job satisfaction has also been found to be highly correlated with the following:

- Unionisation attempts
- Substance abuse
- Stealing at workplace
- Undue socialising
- Tardiness

Researchers opine that these behaviours are a part of a problem called as "deviant behaviour at workplace" also called as employee withdrawal.

7.   Perception of managers about employee satisfaction/ dissatisfaction: Managers often overestimate the degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs. Manager's perception is different from how employees perceive satisfaction/ dissatisfaction. In one study, Holland (2007) found that 86 per cent of senior managers believed their organisation treated its employees well but only 55 per cent of the employees agreed. Similarly, 55% of managers thought morale was good in their organisation, compared to only 38 per cent of employees.

3.5   GLOBAL IMPLICATIONS

How do people manifest and react to job satisfaction in different countries. There are not much cross-cultural differences with respect to job satisfaction. Two important questions concerning global implications and job satisfaction are as follows:

(i) Are employees in western cultures more satisfied with their jobs?

(ii) How do Asian employees fare in terms of satisfaction and engagement?

We would discuss each of these briefly.

(i) **Are employees in western cultures more satisfied with their jobs?** Job satisfaction is important across cultures, though there is less cross-cultural differences. One significant cross-cultural difference is with respect to levels of job satisfaction. It has been observed that employees in Western cultures have higher levels of job satisfaction than those in eastern countries. Benz and Frey (2003) found that employees of Denmark, Switzerland and USA had the highest levels of job satisfaction compared to Russia.

(ii) **How do Asian employees fare in terms of satisfaction and engagement?** Indian workers have been found to be least satisfied with their compensation benefits. It has also been found that compared to employees in other Asian countries, Indian workers are happier with:

- Their work environment
- Teamwork
- Supervision
- Training at workplace

With respect to employee engagement, it has been found that European workers score highest in levels of engagement followed by workers in Asia-Pacific region. USA workers were found to be least engaged. Engagement was higher in Europe due to following reasons:

- Shorter work weeks
- Work-life balance
- Vacation time

In Asia, workers are engaged due to following factors:

- Buoyancy in economy
- Optimistic job outlook

Within Asia-Pacific region, India leads in engagement levels which were found to be 78% followed by Philippines and Japan. China was found to score lower on engagement levels.

3.5   SUMMARY:

In this unit we have discussed the concept and nature of Job-satisfaction and the measurement of Job-satisfaction. Two widely used approaches to measurement of job-satisfaction were discussed. These included Single global rating and a Summation score made up of a number of facets.

Job satisfaction of people varies with respect to three aspects of their job which include their overall job, their work itself and satisfaction with respect to their supervisors and coworkers. It has been observed that in general, people are found to be less satisfied with their pay and with promotion opportunities.

Implications of job-satisfaction and dissatisfaction were discussed with reference to four types of behaviour which include "Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect". Implications of job satisfaction was also discussed with respect to wide variety of behavious such as job performance, OCB, customer satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover, workplace deviance and perception of managers with regard to employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Towards the end of this unit we had discussed global implications of job-satisfaction especially with respect to how do people manifest and react to job satisfaction in different countries.

3.7   GLOSSARY:

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): As defined by Organ (1988) refers to "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p.4).

Turnover: It is defined as the proportion of employees leaving an organisation during a given period of time (usually one year).

3.8   SUGGESTED READINGS:

Robbins, S. P., Judge, T. A., & Sanghi, S. (2009). Organizational Behavior. (13thed.), Pearson Education, Dorling Kindersley, New Delhi

Muchinsky, P.M. (2003). Psychology Applied to Work.(7th ed.). Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning

Landy, F. J., & Conte, J. M. (2004). Work In The 21st Century. (International ed.), McGraw Hill co.

3.9   QUESTIONS:

1. What is job satisfaction? Discus its measurement and causes.
2. Discuss the impact of employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction at workplace.
3. Write a note on "Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect" with reference to implications of employee dissatisfaction.
4. Write a note on Global implications and job satisfaction.
5. Write a note on:
    a. Job satisfaction and turnover
    b. Job satisfaction and customer satisfaction

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4

PERSONALITY AND PERCEPTION

Unit structure

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4.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to understand -

- The psychoanalytic view of human mind, its views on division of personality and the stages of personality development
- Personality and values and their link to workplace
- How perception affect our decision making

4.1 INTRODUCTION PERSONALITY

Though all human beings are similar in many ways they perceive, learn, remember, think and feel, yet there are individual differences and each one of us is unique. These differences and uniqueness is due to personality differences. Personality is an important dimension of individual differences. Personality has been the area of interest for psychology for more than 100 years. This and the next unit would provide an exposure to different personality theories, ranging from classical to contemporary. This unit discusses psychodynamic and humanistic theories of personality. The next unit discusses trait and socio-cognitive theories of personality.

Personality can be considered as sum-total of who you are – emotions, attitudes, motives, and behaviour. No two people are same because they have different personality.

Personality is unique and relatively stable way in which people feel, think, and behave throughout the life.

Personality can be defined as a person's characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting (Mayers ,2013).

4.2 PERSONALITY FRAMEWORKS

4.2.1 Freud's Psychoanalytic Perspective: Exploring the Unconscious:

Sigmund Freud was born 1856. That was a Victorian era in Europe – a time of tremendous discovery and scientific advancement, but also a time of sexual repression and male dominance. In general, only male sexuality was acknowledged and that too very discreetly. Freud was very independent, brilliant and voracious book reader right from his teens. He became a doctor specializing in nervous disorders and started a private clinic. Very soon he became famous because of his work in psychiatry. Till today his influence lingers in psychiatry and clinical psychology as well as in many other courses.

Many of his patients were rich females, and while treating them he realized that they had disorders without any neurological

base, e.g., a patient may complain that she has lost all sensations in her hand and yet he observed that no sensory nerve was damaged that would numb only the entire hand but nothing else. Freud's search for a cause for such disorders made him realize that some neurological disorders can have psychological causes. He called his theory of personality and the associated treatment techniques as Psychoanalysis. In his personality theory, he emphasized first of all on division of mind, then on structure of personality, psycho-sexual stages of personality development and defense mechanism.

Division of the Mind:

Freud believed that mind is divided into three parts. The conscious, the preconscious, and the unconscious.

1) The Conscious Mind:

The conscious mind is the uppermost part of the mind. It contains information one is aware of at any given time. This is an Individual's current perceptions, memories, thoughts, fantasies, feelings that he is aware of. It is quite close to *short-term memory* concept which you have studied in earlier chapters. Freud believed that mind is mostly hidden and the conscious awareness is like the part of an iceberg. In other words, what we are aware of is a very small part of our consciousness and beneath this awareness is the large unconscious mind with its thoughts, wishes, feelings and memories.

2) The Preconscious Mind:

The preconscious mind contains ideas, feelings, events, concerns beliefs, thoughts that person is not aware at present but can easily be made accessible to the conscious. This contains memories that are not at the moment in the conscious thought process, but can readily be brought to mind whenever needed. It works closely with the conscious mind. Today, it can be called as explicit long-term-memory. But Freud suggested that these two are the smallest parts of mind.

3) The Unconscious Mind:

The unconscious mind (often called as "the unconscious") is the most central and significant part of Freudian theory. The unconscious is most important determinant of human personality and behaviour. According to Freud, the unconscious is a mass of unacceptable passions and thoughts that he believed we repress or forcibly block from our consciousness because it would be too stressful to acknowledge them. These are the major source of our motivations ranging from simple desires for food, and sex to the complex motives like creativity of an artist. This largest part of mind remains hidden to conscious. Without our awareness, these

troubleshooting feelings and ideas powerfully influence us, sometimes getting expressed in disguised form such as dreams, slip of tongue or pen, the work we choose, the beliefs we hold, our daily habits, or other behavior that people carry out without understanding the reasons for it. He believed that nothing is ever accidental and considered jokes as expression of repressed sexual and aggressive tendencies and dreams as the "royal road to the unconscious". In dream analyses, he searched for patients' inner conflicts.

To gain access to patients' unconscious mind, initially he used hypnosis. But that did not work. So, he devised a new method called **"Free Association".** In using this method, he asked his patients to relax and say whatever came to their mind, no matter how embarrassing or trivial it is. He assumed that certain mental blocks from patient's distant past are responsible for his troubled present and free association will allow him to retrace those mental blocks, allowing him to peep into patient's unconscious mind and retrieve and remove painful memories stored from his childhood.

Personality Structure:

According to Freud, personality can be divided into three parts. They dynamically interact with each other. They are: Id, Ego, and Superego.

1) ID:

The first and primitive part of personality is Id. It is present since infancy. It is completely unconscious and amoral. It contains all the basic biological drives to survive, reproduce and aggress. The id is the impulsive, child-like portion of the psyche that operates on the "pleasure principle". The **pleasure principle** states that there should be immediate gratification of the needs without caring about outside world's restrictions or societal conventions of civilized, standard, and moral behaviour. People dominated by ID will concentrate on present pleasure rather than think about future pleasure, e.g., they will enjoy parties, movies now rather than sacrifice today's pleasure for future success and happiness.

Freud believed that human personality is the result of our efforts to resolve these conflicts between impulses and restraints between our aggressive, pleasure seeking biological urges and our internalized social control over these urges.

2) EGO:

This second part of personality is developed to handle the reality. It is partially conscious part of mind that includes our higher cognitive abilities, rationality, perceptions, thoughtfulness, memories, learning, and logical processes. It provides buffer between illogical, amoral impulses of id and societal restrictions.

The Ego works on reality principle, which means that the id's drives are satisfied in a realistic way that will avoid negative outcomes and will bring long term pleasure. So, there are times when ego denies the gratification of id's drive because of possible negative consequences. For example, if a very young kid is hungry, then he picks up food from anybody's plate, but slightly older kids will not do that. Instead they would wait for their plate to come or make a request in more formal ways. If they are at stranger's place, then they will prefer to stay hungry than asking for food. This is because ego develops with the age.

3) SUPEREGO:

Freud believed that around the age of 4 or 5 our superego starts developing and ego starts recognizing the demands of superego. **Superego** represents our moral values imbided from the society. These are the rules and regulations about what is right and wrong taught by parents, teachers, and important others. The superego tells us how we ought to behave. It forces ego to consider not only the real world but also the ideal world. In other worlds, it tells ego to not only avoid punishment but also to strive for ideal behavior. It strives for perfection. It prevents us from doing morally incorrect things, by producing guilt (also called as *moral anxiety*). It produces feeling of pride when we do morally correct things. A person with very strong superego may be virtuous and yet guilt-ridden, while another person with weak superego may be low in using self-restraint and yet may not feel any guilt.

Fig. 14.1
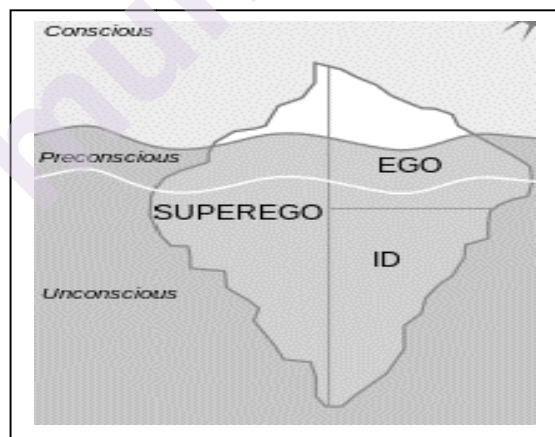
Since the Id is unrealistically impulsive and the superego is unrealistically moralistic, the id and superego's demands are always in conflict, the ego tries to strike a balance between the two. The ego is the "executive" part of the personality. It mediates between the impulsive demands of the id and the restraining demands of the superego and the real life demands of the external world. Anxiety is created when ego cannot meet their needs. Extreme anxiety leads to disorders. The Psychological Defense

Mechanisms are used to deal with anxiety and stress created by conflicts between the three components of personality. They are unconscious strategies people use to deal with the anxiety and by distorting the reality. They have been classified as psychotic, immature, neurotic and healthy defense mechanisms. But before talking about defense mechanisms in detail let us look at the developmental stages of personality.

Developmental Stages of Personality:

Freud proposed that development of personality takes place when a child passes through a series of psychosexual stages. Freud has identified particular body parts as a focus of specific developmental stage. In each psychosexual stage, id's pleasure seeking energies focus on specific body parts that provide sensation of pleasure during that stage. It is called as erogenous zone. In every psychosexual stage, there is a conflict between id, ego and superego. Conflicts unresolved during earlier psychosexual stages could lead to maladaptive behavior in the adult years. These stages are *Oral, Anal, Phallic, Latency, and Genital*.

Table 14.1

Freud's Psychosexual Stages of Development

Stage	Age	Erogenous	Characteristics
Oral	Birth to 18 months	Mouth	Indulges in oral activities like sucking, biting, mouthing, eating, to obtain pleasure.
Anal	18 to 36 months	Anus	Gratification obtained from withholding and expelling fesses, try to handle the pressures of society regarding toilet training. Fixation leads to anal expulsive or anal-retentive personality.
Phallic	3-6years	Genitals	Derives pleasure by fondling genitals. Oedipal Conflict is important characteristics, and it is resolved by identifying with same sex parents.

Latency	6 years to Puberty	Adolescence Social skills intellectual abilities.	The sexual feelings are kept latent by repressing them in unconscious.
Genital	Puberty onwards		Maturation of sexual interests - The mature, adult sexuality develops during this stage.

1) Oral Stage:

The duration of first stage of psychosexual development, namely Oral Stage, is from birth to 18 months. The erogenous zone of oral stage is mouth. Children enjoy activities like sucking, biting, mouthing, etc. The conflict that is experienced in this stage is weaning the child from bottle or mother's breast feed. The child will get fixated in the oral stage if the child overindulges (continue to breast/bottle feed for longer duration)or become frustrated (due to early or abrupt weaning) with the oral gratification. This leads to development of oral personality in adulthood. Aggressive-pessimistic traits develop if oral needs are under gratified and dependency-optimism develops if they are over gratified. If they are over gratified, they may continue to seek oral gratification by overeating, talking too much, smoking, etc. If they are weaned away too early leading to under gratification they may act tough or speak in "bitingly" sarcastic way, etc.

2) Anal Stage:

The duration of Anal Stage of psychosexual development is from 18 months to 3 years. The erogenous zone of anal stage is anus. Children at this stage derive pleasure by both withholding and expulsion of fesses at will. In addition to physical pleasure, child also derives pleasure from self-control and the praise from parents. The conflict that is experienced in this stage is toilet training. The child will get fixated in the anal stage if toilet training is too harsh. The conflict leads to development of anal personality in adulthood. They are of two types: *anal expulsive personalities* and *anal retentive personalities*. Anal Expulsive Personality results from child's rebel against toilet training by parents. The adult would show destructiveness, hostility, emotional outbursts, disorganization, rebelliousness and carelessness. They could also become extremely generous and indiscipline. Anal-Retentive Personality develops due to fear of punishment. The child retains fesses and refuses to go to toilet. They develop traits like excessive orderliness, neatness, stubbornness, a compulsion for control and have interest in collecting, holding, and retaining objects.

3) Phallic Stage:

The Phallic Stage is between 3 years to 6 years. The genitals are erogenous zone during this stage. Child derives pleasure by fondling genitals. They develop unconscious sexual desires for their mother and jealousy and hatred for their fathers, whom they consider as their rivals. Similarly, girls develop unconscious sexual desire for their fathers. Boys experience Oedipal Conflict and girls experience Electra Complex in this phase. Father is perceived as powerful, and they develop castration anxiety, a fear that their penis will be cut-off by their fathers, if fathers come to know of their sexual attraction towards their mothers. To resolve this anxiety boys Identify with their fathers and girls identify with their mothers. This is called as Oedipus complex. According to Freud, girls get attracted to father and experience penis envy, feeling of inferiority for not having that anatomical part. They held mother responsible for this. To resolve this conflictual feeling towards mother, girls identify with mother. Normal sexual development occurs if the conflict is resolved. Immature sexual attitudes, promiscuous or sexually inhibited behaviour, and sexual confusion in adulthood may result from fixation in phallic stage.

4) Latency Stage:

The duration of this stage is from 7 to 12 years. The sexual feeling of child is repressed in unconscious, or kept *latent*, and the child grows physically, intellectually, and socially. This is relatively a calm stage where sexual energy is converted into interest in excelling in school work and sports, etc.

5) Genital Stage:

The duration of this phase is from 13 years onwards till death. The mature, adult sexuality develops during this stage. At this stage, once again the attention is shifted to genitals but sexual attraction is shifted from one's parents to members of the opposite sex. Sexual urges are expressed through socially approved channels. Sex takes a matured form by moving from desire for pleasure only to a desire for reproduction. The sexual and aggressive motives are transferred into energy for marriage, occupation and child rearing.

Defense Mechanisms:

Table 14.2

Defense Mechanism	Unconscious process employed to avoid anxiety-arousing thoughts/feelings	Examples
Regression	Reverting back to more immature behavior from infantile psychosexual stage, where some psychic energy remains fixated.	Throwing temper tantrums as an adult when you don't get your way or reverting back to the oral comfort of thumb sucking.
Reaction Formation	Acting in exactly the opposite way to one's unacceptable impulses.	Being overprotective of and generous towards an unwanted child, or repressing angry feelings, a person may display exaggerated friendliness.
Projection	Attributing one's own unacceptable feelings and thoughts to others and not to yourself.	Accusing your friend on cheating on you because you have felt like cheating on her. There is a saying "The thief thinks everyone else is a thief".
Rationalization	Creating false excuses for one's unacceptable feelings and thoughts to others and not to yourself. In other words, offering self-justifying explanations in place of the real, more threatening unconscious reasons for one's actions.	Justifying cheating in an exam by saying that everyone else does that, or a habitual drinker says he drinks just to be sociable.

Displacement	Redirecting unacceptable feelings from the original source to a safer, more acceptable substitute target.	Taking your anger towards your boss out on your wife or children by shouting at them and not at your boss or a child bangs the door hard instead of shouting back at his mother.
Denial	Blocking external events from awareness. If some situation is just too much to handle, the person refuses to believe or even perceive painful realities.	Smokers may refuse to admit to themselves that smoking is bad for health, or a person may refuse to believe that his son is involved in anti-national activities.

Freud held that anxiety is the price we pay for civilization. There is a constant tug of war between id and superego and ego has to balance both of them. Sometimes, ego fears losing control over this inner war and we experience anxiety. At such times, ego protects itself with defense mechanisms, i.e., the tactics used to reduce or redirect anxiety by distorting reality. All these defense mechanisms work at unconscious level and ego unconsciously defends itself against anxiety. Some of these defense mechanisms are discussed here.

4.2.2 The Neo-Freudian and Psychodynamic Theorists:

Freud's theory has been criticized as well as praised by his contemporaries and by other psychologists later. Those who followed broad framework of Freud and developed their own theories of psychoanalysis are called as Neo-Freudians. Neo-Freudians accepted his basic ideas such as personality structure of id, ego, superego; the importance of the unconscious; the shaping of personality in childhood; and the role of anxiety and defense mechanisms in personality development. However, they did not agree with the idea that only sex and aggression are dominant motives in our lives. They believed that social interaction also plays an important role. Similarly, while accepting the role of unconscious mind they emphasized the role of conscious mind also in interpreting our experiences and in coping with our environment. Some of the important Neo-Freudian theorists are Jung, Adler, Horney, etc.

Carl Jung:

Carl Gustav Jung differed from Freud on the nature of unconscious and parted away from Freud. In addition to Personal Unconscious, he developed the concept of Collective Unconscious. It is the store house of our experiences as a species since ancient ages. We are born with it and are not conscious of it. He called these collective universal human memories as Archetypes, an unlearned inclination to experience world in a particular way. Among the many archetypes, *Mother* (our inner tendency to identify a particular relationship of "mothering"),*Anima/Animus* (feminine component within males/ masculine component within females), *Shadow* (dark side of ego containing sex and life instincts), *persona* (individuals public image) are important.

Jung was initially Freud's disciple but later turned his dissenter. While he agreed with the idea that unconscious exerts a powerful influence on our behavior, he believed that unconscious holds more than our repressed thoughts and feelings. He criticized Freud's theory of the Oedipus complex and his emphasis on infantile sexuality. He said we all have a collective unconscious, a storehouse of repressed memories specific to the individual and our ancestral past. This is a level of unconscious shared with other members of the human species comprising latent memories from our ancestral and evolutionary past. 'The form of the world into which [a person] is born is already inborn in him, as a virtual image' (Jung, 1953, p. 188). Jung called these ancestral memories and images that have universal meaning across cultures as archetypes. These archetypes show up in dreams, literature, art or religion. These past experiences explain why people in different cultures share certain myths and images, e.g., mother as a symbol of nurturance, or fear of the dark, or of snakes and spiders.

Alfred Adler:

Alfred Adler had struggled to overcome his own childhood illnesses and accidents due to which he had suffered from inferiority complex. So, while proposing the concept of inferiority complex he stated that everybody experiences sense of inferiority, weakness and helplessness as a child and struggle to overcome the inadequacies by become superior and powerful adults. He identified 'striving for superiority' as a thrust propelling thought, feelings, and actions of humans. Two important concepts in his theory are: Parenting and Birth Order. According to Adler, the order in which person is born in the family innately influences persons personality. The *first born*, experience crisis as the attention shifts to younger sibling after their births and to overcome this they become overachievers. *Middle born children* are not pampered but get the attention and become more superior. After dethroning older sibling, they have power over their younger siblings and engage in

healthy competition. *The youngest children* have the least amount of power in family and are more pampered and protected. This creates a sense that they cannot take responsibilities and feel inferior to others.

Adler identified two Parenting Styles that leads to problems in adulthood: *Pampering and Neglect*. Pampering parents overprotect a child, provide excessive attention, and protect from the dark part of life. As adults, child has poor skills to deal with realities, self-doubts about abilities. A Neglecting Parent do not protect child at all, and they are left to deal with life problems alone. As adults, they fear the world, cannot trust others, and have trouble in developing close relations.

Karen Horney:

Karen Horney differed from Freud on his masculine focus and idea of 'penis envy' and women having weak superego. She substituted the concept of 'penis envy' with her idea of 'womb envy'. She said that "The view that women are infantile and emotional creatures, and as such, incapable of responsibility and independence is the work of the masculine tendency to lower women's self-respect". She considered the basic anxiety, a feeling of fearfulness and anxiety experience in childhood triggers the desire for love and security.

Post Freud's life, most contemporary psychodynamic theorists and therapists do not accept the idea of sex as the basis of personality. They do not accept the idea of id, ego and superego and do not classify their patients in terms of oral, anal or phallic characters. But they do accept that much of our mental life is unconscious, that very often we struggle with inner conflicts among our wishes, fears and values and that our childhood experiences shape our personality and the way we become attached to others in later life.

Neo-Freudians' major disagreements with Freud can be summarized as -

1. Socio cultural factors determine conflicts, not instincts.
2. Infantile sexuality is of little importance compared to socio-cultural factors. Conflicts can be or are predominately non-sexual.
3. Societal factors cause anxiety, not a defense.
4. Dreams have no latent content: could be metaphorical expressions of the patient's real concern or reflect struggles to achieve self-awareness and responsibility.
5. Oedipal complex has no sexual component, is due to interpersonal/ social factors.
6. Technique of treatment: normally emphasize 'here and now', de-emphasis on past, gaining insight etc.

4.2.3 Abraham Maslow's Self-Actualizing Person:

Maslow developed his theory based on healthy, creative people rather than troubled clinical cases. He proposed that we are motivated by a hierarchy of needs. First, we are motivated to satisfy our physiological needs followed by safety needs, then need to be loved or belong and then self-esteem and finally self-actualization and self-transcendence. Self-actualization refers to a process of fulfilling our potential and self-transcendence refers to searching meaning, purpose and communion beyond the self.

He based his study of self-actualization on the basis of studying people like Abraham Lincoln, who were known for their rich and productive lives. Maslow stated that such people share certain similar characteristics. They are more self-aware, self-accepting, open and spontaneous, loving and caring and not stuck by their own opinions. While working with college students, Maslow said that those who will become self-actualizing adults later on are the ones who are likeable, caring, privately affectionate to their elders and secretly uneasy about the cruelty, meanness and mob spirit.

Maslow's self-actualizing characteristics:

- **Efficient perceptions of reality**: Self-actualizers are able to judge situations correctly and honestly. They are very sensitive to the fake and dishonest, and are free to see reality 'as it is'.

- **Comfortable acceptance of self, others and nature:** Self-actualizers accept their own human nature with all its flaws. The shortcomings of others and the contradictions of the human condition are accepted with humor and tolerance.

- **Reliant on own experiences and judgment:** Independent, not reliant on culture and environment to form opinions and views.

- **Spontaneous and natural:** True to oneself, rather than being how others want. They have outgrown their mixed feelings towards their parents, have found their ultimate goals, have enough courage to be unpopular, to be unashamed about being openly virtuous.

- **Task centering:** Since they are secure in their sense of who they are, their interests are problem-centered and not self-centered. They focus their energies on a particular task and make that task as the mission of their lives. Most of Maslow's subjects had a mission to fulfill in life or some task or problem 'beyond' themselves to pursue

- **Autonomy:** Self-actualizers are free from reliance on external authorities or other people. They tend to be resourceful and independent.

- **Continued freshness of appreciation**: The self-actualizer seems to constantly renew appreciation of life's basic goods. A sunset or a flower will be experienced as intensely time after time as it was at first. There is an "innocence of vision", like that of an artist or child.

- **Profound interpersonal relationships:** The interpersonal relationships of self-actualizers are marked by deep loving bonds.

- **Comfort with solitude**: Despite their satisfying relationships with others, self-actualizing people value solitude and are comfortable being alone.

- **Non-hostile sense of humor:** This refers to the ability to laugh at oneself.

- **Peak experiences:** All of Maslow's subjects reported the frequent occurrence of peak experiences(temporary moments of self-actualization). These occasions were marked by feelings of ecstasy, harmony, and deep meaning. Self-actualizers reported feeling at one with the universe, stronger and calmer than ever before, filled with light, beauty, goodness, and so forth. According to Maslow, peak experiences are "Feelings of limitless horizons opening up to the vision, the feeling of being simultaneously more powerful and also more helpless than one ever was before, the feeling of ecstasy and wonder and awe, the loss of placement in time and space with, finally, the conviction that something extremely important and valuable had happened, so that the subject was to some extent transformed and strengthened even in his daily life by such experiences." In other words, these are moments of transcendence in which a person emerges feeling changed and transformed.

- **Socially compassionate:** Possessing humanity. They are emotionally mature and have learned enough about life so that they are compassionate towards others.

- **Few friends:** They have few close intimate friends rather than many superficial relationships.

4.2.4 Carl Rogers' Person-Centered Perspective:

Carl Roger also believed that people are basically good and are endowed with self-actualizing tendencies. Unless faced with an environment that hinders growth, each of us is like a fruit, ready for growth and fulfillment. Roger believed that growth promoting climate needs to fulfill three conditions:

1. **Genuineness**: Genuine people are open with their feelings, drop their pretentions or deceptive outward appearance, are transparent and self-disclosing.

2. **Acceptance:** When people are accepting, they offer unconditional positive regard, an attitude of grace that values us even knowing our failings. It is a great relief to drop our pretentions, confess our worst feelings, and discover that we are still accepted, that we are free to be spontaneous without feeling the loss of others' esteem.

3. **Empathy:** Empathic people share and mirror other's feelings and reflect their meanings.

Rogers believed that genuineness, acceptance and empathy are like water, sun and nutrients that help us to grow like a fruit. As people are accepted and prized, they tend to develop a more caring attitude toward themselves. When people are heard emphatically, it becomes possible for them to listen more accurately to the flow of inner experiencing. Unconditional love makes a person optimistic, enthusiastic and helpful. For Carl Rogers and Maslow, the central figure of personality is self-concept. Self-concept refers to all the thoughts and feelings that one has in response to a question-Who am I? If self-concept is positive we view the world positively and if we have negative self-concept, we view the world negatively and we will feel dissatisfied and unhappy.

4.3 OTHER PERSONALITY ATTRIBUTES RELEVANT TO OB

Following are the five major personality attributes that influence OB

Locus of Control

Locus of control is the center of control of an individual's code of conduct. People can be grouped into two categories i.e., internals and externals respectively. People who consider themselves as the masters of their own fates are known as internals, while, those who affirm that their lives are controlled by outside forces known as externals.

Before making any decision, internals actively search for information, they are achievement driven, and want to command their environment. Thus, internals do well on jobs that craves

complex information processing, taking initiative and independent action. Externals, on the other hand, are more compliant, more willing to follow instructions, so, they do well in structured, routine jobs.

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is being practical, emotionally distant, and believing that ends justify means. Machiavellians are always wanting to win and are great persuaders. Here are the significant features of a high-mach individuals −

- High-Machs prefer precise interactions rather than beating about the bush.
- High-Machs tend to improvise; they do not necessarily abide by rules and regulations all the time.
- High-Machs get distracted by emotional details that are irrelevant to the outcome of a project.

Self-esteem

It is the extent up to which people either like or dislike themselves. Self-Esteem is directly related to the expectations of success and on-the-job satisfaction. Individuals with high self-esteem think that they have what it takes to succeed. So, they take more challenges while selecting a job.

On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external distractions. So, they are more likely to seek the approval of others and to adapt the beliefs and behaviors of those they respect.

Self-monitoring

Self-monitoring is the capability of regulating one's behavior according to social situations. Individuals with high self-monitoring skill easily adjust their behavior according to external, situational factors. Their impulsive talents allow them to present public personae which are completely different from their private personalities.

However, people with low self-monitoring skills cannot cover themselves. Regardless of any situation, they are always themselves. They have an attitude of, "what you see is what you get."

Risk taking

Generally, managers are reluctant on taking risks. However, individual risk-taking inclination affects the bulk of information required by the managers and how long it takes them to make decisions.

Thus, it is very important to recognize these differences and align risk-taking propensity with precise job demands that can make sense.

4.4 VALUES

Values Meaning

Meaning of values: Values can be defined as an individual's beliefs concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes. Values reflect an individual's sense of right or wrong and what "ought" to be. Values are so inculcated that they can be presumed from people's behaviour, personality, perception, and motivation. They generally influence their behaviour. Values are relatively stable and enduring. This is because of how they are originally learned. Some common values organizational behavior has are fairness, innovation and community involvement.

Concept of values: A value system is seen as a permanent perceptual framework that influences the nature of a person's behaviour. The values are the attributes possessed by a person and thought desirable. Values are similar to attitudes but they are permanent and well-built in nature. Everyone has a hierarchy of values that forms a value system. This system is identified by the relative importance they assign to such values as respect, equality, freedom, self-respect, obedience, honesty, and so on.

Values Definition

According to M.Rokeach, "Values are global beliefs that guide actions and judgements across a variety of situations".

According to Stephen Robbins, "Values are 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".

According to Edward Spranger, "Values are a constellation of viewpoints, prejudice, inner inclinations, likes & dislikes, rational & irrational judgements, and association patterns that determine a person's view of the world".

4.4.1 Nature of values

The nature of values is as follows:

1) Part of Culture: Values are elements of culture, which is a complex set of values, ideas, attitudes, and other meaningful symbols to shape human behaviour in society. Every society has its own unique culture and people in that society follow the cultural requirements.

2) Learned Responses: Values are learned responses. Some of these responses are learned from direct everyday experiences, such that we maintain those responses whenever we are confronted by the experiences from which they developed. Other orientations are learned from vicarious experiences, such that our response to a given experience is generalized to other similar experiences.

3) Inculcated: Values are inculcated and passed from generation to generation by specific groups and institutions. Such transmission starts from the family where the socialization process begins. Apart from family, religious, educational, and ethnic institutions also transmit values from one generation to another.

4) Social Phenomenon: Values are a social phenomenon, that is, cultural habits are shared by aggregates of people living in an organized society. An individual's way of behaving and thinking is not culture, but group behaviour constitutes culture. The group is developed and reinforced through social pressure upon those who are interacting with one another.

5) Gratifying Responses: Values exist to meet the biological and other needs of the individuals in society. Thus, elements in the culture become extinguished when they are no longer gratifying to members of society. Society rewards behaviours that are gratifying for its members.

6) Adaptive Process: Culture is adaptive, either through an evolutionary or dialectical process. Dialectical or sharply discontinuous change occurs when the value system of culture becomes associated with the gratification of only one group or class in the environment. In such a case, other classes of the society reject the logic of the "value system" and replace it with a "new value system", such as through revolution or other methods. In the evolutionary process, the change occurs as a gradual process, but not through revolution.

Types of Values

According to Rokeach classification, values can be of the following types:

1) Terminal Values: 'Terminal values' lead to ends to be achieved e.g., family security, self-respect, comfortable life, and a sense of accomplishment. Terminal values reflect what a person is ultimately trying to achieve. A terminal value is an outcome or desired end state that people seek to achieve. Organizations might adopt any of the following as terminal values, or guiding principles-quality, responsibility, excellence, innovativeness, morality, economy, and profitability. Large insurance companies, e.g., may value profitability, but their terminal values are often stable and

predictable because the company cannot afford to take risks. It must be there to pay off the policyholder's claims.

Terminal values, such as a sense of pleasure, salvation, accomplishment, happiness, and wisdom are life goals or desired end-states. These values represent the things that an individual want to achieve or accomplish during their lives.

2) Instrumental Values: 'Instrumental values' relate to means for achieving desired ends, e.g., ambition, courage, honesty, and imagination. Instrumental values reflect how an individual gets there. An instrumental value is a desired mode or type of behaviour.

Modes of behaviour that organizations advocate include hard work, respecting authority, traditions, courage, being conservative, cautious, creative, frugal, honest, taking risks, and maintaining a high standard. Instrumental values are alternative behaviours or means by which a person achieves desired end-states. Sample instrumental values include ambition, honesty, independence, love, and obedience.

4.4.2 Classification of Values

Values can be classified as follows:

1) Human Values: Human values consist of all those values that are universally applicable to all people These values relate to truth, righteousness, peace, love, compassion, harmony, non-violence, and appropriate ethical, humane behaviour.

2) Social Values: Social values are certain qualities and beliefs that are shared within a specific culture or group of people. In other words, social values comprise all those values which people living in society and having common needs and requirements, should practice and strictly adhere to, in the interests of making the lives of all members of the society congenial and happy, thereby promoting the welfare of the people. These values include tolerance of mutual respect, understanding, co-existence, cooperation, coordination, etc., for the good of one and all. Individuals should behave in the pursuit of our goals.

3) Business Values: Business values comprise all those ethical behavioural aspects in all business dealings and transactions. Harmonious and holistic business practices will ensure greater customer satisfaction, while business values cannot bypass profits earned reasonably and ethically respecting the laws of the land. Businesses mustn't get entangled in unscrupulous, unethical, immoral practices involving harmful repercussions on the concerned persons. Businesses can ethically survive if customers are encouraged to thrive.

4) Community Values: Community values consist of the rules framed for the welfare and development of the concerned communities. These norms are prescribed by clubs, associations, and public organisations or by the committees of panchayats in villages and rural areas.

5) Family Values: Family values involve the bonds of affection between different members within nuclear joint families, and respect towards elders, Ethical behaviour of youngsters towards their parents and teachers and also the responsibilities of parents towards their children, are values to be cherished.

6) Professional Values: Professional values include the rules of conduct, ethical behaviour, patterns, and norms for various professions.

7) National Values: National values comprise the rights and responsibilities of citizens. They also include the entire gamut of civic duties. National integration can be promoted if citizens promote activities for the promotion of communal harmony, national integration, and understanding between various classes of persons belonging to various parts of the country. National prestige can be enhanced by strengthening the bonds of unity and affinity between different religious groups of the country.

8) Secular Values: In the secular value system approach, the facts of life are the major source of inspiration and not the religious way. It treats the person based on actuality. Secular values focus on practical orientation and independent efforts. These values focus on scientific facts. It emphasizes that there is no superior or inferior caste; in the same way, there is no superior or inferior religion. All human beings are equal and should be treated in the same manner.

9) Spiritual Values: Spirituality refers to the concept of value, soul or feelings that we have in our inner hearts. Out of the limitations of physical life, there is a limitless world, where a person works from his real satisfaction or inner satisfaction and, for the satisfaction of others. The things, which really affect human beings. are called spiritual things. The spiritual value for managers suggests having a higher level of consciousness, which means that a manager must be aware of the positive and negative effects of his action and decisions undertaken, which are consciously performed.

4.5 LINKING AN INDIVIDUALS PERSONALITY AND VALUES TO THE WORKPLACE

There is a kind of relationship exists between individual's personality with value and their job performance in the workplace. High personality on values has high performance in the job. It means there is positive relationship exists between them. The

managers concern is more towards how to match the personality and values and jobs so that both organization and employees will be relatively benefited. The relationship between personality and job is first explain by John Holland offering Personality-Job Fit Theory and is the Person-Organization Fit Theory.

4.5.1. Personality Job Fit Theory

John Holland present six personality types and proposes that satisfaction and propensity to leave a job depend on how well individuals match their personalities to a job. The following table describes the six types, their personality characteristics, and examples of the congruent occupation for each.

According to the theory of Holland, satisfaction is highest and turnover is lowest when personality and occupation are on agreement. A realistic person in a realistic job is in a more congruent situation than a realistic person in an investigative job. A realistic person in a social job is in the most in-congruent situation possible. The key points of this model are that

There do appear to be intrinsic differences in personality among individuals. There are different types of jobs. People in jobs congruent with their personality should be more satisfied and less likely to voluntarily resign than people in in-congruent jobs.

Holland Idea of Personality and Congruent (Matching) Occupations

Types	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
Realistic Prefer physical activities that require skill, strength and coordination.	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer.
Investigative Prefers activities that involve thinking, organizing and understanding.	Analytical, original, curious, independent.	Biologist, economist, mathematician, news reporter.
Social Prefer activities that involve helping and developing others.	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding.	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologist.

Conventional	Conforming, efficient,	Accountant,
Prefers rule-regulated, orderly, and unambiguous activities.	practical, unimaginative, and inflexible.	corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk.
Enterprising	Self-confident, ambitious,	Lawyer, real
Prefers verbal activities in which there are opportunities to influence others and attain power.	energetic, domineering.	estate agent, public relations specialist, business manager.
Artistic	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic,	Painter,
Prefers ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression.	emotional, impractical.	musician, writer, interior decorator.

4.5.2. Person-Organization Fit Theory

According to this theory, if an organization faces a dynamic and changing environment and requires employees who are able to do readily change tasks and move easily between teams, it's more important that employees' personalities fit with the overall organization's culture than with the characteristics of any specific job.

The person-organization fit essentially argues that people are attracted to and selected by organizations that match their values, and they leave organizations that are not compatible with their personalities. Moreover, managers could expect that people high on extra-version fit well with aggressive and team-oriented cultures and that people high on agreeableness match up better with a supportive organizational climate than one focuses on aggressiveness. And people high on openness to experience fit better into organizations that emphasize innovation rather than standardization. Following these guidelines, at the time of hiring, manager should lead to select new employee who fit better with the organization's culture, which should result in higher employee satisfaction and reduction turnover. Research on person-organization fit has also looked whether people's values match the organization's culture or not this match predicts job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, and low turnover. (Robbins, S.P. et. Al. (2012).

4.6 WHAT IS PERCEPTION

Perception (from Latin perceptio 'gathering, receiving') is the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information or environment. All perception involves signals that go through the nervous system, which in turn result from physical or chemical stimulation of the sensory system. Vision involves light striking the retina of the eye; smell is mediated by odor molecules; and hearing involves pressure waves.

Perception is not only the passive receipt of these signals, but it is also shaped by the recipient's learning, memory, expectation, and attention. Sensory input is a process that transforms this low-level information to higher-level information (e.g., extracts shapes for object recognition). The process that follows connects a person's concepts and expectations (or knowledge), restorative and selective mechanisms (such as attention) that influence perception.

Perception depends on complex functions of the nervous system, but subjectively seems mostly effortless because this processing happens outside conscious awareness. Since the rise of experimental psychology in the 19th century, psychology's understanding of perception has progressed by combining a variety of techniques. Psychophysics quantitatively describes the relationships between the physical qualities of the sensory input and perception. Sensory neuroscience studies the neural mechanisms underlying perception. Perceptual systems can also be studied computationally, in terms of the information they process. Perceptual issues in philosophy include the extent to which sensory qualities such as sound, smell or color exist in objective reality rather than in the mind of the perceiver.

Although people traditionally viewed the senses as passive receptors, the study of illusions and ambiguous images has demonstrated that the brain's perceptual systems actively and pre-consciously attempt to make sense of their input. There is still active debate about the extent to which perception is an active process of hypothesis testing, analogous to science, or whether realistic sensory information is rich enough to make this process unnecessary.

The perceptual systems of the brain enable individuals to see the world around them as stable, even though the sensory information is typically incomplete and rapidly varying. Human and animal brains are structured in a modular way, with different areas processing different kinds of sensory information. Some of these modules take the form of sensory maps, mapping some aspect of the world across part of the brain's surface. These different

modules are interconnected and influence each other. For instance, taste is strongly influenced by smell.

4.7 PERSON PERCEPTION: MAKING JUDGMENTS ABOUT OTHERS

4.7.1 Attribution Theory:

While observing people's behavior such as getting an overseas assignment or promotion to top management position or failed miserably in university examination or fired from the employer etc, we attempt to determine whether it was internally caused or external caused. If those factors such as knowledge, skill, effort, talent, hard work, positive attitude are responsible for the occurrence of behavior, it is labeled as internally caused. Internally caused behaviors are those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual. If those factors such as situational factors such as location advantage, non availability of material, contacts with influential others, etc are responsible for the occurrence of behavior, it is labeled as externally caused. Externally caused behavior is seen as resulting from outside causes; that is, the person is seen as forced into the behavior by the situation.

If an employee is late for work, one can attribute his late coming due to laziness or lack of interest in the job of over sleeping. This would be internal interpretation. If an employee late coming is due to traffic jam or road accident or his wife sickness, then he is making external attribution. There are three factors which are used to determine whether the behavior is caused by internal factors or due to external factors. They are: Distinctiveness, Consensus and Consistency.

Distinctiveness:

It refers to whether an individual displays different behaviors in different situations. If a person is coming late not only to office but also to picnic party or to birth day party or to attending meeting etc. If his late coming behavior is not unique, it will probably be judged as internal. (Low Distinctiveness) If his late coming behavior is unusual, that is, only to office work, his late coming behavior is due to external attribution. (High Distinctiveness)

Consensus:

It refers to whether all the people who are facing with a similar situation respond in the same way or not. If all the people are responding the same way, then there is high consensus. If consensus is high, then his late coming behavior is due to external factors. If only this worker is late and all others are punctual, then

there is low consensus. If consensus is low, then his late coming is due to internal factor

Consistency:

It refers whether a person responds the same all the time, that is, whether his late coming is common in all the days or once in a blue moon. If his late coming is reported in all the days, then there is high consistency. If there is high consistency, his late coming behavior is due to internal factor. If his late coming is reported only one time, then there is low consistency. If there is low consistency, then his late coming is due to external factors. The more consistent the behavior, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal factors.

4.7.2 Errors in Attribution:

While attributing the causes for the behavior of individuals, people tend to commit two types of errors.

Fundamental Attribution Error:

There is tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgment about the behavior of others particularly with reference to the victims of accidents or failures. This is called the fundamental attribution errors. For example, a sales manager is likely to attribute the poor performance of his sales agents to laziness rather than to the new product line introduced by the competitor or current recession prevailing in the society etc.

Self-Serving Bias:

There is also a tendency for individuals to attribute their own success to internal factors such as ability or effort, while putting the blame for failure on external factors such as luck or fate. This is called the self-serving bias. While assessing the performance of subordinates, the managers are likely to provide feedback in a distorted manner depending on whether it is positive or negative.

4.8 THE LINK BETWEEN PERCEPTION AND INDIVIDUAL DECISION MAKING

Perception is the process of gathering, organizing, and interpreting of sensory information in order to represent and understand the presented information or the environment. Decision making is the process of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values, performance, and beliefs of the decision maker.

Every individual face a point where he expected to make an important decision from Avast array of alternatives. An individual is required to go through all the alternatives and make a rational

decision. But people cannot process all the information and scrutinize every single problem. As a result, they make a habit deciding on the basis of perception so we can argue that there is a link between perception and decision making.

On the basis of perception, individuals make decisions towards continuations or termination makes decisions towards continuation or termination, make behavior pattern at the workplace and with supervisors managers and team member, Thus, the perception theories are much useful in organizational decision making.

Decisions are influenced in most of the cases by individuals behavior, perception effects on behavior. Therefore perception is closely associated with individuals' decision-making process. There are three theories of individual decision making.

Classical or rational decision making

These modules describe how individuals should behave in order to maximize some outcomes this module assume that best decision maker is rational.

Assumptions of this modules

• The decision maker can easily analysis the problem

• Performance clearly constant and stable.

• The decision maker has complete information.

• The decision maker is capable to find out best alternatives solution and choosing the best option.

People's behavior is based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself, it is possible that two persons can see the same thing and interpret it differently. Based on the above, the following are some factors that affect perception and hence, it affects decision making process:

a. Selective Perception:

People selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interest, background, experience, and attitudes. This factor allow people to speed-read others but not without the risk of drawing an in accurate picture. Hence, people's decision will be impaired by wrong perception.

b. Halo (Horns) Effect:

People are drawing a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic. This will negatively affect their decisions.

c. Contrast Effects:

It is 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. This factor also affects decisions quality.

d. Stereotyping:

It is judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs. People rely on generalizations ever day because they help them make decisions quickly. They are a means simplifying a complex world. This will affect decision making process.

e. Rationality:

People are usually content to find an acceptable or reasonable solution to a problem rather than an optimal one. The process of making decisions using rationality rather than a defined prescriptive model in not effective enough in taking the best decision.

f. Bounded Rationality:

Individuals make decisions by constructing simplified models that extract the essential features from problems without capturing all their complexity. So, people seek decisions that are satisfactory and sufficient. They tend to choose the first acceptable solution encountered rather than the optimal one. This may not ensure the best decisions.

g. Intuitive Decision Making:

intuition is often used when there is a high level of uncertainty, there is little precedent to go on, when the variable in question are less predictable, when facts are limited, these facts don't lead you in one particular direction, data is of little use, when there are several plausible choices, and there is time pressure. It may be used in decision making process when all given factors are ambiguous.

h. Overconfidence Bias:

We tend to be overly optimistic especially when our intellect and interpersonal abilities are low. This wrong perception will lead to wrong decisions.

i. Anchoring Bias:

It is the tendency to focus on initial information as a starting point. This occurs because our mind appears to a disproportionate

amount of emphasis to the first information it receives. This results in not to take the optimal decisions.

j. Confirmation Bias:

we tend to selectively seek out information that reaffirms our past choices and we discount information that contradicts our past judgments. This could happen even it we are not sure that this is the optimal choice.

K. Gender:

women tend to analyse decisions more than men. Women tend to analyse a decision prior to and after the fact. This difference in length of thinking in problems will lead to more accuracy in making decisions as well as much time consumed for taking a decision by women.

4.9 SUMMERY

In this unit, we have discussed various theories of personality. We began with Freud's theory of psychoanalyses in which he had explained the division of mind, personality structure divided into three parts – id, ego and superego, five psychosexual developmental stages of personality – oral, anal, phallic latency and genital stage, and based on the conflicts and anxieties faced during these developmental stages, people use various defense mechanisms such as projection, reaction formation, denial, regression, rationalization and displacement. These defense mechanisms can be useful to alleviate anxiety, only if they are used in moderation. If they are used in excess they can lead to maladjustment.

However, Freud's theory has been criticized on various counts by Neo- Freudians as well as Humanistic psychologists. Though Neo - Freudians could not shake themselves away from Freud's ideas completely but they significantly held different views. They said that they don't completely agree with Freud's idea that sexuality explains everything. They either modified, extended or revised Freud's original psychoanalytic theory and emphasized the role of social, cultural and interpersonal factors also in shaping the personality. Some of the most well known Neo-Freudians are Alfred Adler, Karen Horney and Carl Jung. While Freud assumed that people have no choice in shaping their personality, Adler believed that people are largely responsible for who they are and they are driven by need reduce inferiority complex. Freud assumed that present behavior is caused by past experiences while Adler believed that present behavior is shaped by people's view of the future. Unlike Freud's emphasis on unconscious mind, Adler believed that psychologically healthy people are usually aware of what they are doing and why they are doing it.

We have seen Major Personality Attributes Relevant to OB link Locus of Control, Machiavellianism, Self-esteem, Self-monitoring, Risk taking. We have also Seen Values with it definition , types and nature. Also We have discussed the perception and its importance in decision making

4.10 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss personality framework in brief

2. Write brief note on Developmental Stages of Personality

3. Write detail note on Value

4. How perception influence our decision making

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5

EMOTIONS

Unit Structure

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you will be able to understand:

➢ The concept of Emotion

➢ The Sources of Emotions and Moods

➢ The concept Emotional Intelligence

➢ Applications of Emotions and Moods in OB

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Emotions are responsible for the finest inhuman achievement and for the worst in history. They are the source of pleasure as well as sorrow in our life. Negative and long lasting emotions can make us sick. So, what are emotions? Emotions are our body's adaptive response. They exist to give us support for our survival. When we are faced with a challenge, emotions focus our attention and energize our actions. (Cyders & Smith,2008).Emotions are a mix of bodily arousal (heart pounding), expressive behaviors (quickened pace) and conscious experience, including thoughts and feelings (panic, fear, joy). (Mayers D.G.,2013)

5.2 WHAT ARE EMOTIONS AND MOODS?

At some point in every person's life, people have experienced emotions and moods of happiness, sorrow, anger, positivity, or negativity. These experiences can be brought upon by a number of causes, and each is reflected by the individual over a period of time. The psychological process of expressing moods and emotions is a natural occurrence throughout many peoples' lives.

How are moods and emotions different? The most basic answer is the amount of time that each expression of mood vs. emotion takes place for. An emotion is a short-lived feeling that comes from a known cause, or the way a person feels at a particular time. Emotions can determine how a person acts for a period of time through their body language, sudden facial expressions, and decision making. A mood takes place for a longer period of time and has no clear or identifiable beginning of formation. Moods are typically prolonged instances of multiple emotions, though they may not be shown as strongly.

To exemplify the definitions of moods vs. emotions, imagine the following scenario: Craig was just hired for his dream job as a home designer. The benefits he will receive from this job are fantastic, and he believes that he will be able to support his growing family well for years to come. In the immediate present and for a short time after receiving the big news, Craig experiences emotions of happiness and joy. After working long hours for a few years, Craig feels that he does not have much upward-mobility in his company, nor does he get to see his family very often. Craig comes home from work each night in a negative mood because of these prolonged factors. In order to have a more positive and healthy mood and lifestyle, Craig takes a position as a self-employed designer where he can set his own hours and spend more time with his family.

5.2.1 Expressed Emotion:

A.) Detecting Emotions in Others:

To determine other people's emotions we read their bodies, listen to their voice tones and study their faces. Psychologists wondered whether non-verbal language differs according to our culture and can our expressions influence our experienced emotions. For example, in western culture, a firm handshake conveys an outgoing, expressive personality. A gaze, an averted glance or a stare indicates intimacy, submission or dominance. In a study, male-female pairs who were total strangers to each other, were asked to gaze intently at each other for two minutes. They reported feeling a tingle of attraction towards each other.

Most of us read nonverbal cues well. We are especially good at detecting nonverbal threats. In a crowd of faces, a single angry face is identified much faster than a single happy face. Experience can also sensitize us to particular emotions, e.g., viewing a series of faces depicting anger to fear, physically abused children were much quicker to spot the signals of anger than non-abused children. Hard to control facial muscles reveal signs of emotions that a person may be trying to hide, e.g., eyebrows raised and pulled together signal fear. Our brains are very good detectors of subtle expressions. Seeing a face for just 0.1 seconds also enabled people to judge attractiveness or trustworthiness of a person (Willis & Todorov,2006). It is rightly said that first impression occurs at lightning speed. Despite our brain's emotion detecting skills, it is difficult to detect deceiving expressions. The behavioral differences between liars and truth-tellers are too minute for most people to detect. However, some people are much better emotion detectors (especially introverts) than others. It is difficult to detect emotions from written communication because it does not have gestures, facial features and voice tones to help detection of emotions. Electronic communication also provides very poor quality nonverbal cues. That is why, people often use emoticons.

Lie Detection:

It is a common practice for researchers and crime detectors to use lie detector- polygraph to detect the lies. The question arises how effective and reliable is polygraph in detecting lies. The polygraph works on the principle that certain emotion-linked bodily changes, such as changes in breathing, cardiovascular activity and perspiration changes take place when a person tells a lie, even if that person can control his facial expressions. The tester/examiner asks questions to the testee and observes these bodily changes taking place in the testee while answering the questions. The tester starts questioning with certain question that may make any person nervous and polygraph will show signs of arousal. These are called control questions. For example, a tester may ask in last 10 years

have you taken anything that does not belong to you? The arousal level shown on a polygraph, in response to these control questions serves as the base line. Then the tester will ask the critical questions, e.g., have you stolen anything from your previous employer? The arousal level shown on polygraph in response to this question will indicate whether the person is telling the truth or lying. For example, if the arousal level while answering the critical question is weaker than the base line arousal determined before, then we can say that person is telling the truth. On the other hand, if the arousal shown in response to critical question is more than base line arousal that means the person is telling the lie.

B.) Gender, Emotion and Nonverbal Behavior:

Studies have proved that women are better at reading emotional cues than men, even if they are exposed to very little behavior of the other person, e.g., they can detect whether a male-female couple is a genuine romantic couple or just pretending one(Barnes & Sternberg, 1989).Women's nonverbal sensitivity is due to their greater emotional literacy and they more emotionally responsive. For example, in an experiment on emotional literacy, when men were asked how will they feel saying good bye to a friend, they simply said, "I will feel bad", while women said "It will be bittersweet; I'll feel both happy and sad".(Barrett et.al., 2000). A study of people from 26 cultures found that women reported themselves as more open to feelings than men. (Costa et.al. 2001). This clearly indicates that women are more emotional than men. However, generally, people tend to attribute women's reactions to their emotions while men's reactions to their circumstances, except for the feeling of anger. Anger is considered as more masculine emotion. Surveys showed that women are more likely to describe themselves as empathic. Their heart rate goes up and they are more likely to cry when they see someone in distress.

C.) Culture and Emotional Expression:

Studies have shown that there are universal facial expressions for basic emotions across different cultures. Facial muscles speak a universal language. In entire world, children cry when in distress and smile when they are happy. Even people blind from birth, naturally show the common facial expressions linked with emotions such as joy, sadness, fear and anger. Musical expressions also cut across cultures. In all cultures, fast paced music seems to be happy one and slow music is considered as sad one.

Charles Darwin said that in prehistoric times, before our ancestors communicated through words, they communicated threats, greetings and submission through facial expressions. Their shared expressions help in their survival. Emotional expressions help in our survival in other ways also, e.g., surprise raises the eyebrows and widens the eyes so that we can take in more information.

However, it is observed that people are more accurate in judging emotions from their own culture, and there are cultural differences in how much emotion will be expressed. For example, in western culture, people openly show their emotions while in Asian cultures, people tend to have less visible display of their emotions.

D.) The Effects of facial Expression:

Studies indicate that expressions not only communicate emotions, they also amplify and regulate them. People report feeling more fear than any other emotion, when made to construct a fearful expression. It is said smile warmly on the outside and you will feel better on the inside. So, your face feeds your feelings. In an experiment, depressed patients felt better after getting Botox injections that paralyze the frowning muscles. Similarly, it is reported that people see ambiguous behaviors differently depending on which finger they move up and down while reading a story. If they read the story, while moving an extended middle finger, the story behaviors seemed more hostile. If read with a thumb up, they seemed more positive.

5.2.2 Experienced Emotions: Anger and Happiness

The experience of emotions in human beings can be placed on two dimensions – Positive vs. Negative and Low Arousal vs High Arousal. Any emotion is a combination of these two dimensions. For example, if we take emotion of anger, then enraged is angrier than angry (at arousal level) and it is a negative feeling. Let us discuss two of the most noticeable and pervasive emotions that impacts our lives. These are anger and happiness.

Anger:

Ancient wisdom describes anger as 'a short madness'. It says that anger 'carries the mind away' and can be 'many times more hurtful than the injury that caused it'. In other words, it is trying to say that when we are angry, we can't think rationally and may do or say things that ultimately causes more misery to us. However, Shakespeare held a different view and said that noble anger makes a coward person brave and energizes us. Who is correct? The answer is both are right. Anger can harm us. Studies have shown that chronic hostility can cause heart disease, blood pressure, lead to impaired social relationships and may even shorten our lives.

The question arises can we get rid of our anger? If yes, then how?

❖ **Gender Differences:** A Gallup teen survey showed that there are gender differences in dealing with anger. It reported that to get rid of their anger, boys usually move away from the situation that is causing them anger, they do lot of physical activities such as exercising to get over their anger. On the other hand, girls cope

with their anger by talking to a friend, listening to music or writing down in diary or journal.

❖ **Cultural Differences:** Western culture, a predominantly an individualistic culture, believes that people should vent their anger, because internalizing the feeling of anger is more harmful. In fact, 'recovery' therapists encourage people to vent their rage against our dead parents, confront our childhood abuser and curse our boss in our imagination. Keeping anger within us is considered bad for our mental and physical health. Western culture believes that venting out of anger can be done through emotional release (either through aggressive act or through imaginary act) or **catharsis.** There is some empirical support for this line of thinking. Studies do show that sometimes, not always, the anger subsides when people retaliate against a provoker. But anger subsides only if a person counterattacks directly his provoker, retaliation is justifiable, their target is not intimidating (Geen et.al., 1977) and if they do not feel anxious or guilty later on. If anger led physical or verbal acts generate regret later on, it becomes maladaptive.

However, catharsis often fails to erase our feeling of rage. There can be some reasons for it

1. **Expressing anger may strengthen the anger instead of reducing it**: e.g., in case of road-rage. Ebbesen et. al. (1975) conducted an experiment on laid off employees. They were allowed to vent their hostility and later on given chance to express their attitude towards the company. Compared to those laid off employees who were not given a chance to vent their hostility in initial questionnaire, it was found that employees who were given such a chance in first questionnaire, expressed more hostility. Their hostility increased instead of reducing. Similar results were reported by another study. Brad Bushman (2002) rightly said that venting to reduce anger is like using petrol to put out a fire.

2. **It may provoke retaliation and a minor conflict may turn into major confrontation**: In Asian culture, which is a community culture, giving vent to your aggression in this manner is considered bad. People don't give went to their rage because they derive their identity from the group and have a sense of interdependence. Such people consider venting their anger as a threat to group harmony.

3. **Angry outbursts are dangerous in another way**: They may temporarily calm us but this may act as reinforcement and so may be habit forming.

4. **Anger can lead to prejudice**: Americans developed prejudice against immigrants and Muslims after 9/11.

Techniques to Control Anger:

1. Wait before reacting. You can bring down the level of physiological arousal of anger by waiting.
2. Don't ruminate. Ruminating inwardly serves to increase it
3. Calm yourself by exercising, playing an instrument or talking it through with a friend.
4. Anger when used wisely can be a strength and can benefit the relationship. Express the grievances in ways that promotes reconciliation rather than retaliation.
5. Talk things over with the offender, thereby reducing the aggravation. Be civil but assertive.
6. If conflict can't be resolved, use forgiveness. Forgiveness releases anger and calms the body.

Happiness:

Happiness is a state of mind or a feeling of contentment, satisfaction, pleasure, or joy. 'Positive psychology, describes happiness as a high ratio of positive to negative feelings or sense of satisfaction with life.

A) Importance of Happiness in Our Lives:

Happiness/ unhappiness has tremendous impact on each and every aspect of our lives. This impact can be temporary or long lasting, mild or severe. Psychologists have been investigating the difference between happy and unhappy people and how it affects them. Some of the conclusions are that **happy people p**erceive the world as safer and they feel more confident, make decisions and cooperate more easily, are more tolerant, rate job applicants more favorably, savor their positive past experiences without thinking too much on the negative aspects, are more socially connected, live healthier and more energized and satisfied lives (Mauss et.al., 2011) , earn significantly more money (Diener et.al.,2002).

Baas et.al. (2008) stated that when your mood is gloomy, life as a whole seems depressing and meaningless, you are critical of your surroundings and thinking is skeptical, in such a situation, if you put in efforts to brighten your mood, your thinking will get broadened and you will become more playful and creative. In other words, you will get transferred from unhappy state to happy state. When we are happy, our relationships, self-image, and hopes for the future also seem more positive.

Feel - Good, Do- Good Phenomenon: Many research studies have reported that happiness doesn't just feel good, it does good, e.g., in many studies, mood boosting experiences (such as finding money, recalling a happy event, etc.) had made people more likely to give money, pick up someone's dropped papers, volunteer time

and do other good deeds. Reverse of feel good and do good was also found to be true. When you do good for someone, you feel good.

B) The Short Life of Emotional Ups and Downs:

Studies have shown that over the long run, our emotional ups and downs tend to balance out, not only over the days but also during the day. Positive emotion rises over the early to middle part of most days and then drops off. A stressful event can trigger a bad mood, but by the next day, the gloom almost always lifts. Even when negative event persists for longer period, our bad mood usually ends. For example, romantic breakup feels devastating, but eventually the emotional wound heals and we move on in life.

Grief over the loss of a loved one or anxiety after a severe trauma such as child abuse, rape, or the terrors of war, may last for longer period, but eventually we get over it. No tragedy is permanently depressing. People who become blind or get paralyzed too recover near normal levels of day to day happiness.

People cope well with a permanent disability, though they do not rebound back to former emotions of happiness and well-being. A major disability leaves people less happy than average, yet much happier than able bodied people suffering from depression. Bruno et.al. (2008) commented that most patients "locked-in" motionless body(being in coma) do not say they want to die. The fact is that we overestimate the duration of our emotions and underestimate our resiliency and capacity to adapt.

C.) Wealth and Well-Being:

To some extent, wealth does correlate with well-being, e.g., rich people are typically happier, healthier than poor people who lack control over their lives. Money can help to get out of hunger and hopelessness and also buy happiness. But once you have sufficient money for comfort and security, adding more money does not add to more happiness. This is because of diminishing returns of phenomenon. The power of more money to increase happiness is significant at low incomes and diminishes as income rises. In every culture, those who strive hardest for wealth tend to live with lower well-being, especially if they are seeking money to prove themselves, gain power or show -off rather than support their families.

D)Two Psychological Phenomena - Adaption and Comparison:

There are two psychological phenomena that explain why happiness is relative. These are Adaptation and Comparison. Let us understand these two principles –

1) The Adaptation-Level phenomenon: This principle suggests that we have a natural tendency to judge various stimuli in comparison to our past experiences. Harry Helson (1977) explain this phenomenon by explaining that on the basis of our past experience, we all reach certain neutral levels for everything, e.g., there are certain levels at which we will not find sounds either too loud or soft, temperatures as too high or low, events as pleasant or unpleasant. We will feel just neutral about them. Once these neutral points are developed, then we judge any new events or variations in existing events in comparison to these levels, e.g., if temperature goes higher than our neutral point temperature, then we find temperature too hot for our comfort.

Similarly, if compared to our present income we get higher income, we feel a temporary surge in our happiness, but later this new high becomes the new normal level and then to again feel happy we will require income more than this new normal level also. Same is true for other areas such as academic rewards, social prestige, etc. For example, do you remember, the thrill you had when cordless phones came in the market and you owned one (Those phones worked only within a limited range of landline phones, giving you very little flexibility). Later, mobile phones came into market and they gave you the freedom to talk to anyone even while traveling far away from your home. At that stage you were no more thrilled with cordless phones. Afterwards, mobiles got upgraded to smart phones and now you could not only talk with mobile phone but could also do lot more like using internet on phone. Now does ordinary mobile phone gives you any happiness or excitement? The answer will be no. This is exactly what the psychologists meant when they said happiness is relative to our own experiences.

There is no permanent happiness. Tomorrow, suppose you get a chance to live in an ideal world where you don't have any economic worries or health worries and your near dear ones give you unconditional love. You will be elated, but after some time you will adjust your adaptation level and this new world will become your new normal. Now you will feel satisfied if events exceed your expectations or you will feel dissatisfied if these events fall below your expectations. The point is that satisfaction or dissatisfaction are just our judgments based on our past experiences.

2) Comparison -Relative Deprivation: We always compare ourselves to others and our feeling of good or bad depends upon with whom we are comparing. Seeing many others getting rich may create a sense of relative deprivation. Such comparisons are the reason why rich people are more satisfied with life than the poor people. However, Russell (1930,p90) noted very aptly that "Beggars do not envy millionaires, though of course they will envy other beggars who are more successful". Comparing ourselves with

those who are better off creates envy and comparing ourselves with those who are worse off creates contentment.

E) Predictors of Happiness:

Happy people share many characteristics such as they have high esteem, are optimistic, outgoing and agreeable, have close relationships or a satisfying marriage, have work and leisure that engages their skills, have an active religious faith, sleep well and exercise Research shows that age, gender, parenthood and physical attractiveness has no link with happiness, but **genes matter**.

Heritability: In one study of identical and fraternal twins, it was found that about 50% of the difference among people's happiness ratings was heritable. Other studies have also indicated that identical twins raised apart are often similarly happy.

Personal History and Culture: On the personal level, we already know that our emotions tend to balance around a level defined by our experiences. On the cultural level, groups differ in the traits that they value. For example, self-esteem and achievement are more important to Westerners due to emphasis on individualism. Social acceptance and harmony are more important for people living in communal cultures such as Japan, where family and community is more important than personal achievements. However, apart from our genes, studies indicate that relationship quality is also an important determinant of our happiness.

So, depending on our genes, our values, our recent experiences, our happiness seems to fluctuate around our "happiness set point". Due to this some people are always happy while others are always negative. However, psychologists believe that our satisfaction with our lives is not fixed. Happiness can increase or decrease. It can be influenced by factors under our control.

5.3 SOURCES OF EMOTIONS AND MOODS

Emotions and moods can be caused by many reasons.

Personality: As all individuals, we must have built-in tendencies to experience certain moods and emotions more frequently than others do. We also differ in how intensely we experience the same emotion, while those who are affectively intense, experience good and bad moods and emotions more deeply.

Day of the week or time of the day: You will have guessed by now that people tend to be in their worst moods early in the week and in their best moods late in the week. Monday morning is therefore not the best time to reveal bad news or ask someone for a favour.

Weather: Have you heard of illusory correlation? It is the tendency of people to associate two events when in reality there is no connection. Many people think so, but the weather has little influence on our mood.

Stress: Stress can affect our moods and emotions negatively. The effects build over time and constant levels of stress can worsen our moods and emotions.

Social activities: For most us, social activities increase positive mood and have little effect on negative mood. Positive mood seeks out social interactions. Physical, informal and epicurean activities are more strongly related to positive moods than formal and sedentary events.

Sleep: Sleep quality does affect mood. If you are tired, you are more likely to feel fatigue, anger and hostility, and therefore, it can impair decision-making and make it difficult to control emotions.

Exercise: Exercise enhances our positive mood. This is especially good for depressed people.

Age: Negative emotions seem to occur less, as people get older. Highly positive moods last longer for older individuals while bad moods fade more quickly than for younger people. Emotional experience improves with age.

Gender: Women are more emotionally expressive than men. They experience them more intensely and hold onto emotions longer than men. They display more frequent expressions of positive and negative emotions, except anger. This is because men are taught to be tough and brave. Women are social and nurturing, so they show more positive moods.

5.4 EMOTIONAL LABOR

Emotional labor is the process of managing feelings and expressions to fulfill the emotional requirements of a job. More specifically, workers are expected to regulate their emotions during interactions with customers, co-workers and managers. This includes analysis and decision making in terms of the expression of emotion, whether actually felt or not, as well as its opposite: the suppression of emotions that are felt but not expressed. This is done so as to produce a certain feeling in the customer or client that will allow the company or organization to succeed.

Roles that have been identified as requiring emotional labor include those involved in public administration, law, childcare, health care, social work, hospitality, media, and espionage. As particular economies move from a manufacturing to a service-based economy, more workers in a variety of occupational fields are

expected to manage their emotions according to employer demands when compared to sixty years ago.

Usage of the term has also been extended to refer to unpaid work that is expected interpersonally, such as taking care of organizing holiday events or helping a friend solve their problems.

Definition of Emotional Labor

The sociologist Arlie Hochschild provided the first definition of emotional labor, which is displaying certain emotions to meet the requirements of a job. The related term emotion work (also called "emotion management") refers to displaying certain emotions for personal purposes, such as within the private sphere of one's home or interactions with family and friends. Hochschild identified three emotion regulation strategies: cognitive, bodily, and expressive. Within cognitive emotion work, one attempts to change images, ideas, or thoughts in hopes of changing the feelings associated with them. For example, one may associate a family picture with feeling happy and think about said picture whenever attempting to feel happy. Within bodily emotion work, one attempts to change physical symptoms in order to create a desired emotion. For example, one may attempt deep breathing in order to reduce anger. Within expressive emotion work, one attempts to change expressive gestures to change inner feelings, such as smiling when trying to feel happy.

While emotion work happens within the private sphere, emotional labor is emotion management within the workplace according to employer expectations. Jobs involving emotional labor are defined as those that:

- Require face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public.

- Require the worker to produce an emotional state in another person.

- Allow the employer, through training and supervision, to exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of employees.

Hochschild (1983) argues that within this commodification process, service workers are estranged from their own feelings in the workplace.

5.4.1 What Impact does emotional labors have an employee's?

Emotional labor and emotional dissonance affect how an employee performs at work. Emotional labor is an indicator of how employees can handle adversity at work if they let their emotions hurt their work. Emotional dissonance occurs when employees are not able to control their emotions. Their real emotions become an obstacle

to job performance. Managers can identify workers who are having emotional dissonance and provide an outlet and training to help them deal with personal issues. This way, the employee is able to perform on the job positively by solving personal issues. Employees who are able to utilize deep acting are very productive, positive and are able to avoid job burnout. Harry was known for his positive emotions at work and was Customer Service Rep of the Year for his ability to calm disgruntled passengers and handle negative stress

5.5 AFFECTIVE EVENTS THEORY

Affective events theory (AET) is a model developed by organizational psychologists Howard M. Weiss (Georgia Institute of Technology) and Russell Cropanzano (University of Colorado) to explain how emotions and moods influence job performance and job satisfaction. The model explains the linkages between employees' internal influences (e.g., cognitions, emotions, mental states) and their reactions to incidents that occur in their work environment that affect their performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The theory proposes that affective work behaviors are explained by employee mood and emotions, while cognitive-based behaviors are the best predictors of job satisfaction. The theory proposes that positive-inducing (e.g., uplifts) as well as negative-inducing (e.g., hassles) emotional incidents at work are distinguishable and have a significant psychological impact upon workers' job satisfaction. This results in lasting internal (e.g., cognition, emotions, mental states) and external affective reactions exhibited through job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Alternatively, some research suggests that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between various antecedent variables such as dispositions, workplace events, job characteristics, job opportunities, and employee behavior exhibited while on the job (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors, counter-productive work behaviors, and job withdrawal). To that end, when workers experience uplifts (e.g., completing a goal, receiving an award) or hassles (e.g., dealing with a difficult client, reacting to an updated deadline), their intention to continue or quit depends upon the emotions, moods, and thoughts associated with the satisfaction they derive from their jobs.

Other research has demonstrated that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is fully mediated by intention to quit; workers who report low job satisfaction are likely to engage in planned quitting. However, this relationship does not account for employees who report high job satisfaction, but quit unexpectedly. Although extrinsic rewards, such as better job offers outside their current organization, may influence their decisions, employees'

personality factors may also impact their decisions to exit early from otherwise ideal jobs under ideal working conditions.

Recipients often refer to specific events in exit interviews when voluntarily leaving their current jobs. Minor events with subtle emotional effects also have a cumulative impact on job satisfaction, particularly when they occur acutely with high frequency. For example, perceived stressful events at work are often positively associated with high job strain on the day that they occur and negatively associated with strain the day after, resulting in an accumulation of perceived job-related stress over time. This is consistent with the general understanding in vocational psychology that job satisfaction is a distal, long-term outcome that is mediated by perceived job stress.

5.5.1 Factors affecting employee experience at work

The relationships between components associated with work (e.g., tasks, autonomy, job demands, and emotional labor) and their impact on job outcomes support AET. Tasks that are considered challenging, rewarding, or that provide an opportunity to develop new skills induce positive affect and increase job satisfaction. Alternatively, tasks that are rated as routine, boring, or overwhelming are associated with negative affect (e.g., low self-esteem, low self-confidence) and concerns over job evaluations. This may lead workers to engage in planned quitting behaviours.

The degree of autonomy workers have in their jobs affects their productivity, satisfaction, and intention to quit. Research shows that the ability to make decisions and influence what happens on the job has the greatest impact on job satisfaction, particularly among young male workers. Job autonomy even trumps income's effect on job satisfaction. Alternatively, work overload significantly reduces job satisfaction among middle-aged women and men but does not significantly impact job satisfaction among young male workers. These differences between the age and gender of workers indicate differences in career phase, where young (male) workers are more likely to put up with or expect work overload, while middle-aged workers tend to be approaching their peak and may expect some concessions (e.g., based on track record, merit, or currency to the organization).

Likewise, work flexibility affects job satisfaction. In fact, the flexibility to decide when work is performed ranks number one among women and number two or three among men in determining the characteristics of a satisfying job. Similar to job autonomy, job flexibility is more important than income when evaluating job satisfaction. Flexibility to determine one's work schedule is an important contributor to job satisfaction across the spectrum of low- and high-income jobs. Work flexibility empowers employees by reducing the incidence of work-family conflicts and engagement in

planned quitting to improve overall quality of life. Positive affect is a fringe benefit of work flexibility that pays rich dividends to both employees and their employers, empowering the former and improving the ability of the latter to retain workers.

Past research has suggested that workplace affect was a state-oriented construct (like emotions and mood) that depended upon the work environment or situations encountered at work. However, more recent research describes affect as a dispositional trait that is dependent upon the individual. Although workplace events have a significant impact on employees, their mood largely determines the intensity of their reaction to events experienced at work. This emotional response intensity tends to affect job performance and satisfaction. Other employment variables, like effort, leaving, deviance, commitment, and citizenship, are also affected by positive and negative perceptions of events experienced at work.

General cognitive ability (also known as 'g') and personality also influence job performance. Emotion and cognition help to explain Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB). For example, emotions about one's job (i.e., job affect) are strongly associated with OCBs directed at individuals, while one's thoughts or job cognitions are reportedly more strongly associated with OCBs directed at the organization. The outcome of how satisfied an individual employee is with her/his job within the organization may depend upon how s/he perceives an incident experienced at work. Job satisfaction also depends upon the emotions and thoughts associated with that perception, as well as the social support provided by co-workers and the organization as a whole.

5.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Most psychologists have considered intelligence a cognitive ability, people also use their emotions to help them solve problems and relate effectively to others. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to accurately identify, assess, and understand emotions, as well as to effectively control one's own emotions (Feldman-Barrett & Salovey, 2002; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

This concept was first introduced by Salovey and Mayer. According to them, Intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and others emotions, to discriminate among emotions and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions. The idea of emotional intelligence is seen in Howard Gardner's interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the emotions, intentions, motivations, and desires of other people) and intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, including one's emotions).

Emotional Quotient (EQ):

Emotional Quotient (EQ) is used to express emotional intelligence in the same way as Intelligent Quotient (IQ) is used to express intelligence. Emotional Quotient (EQ) is a ratio concept and is a score of emotional intelligence obtained by dividing chronological age by emotional age and multiplying by 100. The formula of Emotional Quotient (IQ) is given below.

Emotional Quotient (EQ) = Emotional Age/ Chronological Age* 100

Emotional intelligence is a set of skills that underlie accurate appraisal, expression and regulation of emotions. It is the feeling side of intelligence. A good IQ and scholastic record is not enough to be successful in life. You may find many people who are academically talented but are unsuccessful in their own life. They experience problems in their life, workplace and interpersonal relationships. What do they lack? Some psychologists believe that the source of their difficulty may be lack of emotional intelligence. In simple words, emotional intelligence refers to the ability to process emotional information accurately and efficiently. There are some characteristics of emotional intelligent person. Person who are high on emotional intelligence who possess following characteristics.

5.6.1 Characteristics of Emotional Intelligent Person:

➢   Perceive and be sensitive to your feelings and emotions.
➢   Perceive and be sensitive to various types of emotions in others by noting their body language, voice, tone and facial expressions.
➢   Relate your emotions to your thoughts so that you take them into account while solving problems and taking decisions.
➢   Understand the powerful influence of the nature and intensity of your emotions.
➢   Control and regulate your emotions and their expressions while dealing with self and others.

Daniel Goleman, an American author and journalist, popularized the concept in his book Emotional Intelligence (1995). He expanded the concept to include general social competence. The importance of emotional intelligence has been very well brought out in the following words by Daniel Goleman "Emotional Intelligence is a master aptitude, a capacity that profoundly affects all other abilities, either facilitating or interfering with them. According to Daniel Goleman the term encompasses has following five characteristics and abilities:

1) **Self-Awareness**: Knowing your emotions, recognizing feelings as they occur, and discriminating between them.

2) **Mood Management**: Handling feelings so they're relevant to the current situation and you react appropriately.

3) **Self-Motivation**: Gathering up your feelings and directing yourself towards a goal, despite self-doubt, inertia, and impulsiveness.

4) **Empathy**: Recognizing feelings in others and tuning into their verbal and nonverbal cues.

5) **Managing relationships**: Handling interpersonal interaction, conflict resolution, and negotiations.

Thus, emotional intelligence is not same as self-esteem and optimism. Rather emotionally intelligent people are both social and self-aware. Those scoring high on managing emotions enjoy higher-quality interactions with friends (Lopes et.al.2004). They avoid being hijacked by overwhelming depression, anxiety or anger. Being sensitive to emotional cues, they know what to say to soothe a grieving friend, encourage a colleague and manage conflict.

Emotional intelligence is less a matter of conscious efforts and more of one's unconscious processing of emotional information. (Fiori,2009). Across many studies in many countries, those scoring high on emotional intelligence showed somewhat better job performance. They could also delay gratification in pursuit of long-term rewards, rather than being overtaken by immediate impulses. They were emotionally in tune with others and therefore often succeeded in career, marriage and parenting.

5.7 EMOTION REGULATION

Emotional self-regulation or emotion regulation is the ability to respond to the ongoing demands of experience with the range of emotions in a manner that is socially tolerable and sufficiently flexible to permit spontaneous reactions as well as the ability to delay spontaneous reactions as needed. It can also be defined as extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions. Emotional self-regulation belongs to the broader set of emotion regulation processes, which includes both the regulation of one's own feelings and the regulation of other people's feelings.

Emotion regulation is a complex process that involves initiating, inhibiting, or modulating one's state or behavior in a given situation – for example, the subjective experience (feelings), cognitive

responses (thoughts), emotion-related physiological responses (for example heart rate or hormonal activity), and emotion-related behavior (bodily actions or expressions). Functionally, emotion regulation can also refer to processes such as the tendency to focus one's attention to a task and the ability to suppress inappropriate behavior under instruction. Emotion regulation is a highly significant function in human life.

Every day, people are continually exposed to a wide variety of potentially arousing stimuli. Inappropriate, extreme or unchecked emotional reactions to such stimuli could impede functional fit within society; therefore, people must engage in some form of emotion regulation almost all of the time.[6] Generally speaking, emotion dysregulation has been defined as difficulties in controlling the influence of emotional arousal on the organization and quality of thoughts, actions, and interactions. Individuals who are emotionally dysregulated exhibit patterns of responding in which there is a mismatch between their goals, responses, and/or modes of expression, and the demands of the social environment. For example, there is a significant association between emotion dysregulation and symptoms of depression, anxiety, eating pathology, and substance abuse. Higher levels of emotion regulation are likely to be related to both high levels of social competence and the expression of socially appropriate emotions.

5.7.1 How We Control Our Emotions

While there are many ways to influence one's emotional state for the better, emotion regulation often involves what experts call "down-regulation," or reducing the intensity of emotions. A grieving person might down-regulate his sadness by recalling something amusing. An anxious person may cope by distracting herself from the thought that is causing her anxiety. Emotion regulation can also include "up-regulation," or amping up one's emotions, which can be useful when an imminent danger or challenge calls for a healthy dose of anxiety or excitement.

The process model of emotion regulation proposed by psychologist James Gross emphasizes that people can act to control their emotions at different points in time—including before they feel an emotion ("antecedent-focused emotion regulation") and after they have already begun to react emotionally ("response-focused emotion regulation").

Why Emotion Regulation Is Important

Unlike small children, adults are expected to be able to manage their emotions—especially anxiety and anger—in a manner that is socially acceptable. When emotional control fails, people often say or do things they later regret and wish they had been able to keep their emotions in check. Emotion dysregulation is a component of

certain forms of mental illness. Over time, it could have a negative impact on one's personal well-being and social relationships.

5.7.2 Strategies to Emotion Regulation

A. Situation selection

Situation selection involves choosing to avoid or approach an emotionally relevant situation. If a person selects to avoid or disengage from an emotionally relevant situation, he or she is decreasing the likelihood of experiencing an emotion. Alternatively, if a person selects to approach or engage with an emotionally relevant situation, he or she is increasing the likelihood of experiencing an emotion.

Typical examples of situation selection may be seen interpersonally, such as when a parent removes his or her child from an emotionally unpleasant situation. Use of situation selection may also be seen in psychopathology. For example, avoidance of social situations to regulate emotions is particularly pronounced for those with social anxiety disorder and avoidant personality disorder.

Effective situation selection is not always an easy task. For instance, humans display difficulties predicting their emotional responses to future events. Therefore, they may have trouble making accurate and appropriate decisions about which emotionally relevant situations to approach or to avoid.

B. Situation modification

Situation modification involves efforts to modify a situation so as to change its emotional impact. Situation modification refers specifically to altering one's external, physical environment. Altering one's "internal" environment to regulate emotion is called cognitive change.

Examples of situation modification may include injecting humor into a speech to elicit laughter or extending the physical distance between oneself and another person.

C. Attentional deployment

Attentional deployment involves directing one's attention towards or away from an emotional situation.

- **Distraction**: Distraction, an example of attentional deployment, is an early selection strategy, which involves diverting one's attention away from an emotional stimulus and towards other content. Distraction has been shown to reduce the intensity of painful and emotional experiences, to decrease facial responding and neural activation in the amygdala associated with emotion, as well as to alleviate emotional distress. As opposed to reappraisal,

individuals show a relative preference to engage in distraction when facing stimuli of high negative emotional intensity. This is because distraction easily filters out high-intensity emotional content, which would otherwise be relatively difficult to appraise and process.

• **Rumination**: Rumination, an example of attentional deployment, is defined as the passive and repetitive focusing of one's attention on one's symptoms of distress and the causes and consequences of these symptoms. Rumination is generally considered a maladaptive emotion regulation strategy, as it tends to exacerbate emotional distress. It has also been implicated in a host of disorders including major depression.

• **Worry**: Worry, an example of attentional deployment, involves directing attention to thoughts and images concerned with potentially negative events in the future. By focusing on these events, worrying serves to aid in the down-regulation of intense negative emotion and physiological activity. While worry may sometimes involve problem solving, incessant worry is generally considered maladaptive, being a common feature of anxiety disorders, particularly generalized anxiety disorder.

• **Thought suppression**: Thought suppression, an example of attentional deployment, involves efforts to redirect one's attention from specific thoughts and mental images to other content so as to modify one's emotional state. Although thought suppression may provide temporary relief from undesirable thoughts, it may ironically end up spurring the production of even more unwanted thoughts. This strategy is generally considered maladaptive, being most associated with obsessive-compulsive disorder.

D. Cognitive change

Cognitive change involves changing how one appraises a situation so as to alter its emotional meaning.

• **Reappraisal**: Reappraisal, an example of cognitive change, is a late selection strategy, which involves a change of the meaning of an event that alters its emotional impact. It encompasses different substrategies, such as positive reappraisal (creating and focusing on a positive aspect of the stimulus), decentering (reinterpreting an event by broadening one's perspective to see "the bigger picture"), or fictional reappraisal (adopting or emphasizing the belief that event is not real, that it is for instance "just a movie" or "just my imagination"). Reappraisal has been shown to effectively reduce physiological, subjective, and neural emotional responding. As opposed to distraction, individuals show a relative preference to engage in reappraisal when facing stimuli of low negative emotional intensity because these stimuli are relatively easy to appraise and process. Reappraisal is generally considered to be an adaptive emotion regulation strategy. Compared to suppression (including

both thought suppression and expressive suppression), which is positively correlated with many psychological disorders, reappraisal can be associated with better interpersonal outcomes, and can be positively related to well-being. However, some researchers argue that context is important when evaluating the adaptiveness of a strategy, suggesting that in some contexts reappraisal may be maladaptive. Furthermore, some research has shown reappraisal does not influence affect or physiological responses to recurrent stress.

- **Distancing**: Distancing, an example of cognitive change, involves taking on an independent, third-person perspective when evaluating an emotional event. Distancing has been shown to be an adaptive form of self-reflection, facilitating the emotional processing of negatively valenced stimuli, reducing emotional and cardiovascular reactivity to negative stimuli, and increasing problem-solving behavior.

- **Humour**: Humour, an example of cognitive change, has been shown to be an effective emotion regulation strategy. Specifically, positive, good-natured humour has been shown to effectively up-regulate positive emotion and down-regulate negative emotion. On the other hand, negative, mean-spirited humour is less effective in this regard.

E. Response modulation

Response modulation involves attempts to directly influence experiential, behavioral, and physiological response systems.

- **Expressive suppression**: Expressive suppression, an example of response modulation, involves inhibiting emotional expressions. It has been shown to effectively reduce facial expressivity, subjective feelings of positive emotion, heart rate, and sympathetic activation. However, the research findings are mixed regarding whether this strategy is effective for down-regulating negative emotion. Research has also shown that expressive suppression may have negative social consequences, correlating with reduced personal connections and greater difficulties forming relationships. Expressive suppression is generally considered to be a maladaptive emotion regulation strategy. Compared to reappraisal, it is positively correlated with many psychological disorders, associated with worse interpersonal outcomes, is negatively related to well-being, and requires the mobilization of a relatively substantial amount of cognitive resources. However, some researchers argue that context is important when evaluating the adaptiveness of a strategy, suggesting that in some contexts suppression may be adaptive.

- **Drug use:** Drug use, an example of response modulation, can be used to alter emotion-associated physiological responses. For example, alcohol can produce sedative and anxiolytic effects and beta blockers can affect sympathetic activation.

- **Exercise**: Exercise, an example of response modulation, can be used to down-regulate the physiological and experiential effects of negative emotions. Regular physical activity has also been shown to reduce emotional distress and improve emotional control.

- **Sleep**: Sleep plays a role in emotion regulation, although stress and worry can also interfere with sleep. Studies have shown that sleep, specifically REM sleep, down-regulates reactivity of the amygdala, a brain structure known to be involved in the processing of emotions, in response to previous emotional experiences. On the flip side, sleep deprivation is associated with greater emotional reactivity or overreaction to negative and stressful stimuli. This is a result of both increased amygdala activity and a disconnect between the amygdala and the prefrontal cortex, which regulates the amygdala through inhibition, together resulting in an overactive emotional brain. Due to the subsequent lack of emotional control, sleep deprivation may be associated with depression, impulsivity, and mood swings. Additionally, there is some evidence that sleep deprivation may reduce emotional reactivity to positive stimuli and events and impair emotion recognition in others.

5.8. OB APPLICATIONS OF EMOTIONS AND MOODS

Many components of organizational behavior, such as making decisions, innovation, motivation, and management, might influence our understanding of moods and emotions.

Decision-making: Emotions and emotions have a substantial impact on a person's life, shaping how they make decisions. Problem-solving skills are enhanced by positive emotions. Individuals with positive emotions and moods are much more likely to make good judgments. As a result, positive people come up with smarter ideas.

Creativity: It seems that individuals who are experiencing positive emotions or moods are much more flexible and transparent; this could also explain why they're productive and original. Managers should seek to maintain staff happiness because that will help them achieve the organisation's objectives more successfully and effectively Andrade & Dan (2009).

Motivation: Individuals are driven to the extent that their actions are expected to result in the desired consequence. Employees who are highly motivated in their occupations are emotionally invested in them, which causes them to become more engaged in their work

and physically and emotionally involved in the experience of acting to attain a goal Hume (2012).

Leadership: Leaders who share positive emotions are seen as more effective, while followers who are in a happy emotional atmosphere are more creative. Leaders that are goal oriented inspire staff to be more optimistic, cooperative, and motivated, resulting in more good social interactions with co-workers and consumers. By sparking emotions and attaching them to an interesting vision, leaders help others accept change and feel attached to a new plan Neharika (2019); Bradley (2020); Hoy (2018).

Work-life satisfaction: Both work and home events have an impact on the relationship between moods and work-life satisfaction. A happy mood at work will usually flow over into your off-work hours, and a negative mood at work can be transformed into a positive mood after a break. However, the emotions of your household might sometimes interfere with your own. As a result, there is a positive and negative association between emotions and job satisfaction.

Deviant workplace behavior: Behaviours that are out of the ordinary in the job – Negative emotions that contravene established organisational standards are linked to deviant behaviour. We experience unpleasant sentiments and engage in hostile deviant behaviour when we resent someone for something we don't have but desperately want. Many studies have discovered that individuals who experience negative emotions, specifically anger, are more likely to engage in unethical behaviour at work than people who choose not to.

Customer service: Customer service is influenced by an employee's emotional state, which has an impact on customer satisfaction. Employees may be able to pass on their emotions to customers. When someone expresses pleasant emotions such as laughter and smiles at you, you begin to imitate their behaviour. As a result, when employees display happy emotions, consumers are more likely to respond positively. This is what I refer to as emotional contagion, and it's vital because happy customers buy for longer than angry customers. When an employee is grumpy or obnoxious, though, such unpleasant emotions have a detrimental impact on customers.

5.9 SUMMERY

In emotions we first talked about its definition. Lastly, we discussed about experiencing two major emotions, that is, anger and happiness. We saw in detail what are the consequences of anger and how it can be controlled. In case of happiness, we discussed the definition, nature of happiness and how there is a positive yet

limited connection between wealth and feeling of well-being. How two psychological phenomena-adaptation and comparison can influence the experience of happiness.

Further, we have seen sources of emotions and moods in which we discussed Personality, Day of the week or time of the day, Weather, Stress, Social activities, Sleep, Exercise, Age and Gender as sources of emotions and moods. Then in this unit we have seen emotional labor, its definition and Impact.

We have also seen affective events theory and factors affecting employee experience at work. One important concept and components related to intelligence were also discussed that is Emotional Intelligence,

Emotional labor also discussed in form of definition of emotional labor and what impact does emotional labors have an employee's

At last, we have seen affective events theory with knowing the factors affecting employee experience at work and emotion regulation with how we control our emotions and strategies to emotion regulation

5.10 QUESTIONS

1. What are emotions and moods? Discuss.

2. Write in brief the different sources of emotions and moods.

3. Write brief note on emotional labor.

4. Discuss in detail about emotional intelligence.

5. Discuss in detail on emotion regulation

5.11 REFERENCES

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Question Paper Pattern

Marks: 100   **Duration: 03 Hrs.**

All Questions are Compulsory

Question No	Particular	Marks
Q-1	Objective Questions A) Questions to be asked 12 and to be answered any 10 (Multiple choice) B) Questions to be asked 12 and to be answered any 10 (*True or False)	**20**
Q-2	Answer any 2 out of 3(Module 1)	**15**
Q-3	Answer any 2 out of 3(Module 2)	**15**
Q-4	Answer any 2 out of 3(Module 3)	**15**
Q-5	Answer any 2 out of 3(Module 4)	**15**
Q-6	Write short notes on any 4 out of 6 (All Modules)	**20**

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