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**PSYCHOLOGY OF HUMAN
BEHAVIOR AT WORK**

SUBJECT CODE : 23122

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Psychology of Human Behavior at Work Part II

Code	Sem.	Course Title	Credits	Marks
23122	6	Psychology of Human Behavior at Work Part -II	3	100

Learning Objectives:

- 1) Learners should understand the relevance of Psychology in the world of work.
- 2) Learner should have an understanding of psychological concepts.
- 3) Learner should be able to apply psychological concepts to the world of work.
- 4) Learner should be able to analyze the reasons underlying various aspects of organizational behavior

Semester 6

Psychology of Human Behavior at Work Part –II
(Credits = 3), 3 lectures per week

Module I: Understanding Work Teams

- a) Differences between groups and teams; Types of teams
- b) Creating effective teams

Module II: Conflict and Negotiation

- a) Defining Conflict; transitions in conflict thought
- b) The Conflict Process
- c) Negotiation: Bargaining strategies; the negotiation process

Module III: Emotions and Moods

- a) What are Emotions and Moods? The basic emotions; sources of emotions and moods
- b) Emotional Intelligence
- c) Organizational Behaviour applications of emotions and moods

Module IV: Organizational Change and Stress Management

- a) Forces for Change
- b) Work Stress and its Management

Book to Study:

Robbins, S. P. Judge, T. A. & Vohra, N. (2013). Organizational Behavior. (15th ed.), Indian subcontinent adaptation, New Delhi: Pearson Education, Dorling Kindersley India pvt ltd.



UNDERSTANDING WORK TEAMS - I

Unit Structure

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2. Why have Teams Become So Popular?
- 1.3. Difference Between Groups and Teams
- 1.4. Types of Teams
- 1.5. Characteristics of Effective Team
- 1.6. Summary
- 1.7. Questions
- 1.8. References

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the Popularity of Teams ;
- Describe the Difference between Groups and Teams.
- Explain and Understand Types of Teams.

1.1. INTRODUCTION

A team is a group of individuals. As a member of a team all members are working together for a common purpose. The individuals comprising a team ideally should have common objectives and more or less think on the same lines. Individuals who are not compatible with each other can never form a team. They should have similar if not the same interests, thought processes, attitude, perception and likings. Teams are Essential for any business. They are the primary means for organizing work in contemporary business firms. In this Chapter we will study in detail about the Teams in Organizational Setup.

1.2. WHY HAVE TEAMS BECOME SO POPULAR?

There is a reason behind every change. Decades ago, when companies such as W. L. Gore, Volvo, and General Foods introduced teams into their production processes, it made news because no one else was doing it. The concept was so new at that time , but at present everything has been

changing tremendously. Today, it's just the opposite. The organization which doesn't use teams has become newsworthy.

Nowadays, Teams are everywhere. As organizations have restructured themselves to compete more efficiently and effectively, they have turned to teams as a better way to use employee talents. Teams are more flexible and responsive to changing events than traditional departments or other forms of permanent groupings. They can quickly assemble, refocus, and disband. But don't overlook the motivational properties of teams. Teams encourage employee participation in operating decisions. So another explanation for their popularity is that they are an effective means for management to democratize organizations and increase employee motivation. Teams play an important role in the Motivational force of employees. It also shows in their work performance.

The fact that organizations have turned to teams doesn't necessarily mean they're always effective. Decision makers, as humans, can be swayed by fads and herd mentality. Every Important thing has two sides , positive and negative. We are going to study both sides in this and next chapter. Before that, have a look at the difference between groups and Teams.

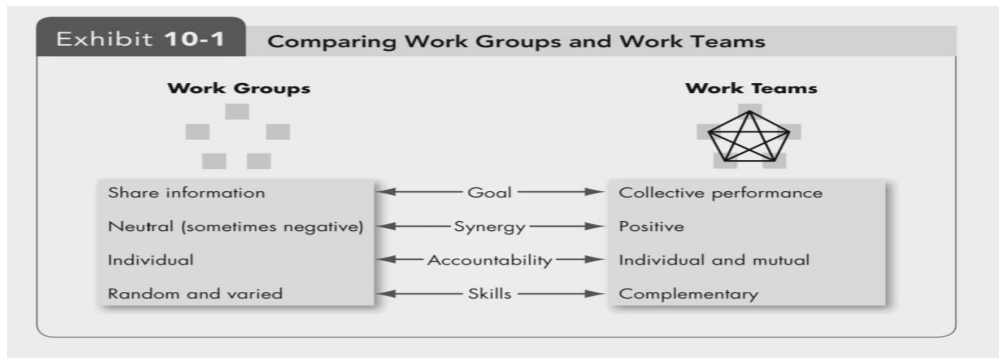
1.3. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS AND TEAMS

There is a difference between these two concepts. Groups and teams are not the same thing. Group can be defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.

A **work group** is a group that interacts primarily to share information and make decisions to help each member perform within his or her area of responsibility. Work groups have no opportunity to engage in collective work that requires joint effort. So their performance is merely the summation of each group member's individual contribution. There is no positive synergy that would create an overall level of performance greater than the sum of the inputs.

A **work team**, on the other hand, generates positive synergy through coordinated efforts. The individual efforts result in a level of performance greater than the sum of those individual inputs. So a work team is a group whose individual efforts result in performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs.

Exhibit 10-1 highlights the differences between work groups and work teams.

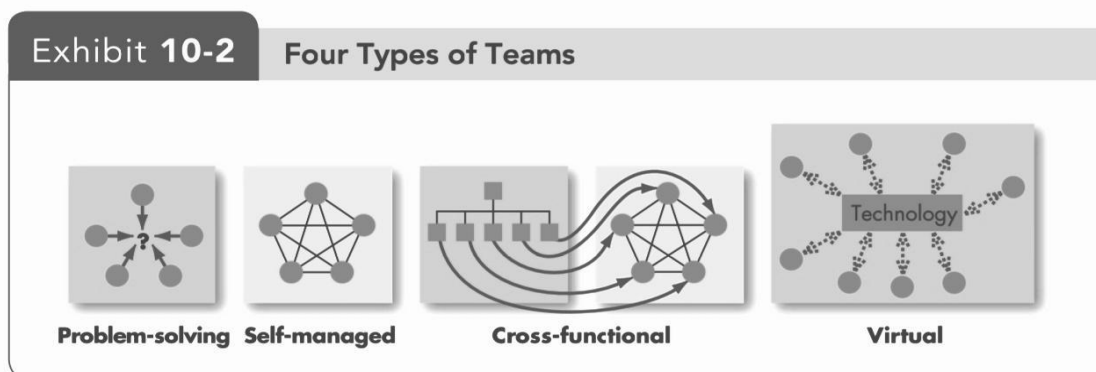


(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge , T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

These definitions help clarify why so many organizations have recently restructured work processes around teams. A group is not necessarily a team. As a part of a team all members start to work together and strive towards the achievement of a common goal. Management is also looking for positive synergy that will allow the organizations to increase performance. The extensive use of teams creates the potential for an organization to generate greater outputs with no increase in inputs.

However, There is nothing inherently magical that ensures the achievement of positive synergy in the creation of teams. Merely calling a group a team doesn't automatically improve its performance. Effective teams have certain common characteristics. If management hopes to gain increases in organizational performance through the use of teams, its teams must possess these.

1.4. TYPES OF TEAMS



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge , T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

Teams can make products, provide services, negotiate deals, coordinate projects, offer advice, and make decisions. So there are the four most common types of teams in an organization: problem-solving teams, self managed work teams, cross-functional teams, and virtual teams (see Exhibit 10-2). Each type of team comes with its unique set of strengths

and weaknesses. In order to fully utilize your team, you first need to understand where each type of team works the best.

Problem-Solving Teams

In the past, teams were typically composed of 5 to 12 hourly employees from the same department who met for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving efficiency, quality and the work environment. Merrill Lynch created a problem-solving team to figure out ways to reduce the number of days it took to open a new cash management account. By suggesting cutting the number of steps from 46 to 36, the team reduced the average number of days from 15 to 8. These problem-solving teams rarely have the authority to unilaterally implement any of their suggestions.

Definition

A **problem-solving team** consists of 5-10 members from the same department. The team will have a number of weekly meetings to resolve specific business problems.

Advantages of Problem Solving Team

- **Participants are selected** from different teams, levels or even companies.
- **All decisions are made in teams**, improving teamwork.
- Participants **receive feedback** on their methods from a skilled facilitator.
- Members work together with the client to **define the outcome** of the programme
- Members **customize the content** of the programme to industry and culture.
- The programme follows the reality of **company strategy and resources**

In short, this type of team can relieve possible risks associated with certain crises while developing thorough solutions which address multiple business segments.

Self-Managed Work Teams

Unlike problem-solving teams, of which desirable outcomes focus on recommendations, self-managed work teams are more concerned about implementing and revising solutions. Problem-solving teams only make recommendations. Some organizations have gone further and created teams which not only solve problems but implement solutions and take responsibility for outcomes.

Self-managed work teams are groups of 10-15 employees who perform highly related or interdependent jobs and take on many of the responsibilities of their former supervisors. So generally, these tasks are planning and scheduling work, assigning tasks to members, making operating decisions, taking action on problems, and working with suppliers and customers. Fully self-managed work teams even select their own members and evaluate each other's performance. Supervisory positions take on decreased importance and are sometimes even eliminated.

But research on the effectiveness of self-managed work teams has not been uniformly positive. Self-managed teams do not typically manage conflicts well. When disputes arise, members stop cooperating and power struggles ensue, which leads to lower group performance. One large-scale study of labor productivity in British establishments found that although using teams in general does improve labor productivity, no evidence supported the claim that self-managed teams performed better than traditional teams with less decision-making authority.

Definition

A self-managed work team consists of a small group of members who are fully responsible for delivering a product or a service through peer collaboration. In this type of team, a manager's guidance is often absent.

Advantage of Self-Managed Work Team

1. Employees may feel more engaged and valued.
2. Self-management can enhance productivity.
3. Self-management can spark innovation.
4. Employees may find more opportunities for personal and professional growth.
5. Self-management can reduce your number of burned-out managers.

Moreover, although individuals on these teams report higher levels of job satisfaction than other individuals, they also sometimes have higher turnover rates and absenteeism.

Cross-Functional Teams

Nowadays, many organizations have embraced the use of cross-functional teams in their operations. Starbucks created a team of individuals from production, global PR, global communications, and U.S. marketing to develop its Via brand of instant coffee. The team's suggestions resulted in a product that would be cost-effective to produce and distribute and that was marketed through a tightly integrated strategy. This example illustrates the use of cross-functional teams, made up of employees from about the same hierarchical level but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task.

Many organizations have used horizontal, boundary-spanning groups for decades. In the 1960s, IBM created a large task force of employees from across departments to develop its highly successful System 360. Today cross-functional teams are so widely used .It is hard to imagine a major organizational undertaking without one. All the major automobile manufacturers—Toyota, Honda, Nissan, BMW, GM, Ford, and Chrysler—currently use this form of team to coordinate complex projects. Cisco relies on specific cross-functional teams to identify and capitalize on new trends in several areas of the software market.

The teams are the equivalent of social-networking groups that collaborate in real time to identify new business opportunities in the field and then implement them from the bottom up.

Cross-functional teams are an effective means of allowing people from diverse areas within or even between organizations to exchange information, develop new ideas, solve problems, and coordinate complex projects.

Definition

A **cross-functional team** consists of members on the same hierarchical level but from various departments within an organization.

Advantages of Cross Functional Team

- Cross-functional teams accelerate task completion.
- With their skillful and diverse members, cross-functional teams can tackle various projects at hand.
- Cross-functional teams are dynamic and creative in producing innovative ideas.

In Spite of this, cross-functional teams are not easy to manage. Their early stages of development are often long, as members learn to work with diversity and complexity. It takes time to build trust and teamwork, especially among people from different backgrounds with different experiences and perspectives. Still such diversity in team members also entails a high risk of workplace conflicts.

Virtual Teams

Virtual teams have recently arisen as new global group dynamic trends. The teams described in the previous section do their work face to face. Virtual teams use computer technology to unite physically dispersed members and achieve a common goal. They collaborate online—using communication links such as wide-area networks, videoconferencing, or e-mail—whether they're a room away or continents apart.

Virtual teams are so pervasive, and technology has advanced so far, that it's probably a bit inaccurate to call them "virtual." Nearly all teams today do at least some of their work remotely.

Despite their ubiquity, virtual teams face special challenges. They may suffer because there is less social rapport and direct interaction among members. Evidence from 94 studies entailing more than 5,000 groups found that virtual teams are better at sharing unique information like information held by individual members but not the entire group, but they tend to share less information overall.

Definition

A **virtual team** relies on digital technology to unite virtual members to work towards common goals.

As a result, low levels of virtuality in teams results in higher levels of information sharing, but high levels of virtuality hinder it.

For virtual teams to be effective, management should ensure that

- (1) trust is established among members for eg.one inflammatory remark in an email can severely undermine team trust,
- (2) team progress is monitored closely ,so the team doesn't lose sight of its goals and no team member "disappears", and
- (3) the efforts and products of the team are publicized throughout the organization,so the team does not become invisible.

An Ethical Choice

Using Global Virtual Teams as an Environmental Choice

Many teams in geographically dispersed organizations have turned to electronic media to improve communication across locations. However, there may be an equally strong *ethical* argument for using global virtual teams: it may be a more environmentally responsible choice than having team members travel internationally when they need to communicate. A very large proportion of airline, rail, and car transport is for business purposes and contributes greatly to global carbon dioxide emissions. When teams are able to meet virtually rather than face-to-face, they dramatically reduce the amount of energy consumed.

In a globally connected world, what sorts of actions might you take to

minimize your organization's environmental impact from business travel? Several tips might help to get you started thinking about ways that global virtual teams can be harnessed for greater sustainability:

1. Encourage all team members to think about whether a face-to-face meeting is really necessary, and to try to utilize alternative communication methods whenever possible.
2. Communicate as much information as possible through virtual means, including e-mail, telephone calls, and teleconferencing.
3. When traveling to team meetings, choose the most environmentally

responsible methods possible, such as flying in coach rather than business class. Also, check the environmental profile of hotels prior to booking rooms.

4. Make the business case for sustainable business travel alternatives. Most experts agree that teleconferencing and environmentally responsible travel arrangements not only help the environment but are more cost-effective as well.

Sources: P. Tilstone, "Cut Carbon... and Bills," *Director* (May 2009), p. 54; and L. C. Latimer, "6 Strategies for Sustainable Business Travel," *Greenbiz* (February 11, 2011), www.greenbiz.com.

(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge , T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013)
Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

Advantage of Virtual Team

- It has cultural and geographical diversity
- It increased productivity,
- It is more flexible for teammates.

Still It can create conflicting schedules, dependence on technology, a sense of loneliness and difficulty getting to know colleagues, and Zoom fatigue. It can also be a challenge for inexperienced leaders to manage remote teams effectively, as overseeing online teams takes different tactics than in-person management. Even working in the same office can decrease team satisfaction when individuals fear or worry about their leaders. Thus, the physical absence of leaders in virtual teams encourages members to connect more.

1.5. CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TEAM

Effective teams have common characteristics

- They have adequate resources, effective leadership, a climate of trust, and a performance evaluation and reward system which reflects team contributions.
- These teams have individuals with technical expertise as well as problem-solving, decision-making, and interpersonal skills and the right traits, especially conscientiousness and openness.
- Effective teams also tend to be small—with fewer than 10 people, preferably of diverse backgrounds. members fill role demands and prefer to be part of a group. And the work that members do provides freedom and autonomy, the opportunity to use different skills and talents, the ability to complete a whole and identifiable task or product, and work that has a substantial impact on others.
- Finally, effective teams have members who believe in the team's capabilities and are committed to a common plan and purpose, an accurate shared mental model of what is to be accomplished, specific team goals, a manageable level of conflict, and a minimal degree of social loafing.

1.6. SUMMARY

Few trends have influenced jobs as much as the massive movement to introduce teams into the workplace. The shift from working alone to working on teams requires employees to cooperate with others, share information, confront differences, and sublimate personal interests for the greater good of the team. There is a difference between groups and Teams. Teams are popular and there is a reason behind this change. There are Four main types of Teams. Each Type has their advantage and Disadvantage. Still working in a Team is so much Effective. In organizational setup , working in Team plays a significant role and it positively motivates employees to increase work performance.

We Can Learn Much About Work Teams from Studying Sports Teams

POINT

In nearly every nation on earth, sports teams are looked upon as examples of teamwork and collective achievement. We celebrate when our favorite teams win and commiserate with others when they lose. Individual sports like golf or singles tennis can be enjoyable to play and, depending on your taste, to watch, but nothing compares to the exhilaration of seeing teams—whether it is football (soccer or American football), basketball, or baseball—band together and succeed.

Of course, it only stands to reason that we seek to draw leadership lessons from these teams. After all, they won at the highest levels of competition, and sometimes they can provide a unique window into team dynamics because their actions are so visible. There is nothing wrong in seeing what we can learn from these teams in terms of making our teams at work more effective. We learn from examples, and if the examples are good ones, the learning is good, too.

Interestingly, some research suggests that, more than those in other cultures, U.S. individuals tend to use team metaphors rather than references to family, the military, or other institutions. Hewlett-Packard's Susie Wee writes:

Every so often someone asks me what I learned in grad school that helped me in the working world. I can say that many of my most important learnings from school came from playing team sports. My school had a women's club ice hockey team that I played on for 10 years (as an undergrad and grad student). Over these 10 years, my role on the team evolved from a benchwarmer . . . to a player . . . to a captain . . . back to a player . . . and to an assistant coach. Many of my everyday experiences with the team turned into learnings that stayed with me and help me at work.

A perhaps more subtle learning comes from how you make yourself a part of the team when you are the "worst skilled" player or a bench warmer. You can still make important contributions by having a great attitude, [and] by working hard to improve your skills. This directly carries over to the working world, as no matter what your skill or experience level, you can always find a way to make an important contribution to your team.

My advice to people? Students—get involved in a team sport! Workers—treat your career like a team sport!

Source: G. B. Gibson and D. M. McDaniel, "Moving Beyond Conventional Wisdom: Advancements in Cross-Cultural Theories of Leadership, Conflict, and Teams," *Perspectives on Psychological Science* 5, no. 4 (2010), pp. 450–462; K. Thomas, "U.S. Olympic Glory, From Stars Hardly on Team," *The New York Times* (February 28, 2010), pp. 1, 4, and S. Schomer, "HP's Susie Wee and the 'Wall of Touch,'" *Fast Company* (May 1, 2010), downloaded June 3, 2011, from www.fastcompany.com/.

COUNTERPOINT

Susie Wee's story is a nice one, but that fact that she found her athletic experience helpful doesn't prove much, because that experience may be specific to Susie Wee. A lot of mischief is created in our understanding of organizational behavior when folks try to over-generalize from their past experience.

There certainly is no shortage of athletes and coaches hawking books they propose have organizational implications. In fact, such books are a veritable cottage industry for current and former NFL coaches. Tony Dungy can tell you how to be a "mentor leader" of your team. Rex Ryan can tell you how to use passion and humor to lead teams. Even Bill Walsh (who died in 2007) has a 2010 team leadership book whose theme is "the score takes care of itself." Vince Lombardi (who died in 1970) seems to have a book on team leadership published every year. In all these books, the coaches spend a lot of time discussing how their approach is relevant in the business world. These are all good coaches, some of them are great coaches, but there is little reason to believe athletic teams function like work teams. How many coaches go on to successful careers in organizations outside the athletic context?

In fact, some in-depth reporting on the 2010 U.S. Winter Olympic Team, which won more medals in Vancouver than have ever been won by a U.S. team, demonstrate it was not really a team. The hockey team didn't have much to do with the figure skating team, which didn't have much interaction with the curling team. However, even within the teams organized by sport, there often was no team effort in any real sense of the word. Speedskater Shani Davis, winner of a gold and a silver medal, neither lived nor practiced with the team. He didn't even allow his biography to be posted on the team's Web site. Skier Lindsey Vonn, snowboarder Shaun White, and many others were similarly and rather defiantly "on their own."

There are not many organizations in which a member of a team could get by with that kind of behavior. It often happens, and in fact may be the norm, in sports teams where winning is the only thing that matters. That is one of many differences between sports teams and work teams.

1.7 QUESTIONS

Write long answers:

- 1 Explain the growing popularity of teams in organizations?
- 2 What is the difference between a group and a team?
- 3 What are the four types of teams?

1.8. REFERENCES

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UNDERSTANDING WORK TEAMS - II

Unit Structure

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Introduction

2.2. Creating Effective Teams

2.3. What Factors Determine Whether Teams Are Successful

2.4. Turning Individuals into Team Players

2.5. Teams are not always the Answers

2.6. Summary

2.7. Questions

2.8. References

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the Importance of creating Effective Teams
- Describe the Factors which Determine Whether the Teams Are Successful or not
- Explain how to turn individuals into team players.
- Elaborate why Teams are not always the answers.

2.1. INTRODUCTION

As we studied in the previous chapter, Teams play an Important role in Organizational setup. It enables employees to grow their work experience. This is the reason Teams are popular nowadays . There are Four types of Teams and each type has its advantages and disadvantages too. Still the effectiveness of being a member of the Work Team is significant. In this chapter students are going to study the process of creating effective Teams. There are some factors which influence the success of Teams. It is not easy to hold every team member together. Students also understand how to turn individuals into team players. Still it is important to note that team is not the answer for every situation .

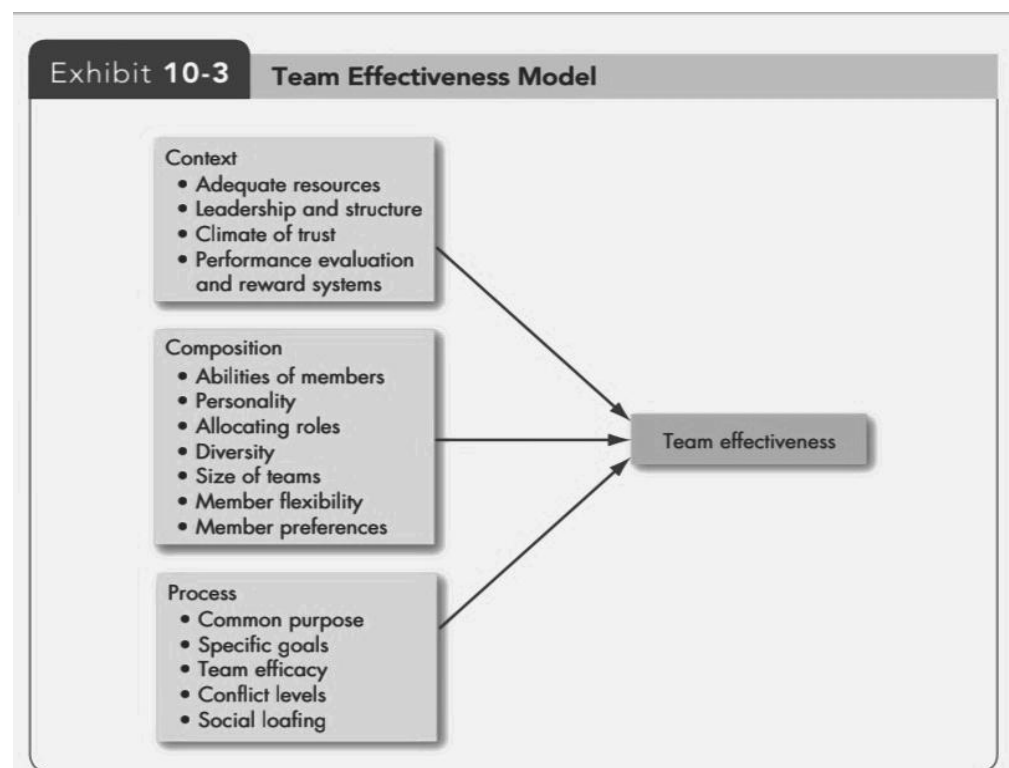
2.2. CREATING EFFECTIVE TEAMS

Creating an effective team is a really important task. Many have tried to identify factors related to team effectiveness. However, some studies have organized what was once a “veritable laundry list of characteristics” into a relatively focused model. Exhibit 10-3 summarizes the factors which make teams effective.

The following discussion is based on the model in Exhibit 10-3. Keep in mind two points. First, teams differ in form and structure. The model attempts to generalize across all varieties of teams, but avoids rigidly applying its predictions to all teams. Second, the model assumes teamwork is preferable to individual work. Creating “effective” teams when individuals can do the job better is like perfectly solving the wrong problem.

The key components of effective teams can be organized into three general categories.

- First are the resources and other contextual influences which make teams effective.
- The second relates to the team’s composition.
- Finally, process variables are events within the team that influence effectiveness.



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge, T.A. & Vohra, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition) Pearson Education.)

According to this model, the effectiveness of a team included objective measures of the team's productivity, managers' ratings of the team's performance, and aggregate measures of member satisfaction.

2.3. WHAT FACTORS DETERMINE WHETHER TEAMS ARE SUCCESSFUL

Creating a Successful Team is a really important task. The four contextual factors most significantly related to team performance are adequate resources, effective leadership, a climate of trust, and a performance evaluation and reward system that reflects team contributions.

Adequate Resources

Teams are part of a larger organization system; every work team relies on resources outside the group to sustain it. A scarcity of resources directly reduces the ability of a team to perform its job effectively and achieve its goals.

According to a study, after looking at 13 factors related to group performance, "perhaps one of the most important characteristics of an effective work group is the support the group receives from the organization." This support includes timely information, proper equipment, administrative assistance, adequate staffing and encouragement.

Leadership and Structure

The Leader and Structure of the Team enables employees to work in a proper direction. Teams can't function if they can't agree on who is to do what and ensure all members share the workload. Agreeing on the specifics of work and how they fit together to integrate individual skills requires leadership and structure, either from management or from the team members themselves. It's true in self-managed teams that team members absorb many of the duties typically assumed by managers. However, a manager's job then becomes managing outside rather than inside the team.

Teams that establish shared leadership by effectively delegating it are more effective than teams with a traditional single-leader structure. Leadership is especially important in multi-team systems, in which different teams coordinate their efforts to produce a desired outcome. Here, leaders need to empower teams by delegating responsibility to them, and they play the role of facilitator, making sure the teams work together rather than against one another.

Climate of Trust

Trust is an essential factor for creating any Team. Trust is the foundation of leadership. It allows a team to accept and commit to its leader's goals and decisions. Members of effective teams trust each other. They also exhibit trust in their leaders. Interpersonal trust among team members facilitates cooperation which reduces the need to monitor each others'

behavior, and bonds members around the belief that others on the team won't take advantage of them.

Team members are more likely to take risks and expose vulnerabilities when they believe they can trust others on their team.

Performance Evaluation and Reward Systems

Reward system is a source of Employee's Motivation. Individual performance evaluations and incentives may interfere with the development of high-performance teams. So, in addition to evaluating and rewarding employees for their individual contributions, management should modify the traditional, individually oriented evaluation and reward system to reflect team performance and focus on hybrid systems which recognize individual members for their exceptional contributions and reward the entire group for positive outcomes.

Group based appraisals, profit sharing, gain sharing, small-group incentives, and other system modifications can reinforce team effort and commitment.

A. Team Composition

The team composition category includes variables which focus on how teams should be staffed—the ability and personality of team members, size of the team, members' preference for teamwork, allocation of roles and diversity.

Abilities of Members

Part of a team's performance depends on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of its individual members. It's true we occasionally read about an athletic team of mediocre players who, because of excellent coaching, determination, and precision teamwork, beat a far more talented group. But such cases make the news precisely because they are unusual. A team's performance is not merely the summation of its individual members' abilities. However, these abilities set limits on what members can do and how effectively they will perform on a team.

Research reveals some insights into team composition and performance. First, when the task involves considerable thought like solving a complex problem, high-ability teams—composed of mostly intelligent members—do better than lower-ability teams, especially when the workload is distributed evenly. That way, team performance does not depend on the weakest link.

High-ability teams are also more adaptable to changing situations; they can more effectively apply existing knowledge to new problems. Finally, the ability of the team's leader also matters. Smart team leaders help less-intelligent team members when they struggle with a task. But a less intelligent leader can neutralize the effect of a high-ability team.

Personality of Members

Personality significantly influences individual employee behavior. Many of the dimensions identified in the Big Five personality model are also relevant to team effectiveness; a review of the literature identified three. Specifically, teams that rate higher on mean levels of conscientiousness and openness to experience tend to perform better, and the minimum level of team member agreeableness also matters: teams did worse when they had one or more highly disagreeable members.

Research has also provided us with a good idea about why these personality traits are important to teams. Conscientious people are good at backing up other team members, and they're also good at sensing when their support is truly needed.

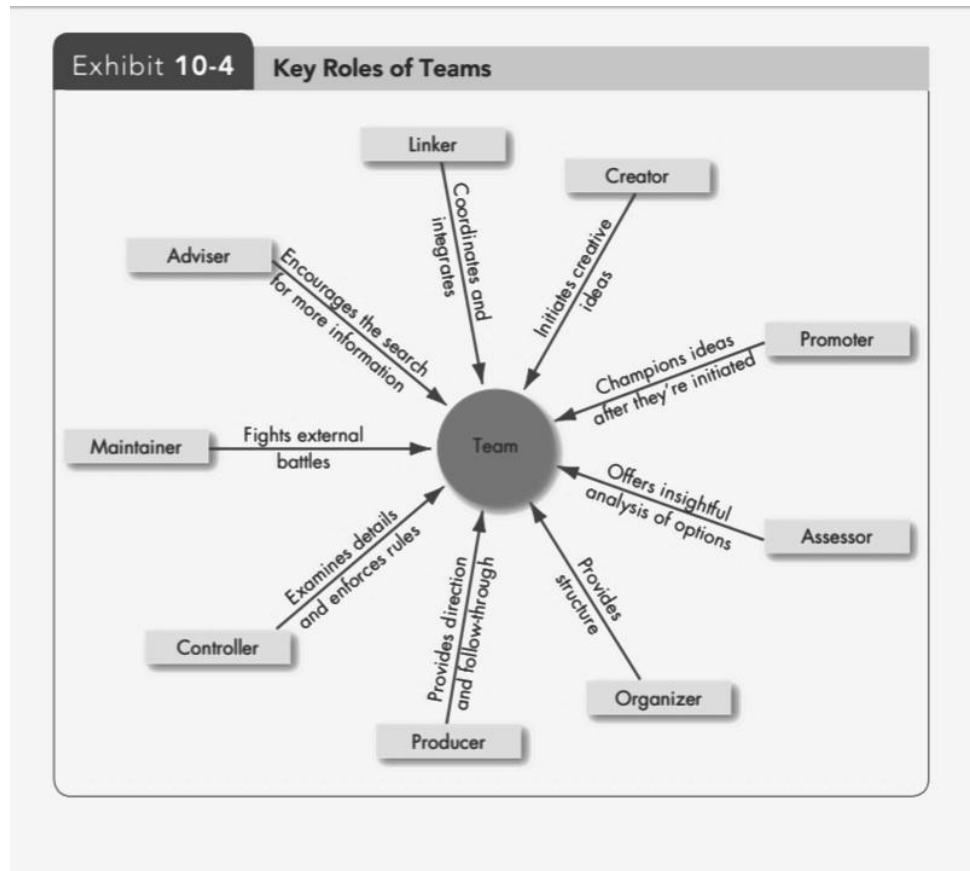
One study found that specific behavioral tendencies such as personal organization, cognitive structuring, achievement orientation, and endurance were all related to higher levels of team performance. Open team members communicate better with one another and throw out more ideas, which makes teams composed of open people more creative and innovative. So this is how personality factors influence the process of a Team.

Allocation of Roles

Teams have different needs, and members should be selected to ensure all the various roles are filled. A study of 778 major league baseball teams over a 21-year period highlights the importance of assigning roles appropriately. Teams with more experienced and skilled members performed better. However, the experience and skill of those in core roles who handle more of the workflow of the team, and who are central to all work processes, were especially vital.

In other words, put your most able, experienced, and conscientious workers in the most central roles in a team. There are nine potential team roles (see Exhibit 10-4).

To increase the likelihood the team members will work well together, managers need to understand the individual strengths each person can bring to a team, select members with their strengths in mind, and allocate work assignments which can be fit with members' preferred styles.



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge , T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

Diversity of Members

The degree to which members of a work unit (group, team, or department) share a common demographic attribute, such as age, sex, race, educational level, or length of service in the organization, is the subject of organizational demography.

Organizational demography suggests that attributes such as age or the date of joining should help us predict turnover. The logic goes like this: turnover will be greater among those with dissimilar experiences because communication is more difficult and conflict is more likely. Increased conflict makes membership less attractive, so employees are more likely to quit. Similarly, the losers in a power struggle are more apt to leave voluntarily or be forced out.

Many of us hold the optimistic view that diversity should be a good thing— diverse teams should benefit from differing perspectives. Two meta-analytic reviews of the research literature show that demographic diversity is essentially unrelated to team performance overall, while a third actually suggests that race and gender diversity are negatively related to team performance.

Gender and ethnic diversity have more negative effects in occupations dominated by white or male employees, but in more demographically balanced occupations, diversity is less of a problem. Diversity in function, education, and expertise are positively related to group performance, but these effects are quite small and depend on the situation. Proper leadership can also improve the performance of diverse teams. When leaders provide an inspirational common goal for members with varying types of education and knowledge, teams are very creative. When leaders don't provide such goals, diverse teams fail to take advantage of their unique skills and are actually less creative than teams with homogeneous skills.

Evidence indicates that elements of diversity interfere with team processes, at least in the short term. Cultural diversity does seem to be an asset for tasks that call for a variety of viewpoints. But culturally heterogeneous teams have more difficulty learning to work with each other and solving problems. The good news is that these difficulties seem to dissipate with time. Although newly formed culturally diverse teams underperform newly formed culturally homogeneous teams, the differences disappear after about 3 months. Fortunately, some team performance-enhancing strategies seem to work well in many cultures.

Size of Teams

Most experts agree, keeping teams small is a key to improving group effectiveness. The most effective teams have five to nine members. And experts suggest using the smallest number of people who can do the task. It may require only four or five members to develop diversity of views and skills, while coordination problems can increase exponentially as team members are added. When teams have excess members, cohesiveness and mutual accountability decline, social loafing increases, and more people communicate less. Members of large teams have trouble coordinating with one another, especially under time pressure. If a natural working unit is larger and team efforts are needed then, consider breaking the group into sub teams.

Member Preferences

High-performing teams are likely to be composed of people who prefer working as part of a group. Not every employee is a team player. Given the option, many employees will select themselves out of team participation. When people who prefer to work alone are required to team up, there is a direct threat to the team's morale and to individual member satisfaction. This result suggests that, when selecting team members, managers should consider individual preferences along with abilities, personalities, and skills.

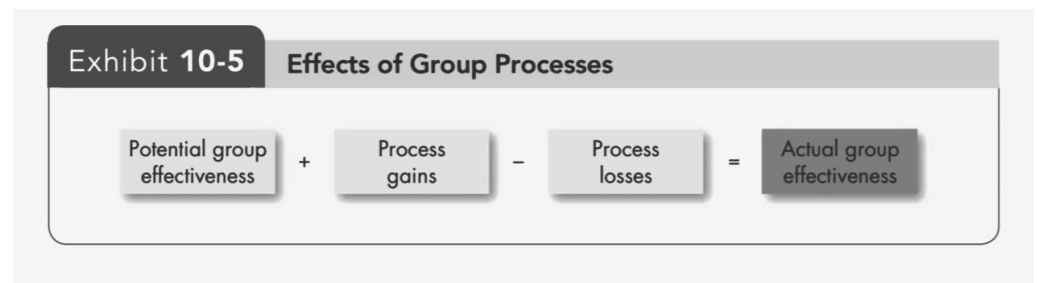
B. Team Processes

The final category related to team effectiveness is process variables such as member commitment to a common purpose, establishment of specific team goals, team efficacy, a managed level of conflict, and minimized

social loafing. These will be especially important in larger teams and in teams that are highly interdependent.

When each member's contribution is not clearly visible, individuals tend to decrease their effort. Social loafing, in other words, illustrates a process of loss from using teams. But teams should create outputs greater than the sum of their inputs, as when a diverse group develops creative alternatives. Exhibit 10-5 illustrates how group processes can have an impact on a group's actual effectiveness.

Teams are often used in research laboratories because they can draw on the diverse skills of various individuals to produce more meaningful research than researchers working independently.



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge, T.A. & Vohra, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition) Pearson Education.)

Common Plan and Purpose

Effective teams begin by analyzing the team's mission, developing goals to achieve that mission, and creating strategies for achieving the goals. Teams that consistently perform better have established a clear sense of what needs to be done and how.

Members of successful teams put a tremendous amount of time and effort into discussing, shaping, and agreeing on a purpose that belongs to them both collectively and individually. It provides direction and guidance under any and all conditions. Teams that don't have good planning skills are doomed; perfectly executing the wrong plan is a lost cause. Teams should also agree on whether their goal is to learn about and master a task or simply to perform the task; evidence suggests that different perspectives on learning versus performance goals lead to lower levels of overall team performance. It appears that these differences in goal orientation have their effects by reducing discussion and sharing of information.

In sum, having all employees on a team strive for the same type of goal is important. Effective teams also show reflexivity, meaning they reflect on and adjust their master plan when necessary. A team has to have a good plan, but it also has to be willing and able to adapt when conditions call for it. Interestingly, some evidence does suggest that teams high in reflexivity are better able to adapt to conflicting plans and goals among team members.

Specific Goals

Successful teams translate their common purpose into specific, measurable, and realistic performance goals. Specific goals facilitate clear communication. They also help teams maintain their focus on getting results. Consistent with the research on individual goals, team goals should also be challenging. Difficult but achievable goals raise team performance on those criteria for which they're set. So, for instance, goals for quantity tend to raise quantity, goals for accuracy raise accuracy, and so on.

Team Efficacy

Effective teams have confidence in themselves; they believe they can succeed. This is called team efficacy. Teams that have been successful raise their beliefs about future success, which, in turn, motivates them to work harder.

Two options are helping the team achieve small successes that build confidence and providing training to improve members' technical and interpersonal skills. The greater the abilities of team members, the more likely the team will develop confidence and the ability to deliver on that confidence.

Mental Models

Effective teams share accurate mental models—organized mental representations of the key elements within a team's environment that team members share. If team members have the wrong mental models, which is particularly likely with teams under acute stress, their performance suffers.

If team members have different ideas about how to do things, the team will fight over methods rather than focus on what needs to be done. One review of 65 independent studies of team cognition found that teams with shared mental models engaged in more frequent interactions with one another, were more motivated, had more positive attitudes toward their work, and had higher levels of objectively rated performance.

Conflict Levels

Conflict on a team isn't necessarily bad. conflict has a complex relationship with team performance. Relationship conflicts—those based on interpersonal incompatibilities, tension—are almost always dysfunctional. However, when teams are performing no routine activities, disagreements about task content which is called task conflicts, stimulate discussion, promote critical assessment of problems and options, and can lead to better team decisions.

A study conducted in China found that moderate levels of task conflict during the initial phases of team performance were positively related to team creativity, but both very low and very high levels of task conflict were negatively related to team performance. In other words, both too much and too little disagreement about how a team should initially

perform a creative task can inhibit performance. The way conflicts are resolved can also make the difference between effective and ineffective teams. A study of ongoing comments made by 37 autonomous work groups showed that effective teams resolved conflicts by explicitly discussing the issues, whereas ineffective teams had conflicts focused more on personalities and the way things were said.

Social Loafing

As we noted earlier, individuals can engage in social loafing and coast on the group's effort because their particular contributions can't be identified. Effective teams undermine this tendency by making members individually and jointly accountable for the team's purpose, goals, and approach. Therefore, members should be clear on what they are individually responsible for and what they are jointly responsible for on the team.

2.4. TURNING INDIVIDUALS INTO TEAM PLAYERS

Teams fit well in countries that score high on collectivism. But what if an organization wants to introduce teams into a work population of individuals born and raised in an individualistic society? A veteran employee of a large company, who had done well working in an individualistic company in an individualist country, described the experience of joining a team: "I'm learning my lesson. I just had my first negative performance appraisal in 20 years." So what can organizations do to enhance team effectiveness—to turn individual contributors into team members? Here are options for managers trying to turn individuals into team players.

Selecting: Hiring Team Players

Some people already possess the interpersonal skills to be effective team players. When hiring team members, be sure candidates can fulfill their team roles as well as technical requirements. When faced with job candidates who lack team skills, managers have three options. First, don't hire them. If you have to hire them, assign them to tasks or positions that don't require teamwork. If that is not feasible, the candidates can undergo training to make them into team players. In established organizations that decide to redesign jobs around teams, some employees will resist being team players and may be un-trainable. Unfortunately, they typically become casualties of the team approach.

Creating teams often means resisting the urge to hire the best talent no matter what. Personal traits also appear to make some people better candidates for working in diverse teams. Teams made up of members who like to work through difficult mental puzzles also seem more effective and capitalize on the multiple points of view that arise from diversity in age and education.

Training: Creating Team Players

Training specialists conduct exercises that allow employees to experience the satisfaction teamwork can provide. Workshops help employees improve their problem-solving, communication, negotiation, conflict-management, and coaching skills. Developing an effective team doesn't happen overnight—it takes time.

Rewarding: Providing Incentives to Be a Good Team Player

An organization's reward system must be reworked to encourage cooperative efforts rather than competitive ones. It is usually best to set a cooperative tone as soon as possible in the life of a team. As we already noted, teams that switch from a competitive to a cooperative system do not immediately share information, and they still tend to make rushed, poor-quality decisions. Apparently, the low trust typical of the competitive group will not be readily replaced by high trust with a quick change in reward systems. These problems are not seen in teams that have consistently cooperative systems. Promotions, pay raises, and other forms of recognition should be given to individuals who work effectively as team members by training new colleagues, sharing information, helping resolve team conflicts, and mastering needed new skills. This doesn't mean individual contributions should be ignored; rather, they should be balanced with selfless contributions to the team.

Finally, don't forget the intrinsic rewards that employees can receive from teamwork. It's exciting and satisfying to be part of a successful team. The opportunity for personal development of self and teammates can be a very satisfying and rewarding experience.

2.5. TEAMS ARE NOT ALWAYS THE ANSWERS

Teamwork takes more time and often more resources than individual work. Teams have increased communication demands, conflicts to manage, and meetings to run. So, the benefits of using teams have to exceed the costs, and that's not always the case. Before rushing to implement teams, carefully assess whether the work requires or will benefit from a collective effort. There are three tests.

First, can the work be done better by more than one person? A good indicator is the complexity of the work and the need for different perspectives. Simple tasks that don't require diverse input are probably better left to individuals.

Second, does the work create a common purpose or set of goals for the people in the group that is more than the aggregate of individual goals? Many service departments of new-vehicle dealers have introduced teams that link customer-service people, mechanics, parts specialists, and sales representatives. Such teams can better manage collective responsibility for ensuring customer needs are properly met.

The final test is to determine whether the members of the group are interdependent. Using teams makes sense when there is interdependence among tasks—the success of the whole depends on the success of each one, and the success of each one depends on the success of the others. Soccer, for instance, is an obvious team sport. Success requires a great deal of coordination between interdependent players. Conversely, except possibly for relays, swim teams are not really teams. They're groups of individuals performing individually; whose total performance is merely the aggregate summation of their individual performance.

2.6 SUMMARY

In short, after studying Popularity of Teams, Differences between group and Teams, we also understand the types of Teams in the previous chapter. Here we studied the efforts needed for creating effective teams. Again, making a successful team is also a big responsibility. We analyze how a manager or organization can deal with it. There are many individuals who prefer to work independently. So It is really effortful to make them capable of being part of a team. Each individual is unique and so their opinions are. So dealing with this conflict and making a healthy way to discuss the conflict is really important. Teams are Important in Organizational setup. But not every situation or project needs a team , some tasks can be done individually too so it is essential to differentiate between these requirements of the situation to use the full potential of an Employee . It is a key to successful organizational performance.

2.7 QUESTIONS

Write long answers:

- a) How can organizations create team players?
- b) When is work performed by individuals preferred over work performed by teams?
- c) What conditions or context factors determine whether teams are effective?

2.8 REFERENCES

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CONFLICT AND NEGOTIATION

Unit Structure:

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Definition of Conflict
- 3.3 Transition in Conflict Thought
- 3.4 The Conflict Process
- 3.5 Negotiation
- 3.6 Global Implications
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 Glossary
- 3.9 Questions
- 3.10 References

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you should be able to:

- Define conflict and discuss the various views of conflict. To explain conflict process and understand conflict handling styles.
- Explain the concept of negotiation.
- Understand the strategies of bargaining.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Conflicts have been around for thousands of years. During industrial revolution of 1800's labour union and management were at odds and conflicts were settled violently. Today, situations have changed and industrial conflicts are settled for more amicably. They are resolved in a spirit of co-operation between employers and employees.

Negotiation is one of the strategies adopted to resolve conflict. Negotiation is an art of persuasion. Negotiator persuades others to listen to his argument and decide how others can help you in achieving your goal. The unit discusses distributive and integrative strategy of negotiation.

3.2 DEFINITION OF CONFLICT

Conflict exists when there is disagreement or collision. The situation must be perceived as conflicting by both the parties. Conflict may be within an individual when he finds his goals competing with each other. Conflict may be within individuals, groups or organisations.

Chung and Megginston defined conflict as the struggle between incompatible or opposing needs wishes, ideas, interests or people. Conflict arises when individuals or groups encounter goals that both parties cannot obtain satisfactorily.

This definition stresses conflicts within the individual members of the group. The conflict experienced by individual himself is not mentioned.

Here we are more concerned about the conflicts within the organisations. This type of conflict can be highlighted by following definition.

Conflict is a process, that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affect something that first cares about. This definition implies that whenever in any ongoing activity there is a crossover of an interaction, there is a beginning of conflict. The different types of conflicts experienced at the organisational level are :

- Incompatibility of goals.
- Differences over interpretation of facts.
- Disagreements based on behavioral expectations.

Before we understand the various views of conflict, it becomes necessary to understand the difference between conflict and competition. Competitions takes place when two or more individuals have incompatible goals but they do not interfere with each other as they try to obtain their goals. Conflict occurs when individual or groups have incompatible goals and they try to interfere with each other as they try to reach their goals.

Thus, in competition one will not try to thwart or frustrate attempts of other. In real life distinction between competition and conflict remains true only when it is a healthy competition. E.g ., In the game of cricket, competition generally, also involves conflict.

3.3 TRANSITION IN CONFLICT THOUGHT

The past decade has experienced changes in attitudes towards conflict in organisations. There have been differences of opinions and views regarding role of conflict in groups and organisations. The different views of conflict are :

- Traditional view of conflict
- Human relations view of conflict.
- Interactionist view of conflict.

We would discuss each of these briefly :

1) Traditional view of conflict : It was a view that prevailed during 1930's and 1940s. This view stressed that;

Conflict in organisation was unnecessary and harmful.

Conflict in organisation was caused by poor communication, lack of trust and openness between people.

Failure of managers in understanding needs and aspirations of employees was another main source of conflict. If above failures were corrected the organisations would function smoothly.

The traditional view of conflict is a very simple approach to looking at people who create conflict. In order to avoid conflict attention should be focused on causes of conflict and correct the malfunctions, so that the group and organisational performance can be improved.

The research studies do not support this approach to conflict resolution in an organisation. Studies have shown that this approach to resolution of conflict improves performance of the group.

The traditional view of conflict started undergoing change, when researchers started realising that organisational conflicts are not always the product of errors of management. The current view of conflict is called as interactionist view of conflict.

2) Human Relations view of conflict : This view believes that conflict is natural occurrence in all groups and organisations. Because conflict is inevitable part of interactions, human relations school has accepted conflict, as a natural phenomenon of group life. This School believes that conflicts cannot be eliminated. This view of conflict dominated from late 1940's to mid 70s.

3) Interactionist view of conflict : This suggests that no matter how an organisation is designed and operated, conflict is inevitable and necessary part of its functioning.

Harmonious and peaceful group is more likely to become apathetic and not interested in change and innovative ideas. The interactionist view, encourages group to maintain an ongoing minimum level of conflict. This keeps group viable, self critical and creative. This view still believes excess of conflict can harm individuals and come in the way of attainment of the goal of an organisation. But conflict definitely makes an organisation more effective.

Interactionist view believes that conflicts can be functional or dysfunctional. The functional conflicts are constructive forms of conflicts; they can lead to innovative solutions and influence the functioning of an organisation.

Functional Conflict: They are constructive forms of conflict and can lead to innovative solutions. Functional conflict refers to confrontation between two ideas, goals and parties that improve employee's and organisation's performance. Such conflicts are necessary for an effective functioning of an organisation. The well managed conflicts help workers anticipate and solve problems, feel confident and strengthen the relationship.

The benefits of functional conflict are :

They increase the awareness of what problems exist, who is involved and how to solve the problem.

It motivates the members of the organisation. They are focused on the problems and motivated to put plans for solving conflicts.

Conflicts promote change. Persons become aware of injustices, inefficiencies and frustrations and see the need to correct them.

Conflict enhances morale and cohesion. The organisational members come together, discuss and deal with their frustrations and resentment. They learn about each other's needs, styles and values through conflict.

High quality discussions result when person express their opposing views and perspectives. Each other's information is shared and checked to develop new decisions.

Conflict stimulates interests and creativity.

Conflict adds to the tendency of working together. Some people enjoy conflict in comparison with other forms of entertainment.

Conflict provides an opportunity to be self-critical and critical of the organisation as a whole.

The relationship between conflict and organisation performance is indicated by a curve:

ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

LEVEL OF CONFLICT

The organisational performance is low when conflict level is extremely high or low. Moderate levels of conflict contributes to high level of organisational performance.

In a low level of conflict situation, performance is also low because of lack of stimulation and arousal. The environment in the organisation is so comfortable that employees become too complacent, do not find any need to change the environment. On the contrary, when conflict level is too high performance of organisation suffers because of inadequate co-ordination and cooperation. The individuals spend more time either in defending themselves or in attacking others.

The optimal level of performance results only when there is moderate levels of conflict. The optimal level of conflict stimulates new ideas and creative search for solutions.

Conflicts is inevitable and necessary for effective performance of an organisation. Dysfunctional conflicts are the ones that usually interfere with the performance, of the group.

Dysfunctional conflicts are the conflicts that can block the attainment of goal and affect the performance of group. There are three types of conflicts as follows :

Conflicts can be related to content and goals of the work, such conflicts are called as Task conflict.

Conflicts focusing on interpersonal relationship are called as Relationship conflict.

Conflicts relating to how work can be done or should be done are process conflict.

Studies show relationship conflict are always dysfunctional in nature. Relationship conflict usually creates personality clashes and decrease mutual understanding. In such relations managers are required to spent lot of time in resolving personality conflicts.

Low levels of process conflict and low to moderate levels of task conflict are functional conflict. High level of process conflict may bring about intense arguments about who should do what; bring about uncertainty about the task roles. This increases the time taken to complete the given task. Low to moderate levels of task conflict has positive effect on group performance.

3.4 THE CONFLICT PROCESS

The process generally comprises of five stages.

Stage 1. Potential opposition on Incompatibility - These are the conditions that give rise to conflict. They may not always directly lead to conflict. The presence of one of these conditions is sufficient for the rise of conflict. They can be also the sources or causes of conflict. These conditions can be grouped into three categories.

- Communication
- Structure
- Personal variables

Communication - It can become an important source of conflict. The misunderstandings or noise in the communication channels can give rise to conflict. Studies suggest that the differing word connotations, jargons are the barriers to communication. They function as potential antecedent

conditions to conflict. Research shows that the potential for conflict increases with too much or too little communication.

Structure - Structure refers to degree of specification in the tasks assigned to group members. the jurisdiction of the role, compatibility of the goal, the leadership styles, the reward systems are also included in the structural aspect of the organisation. The relatedness and dependence of group in the organisation also can become source of conflict. Interdependence can create conflict, especially when gain of one group may be the loss of another group.

Personal Variables - The personality characteristics such as appearances, sound, person's voice, smile, etc ., can also become a source of annoyance. When individuals are required to work with such people there are often chances of conflict. Personal Variables such as emotions and values can become potential sources of conflict. Individuals who are highly authoritarian in nature are rarely accepted by all the individuals, especially at work place. Emotions that individuals carry along with them may carry emotions of events outside the organisation, and this also may become a source of conflict. The anger and annoyance carried over can be perceived as quiet irritating by colleagues and co-workers. Stage II - Cognitions and personalization.

The conditions described in stage 1 effect something that one party cares about and the potential for conflict is maximized.

The definition of conflict emphasises perception of conflict. One or more parties must be aware of existence of conflict. This is the stage at which members become aware of the problem. Incompatibility of needs is perceived and then only tension arises. This may not be the situation in all the instances, both the parties may become aware of serious disagreements, it may not create tension and anxiety in both the parties but when individuals become emotionally involved the parties experience tension and anxiety. This is the felt conflict level, when individuals are emotionally involved and start focusing on differences of opinions and opposing interests. Thus, perceived conflict is sharpened.

Individuals may become emotionally involved and both parties experience tension and anxiety. This is at the felt conflict level. Perceived conflict may not always bring about tension and anxiety. "A" may be aware of serious disagreement with "B", but still there may not be any tension or anxiety. The disagreements may persist, still both parties may not be disturbed.

The important aspect of stage II conflict are :

- Conflict issues are defined.

The way the conflict is defined determines the outcome that might settle the conflict. For e.g ., A worker defines salary agreements as loss to his department as profit made by his department will be shared by other departments of the company that are incurring loss at the moment. This is

a situation, where hike in the salary of other workers will amount to loss to some other workers in the department. In such cases workers will be less willing to make compromises for such agreements and hikes in the salary. Definition of conflict in such situation becomes more important.

iii) Perception of conflict is also influenced by emotions. Studies have shown that negative emotions produced oversimplification of issues, reductions in trust and negative interpretation of others party's behaviour.

Stage III Intentions: Intentions are the decisions to act in a given way. Perceptions are followed by the emotions and intentions. Intention is viewed as a separate stage because for responding to other's behaviour, we need to understand their intentions. But in all the situations behaviour and intention may not be related. Behaviour does not accurately reflect the person's intentions.

The conflict handling intension can be viewed on two dimensions:

Cooperativeness: It refers to degree to which one party attempts to satisfy other party's concerns.

Assertiveness: The degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns.

On the basis of these dimensions five conflict handling intentions can be identified. They are :

- 1) Competing 2) Collaborating 3) Avoiding 4) Accommodating
- 5) Compromising

Competing (Assertive and uncooperative) - It is a situation where one party tries to attain its goal regardless of its impact on others. For e.g ., When one person wins a race and other loses.

Collaborating - Assertive and co-operative) each party desires to satisfy concerns of other party and try to search for mutually beneficial outcome. Herre parties resolve the conflict by clarifying the differences rather than by adjusting with points of view of others.

Avoiding: (Unassertive and uncooperative) The conflicting parties may desire to withdraw and exit from the conflicting situation. It is just a way of avoiding people with whom one disagrees.

Accommodating: (Unassertive and uncooperative) It refers to supporting someone else's opinion, irrespective of one's reservations about it. One party sacrifices self interest for the sake of others or may be for the purpose of maintaining relationship.

Compromising (Midrange of assertiveness and cooperativeness). This is a situation where each party is willing to give up something resulting in compromising outcome. No party is either clearly winner or loser.

The conflict handling, styles and preferences can be predicted on the basis of the personality and intellectual characteristics of the members of the parties involved.

Stage IV Behaviour - This is a stage where conflict is expressed in the behaviour. The behaviour stage includes statements, actions and reactions made by conflicting parties. The behavior of party members is a reflection of intention of party, wrong calculations; unskilled expression may not lead to desired expression of intention. In such situation behaviour may not reflect the intentions of the parties involved.

Behaviour resulting from conflict is a dynamic process of interaction. Conflict behaviour falls on a continuum. All the conflicts fall somewhere on this continuum. The lower level continuum is subtle expression of conflict like minor disagreements. E.g., People start voicing their opinions about the development project implemented or planned by Government, citizens start challenging the utility and slowly conflict starts moving on the upward continuum, resulting in violence and attack on the Government functionaries. Strikes, riots and wars fall on the upper range of the continuum.

The conflicts that reach the upper range of continuum are dysfunctional in nature. On the contrary when conflict remains on the lower end of the continuum it becomes a functional conflict.

The conflict management strategies, help in dealing with the conflict either in terms of resolving the conflict or stimulating the conflict.

Stage V Outcome: The outcome of the conflict may be functional where conflict leads to improvement of the performance of the group. The dysfunctional outcome comes in the way of performance of group.

Functional Outcome: Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovations. This encourages interest and curiosity among group members. It encourages environment of self-evaluation and change. Conflict does not allow the group members to passively accept the decisions. It encourages the group members to question the assumptions, relevant alternatives and other possibilities. Conflicts promote the new ideas, re-evaluation of group's goals and activities. The group becomes more responsive to change.

The best example would be Yahoo! Former CEO Tim Koogle was so conflict averse that a sense of complacency settled. Managers were too afraid to ask questions. Yahoo! Started out much more successfully than Google, but soon it was over taken.

This shows conflict encourage groups to think and consider the relevant alternatives. In the established groups, performance tends to improve when there is conflict among groups rather than the close agreement.

Research also shows that the cultural diversity among the workers increase creativity and improve the quality of decisions.

Dysfunctional outcomes : These are destructive consequences of the conflict. Uncontrolled opposition increases the dissatisfaction among group members, and reduces the effectiveness of group. Dysfunctional outcomes of conflict are retarded group communication, in fighting among the members of the group, etc. The problems do not remain restricted to economy, they become the personality problems.

Creating Functional Conflict : Anti conflict cultures were tolerated in the past. In a competitive global economy organisations that do not encourage varied views may not continue to survive. The organisations that create functional conflicts are the ones who encourage disagreement and punish conflict avoiders. A manager must be capable of hearing bad news or unwanted news without allowing a single line on his face to move, instead he should have the ability to ask simple, even tempered questions associated with the news.

3.5 NEGOTIATION

Bargaining and negotiations are the terms that are very often used to refer to the same process.

Negotiation: It is an art of persuasion. The objective of negotiation is to inspire or influence the other person or party to agree with your terms. Negotiation is like a barter system where there is an exchange, a fair exchange of goods and services. It is a part of conflict resolution process. Negotiations include combination of compromise, collaboration and possibly some coercion on vital issues. The success of negotiation depends on situational factors such as location, physical settings, time and audience.

Location: Negotiating parties feel comfortable when they operate in locations familiar to them. Therefore, many negotiators prefer to meet at a neutral place. It has become possible for two different groups to meet and discuss with the help of computer technology. Both the parties can contact each other through e-mails. Such messages can be emotionally charged and may be misinterpreted also. E-mails are quick response or reactions, therefore they are more likely to be emotionally charged. The traditional system of writing a letter or memo has an advantage, where person can give a second thought.

Physical settings: It refers to distance between two parties, their sitting arrangements. The physical distance between the two parties can influence parties orientation towards each other and towards the disputed issue. People who sit face to face are more likely to develop a win lose orientation toward conflict situation.

Time passage and deadlines: The more time people invests in negotiation the stronger their commitment to reaching an agreement. This increases the motivation to reach an agreement, but parties or persons continue to stick to their positions or stand.

Time deadlines motivate the parties to complete the negotiations. The time deadlines become liability when exceeding deadlines is costly. As deadlines approach, the negotiators may soften their demands also.

Audience characteristics - Negotiations have audiences 1) one who is going to put his interest at a stake 2) Management 3) Other team members and general public. Negotiators tend to act differently specially when audiences observe and have detailed information about the process. The best example would be negotiations between Anna Hazare and Central government.

In a situations where audiences receive only the end result the negotiators behave differently. When audiences are directly watching the negotiators, they tend to become more competitive, they are less likely to make concessions, they are more likely to engage in political tactics. When there are a large number of people watching the negotiators, they are also concerned with saving face. In general, audiences may make an indirect appeal, where public opinion become important, when groups negotiate with government. This is what happened when Anna Hazare sat for hunger strike for Lokpal bill.

3.5.1 Approaches to negotiations - These are the bargaining strategies adopted by groups. There are two approaches:

- 1) Distributive bargaining
- 2) Integrative bargaining

Distributive bargaining: The best example of distributive bargaining can be seen if you accompany a smart housewife who goes out for shopping. They will negotiate over a purchase of a simple item. Where one simple rule operates that is any gain I make is at your expense and vice versa. Any gain that a shopkeeper makes is at your expense, and any gain that you make is at the shopkeeper's expense. So the distributive bargaining is negotiating over who gets what share of fixed pie. By fixed pie, it means that bargaining parties believe that there is only a set amount of goods or services to be divided. Fixed pies are zero sum games where every rupee in one's party pocket, is a rupee out of their counter part's pocket.

The labour management negotiations over the wages are the best example of fixed pie. The union leaders, when they come together with management for negotiation, try to get as much money as possible out of management. Every single rupee that union leaders demand increases the cost of management, therefore each party negotiates aggressively.

The essence of distributive bargaining is given below.

Party A and Party B, each has target point in terms of what they want to achieve.

Resistant - point is the lowest outcome that is acceptable to both of them. It is a point below which the negotiations will be broken off rather than accepting something that is less favorable.

The gap between this two is the range of aspiration. There has to be overlapping of aspirations of A and B, then only there can be some kind of settlement.

People who make best gains out of distributive bargaining are those who make first aggressive offer. Research shows that first offer is an indication of power. Such people are more likely to make offers and speak initial first in meetings.

Anchoring bias also suggests that people tend to fixate on the initial information. A smart negotiator is one who begins first. Studies have shown that such negotiators are more successful than others.

Revealing deadline is another important distributive bargaining tactic adopted by negotiators. Consider the following example, Shreyash is human resource manager. He is negotiating a salary with Adit, an MCA, who is highly sought after by companies. Adit knows that company needs him and decides to ask for extraordinary salary and many other benefits. Shreyash informs Adit that company cannot meet his requirements. Adit also tells Shreyash that he will consider other options. Worked over the fact that company may lose a competent hand, he decides to tell Adit that he (Shreyas) is under time pressure and needs to reach an immediate agreement with him or else the job will be offered to some other candidate.

Now what do you think? Is Shreyash a savvy negotiator? Yes he is, By revealing deadline, he has speeded up concession from negotiating counterpart making him to reconsider his negotiations. Many believe that such negotiators do not achieve the target, but in reality such negotiators are more effective than others.

3.5.2 Integrative bargaining:

Integrative bargaining operates under assumption that there are one or more settlements that can create win solution. In this bargaining, both the negotiating parties openly meet on the table, and review their options. After discussion they agree to arrive at solution that meets the requirements of both the parties.

Integrative Bargaining always has an advantage over distributive bargaining. Integrative bargaining builds a long term relationship. Both the parties leave the table with a sense of achievement, on the contrary distributive bargaining leaves one party as a loser. It may further lead to divisions in the groups, especially when people have to work together on the long terms basis. On the contrary in integrative bargaining even if you win you want your opponent to feel positive about it. Integrative bargaining is not a common phenomena in most of the organisations. As they do not have conditions required for such type of bargaining. Integrative bargaining can become successful if parties are open with information, concerns and are sensitive to the requirements of each other. Both the parties must have trust in one another and must be willing to maintain flexibility. This is the most ideal situation for integrative bargaining. The conditions required for integrative bargaining are rarely

observed therefore, most of the negotiations in any organisation are aimed at winning at any cost.

Integrative bargaining can be achieved when individuals bargain in teams, rather than individually. More ideas are generated when individuals bargain in teams. Another way of achieving integrative bargaining is, to put negotiable issues on table. The more negotiable issues are put for discussion, the more options and preferences are thought about. This results in better outcome for each party.

The outcome of negotiations are badly influenced by compromises, as they reduce pressure for integrative bargaining. Compromises occur when one party caves in easily, then it does not require any effort to reach at settlement. Thus, people landup getting much lesser, then if they had obtained it by considering the issues and concerns of other party.

3.5.3 Five steps of negotiation process:

Preparation and planning - Before a party starts negotiation it must do some amount of homework. It must understand A) Nature of conflict B) History leading to negotiation C) Individuals involved and their perception of conflict D) Aim and objective of negotiation E) the final goal of negotiation F) What are the goals of other party G) What they may ask for H) what are the hidden interests of other party, etc. If you are required with all the information then you are in a better position to seek your desired goal.

Once you have gathered all information, use it to develop your own strategy. Expert chess players have their strategy, they know the moves of opponent and how they will be responding to it. As a part of strategy you should determine yours and other's side's Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement (BATNA). BATNA determines the lowest value acceptable to you for a negotiated agreement.

Any offer you receive that is higher than BATNA is better agreement or deal. You can become successful in your negotiation and when you make an offer that other side finds more attractive than their BATNA.

Definition of ground rules : Once planning and strategy is ready the next step would be to define and form ground rules and procedure. Ground rules are who will be negotiating? Where negotiations will take place? Will there be any time limit? What will be the issues that will be negotiated? What will be the specialised procedure if an agreement or emphasis is reached? During this period both parties will exchange their initial proposals.

Clarification and Justification: Once the positions are exchanged, each party will clarify and justify original demands. This should not be the form of the confrontation. This is an opportunity for educating each other regarding the demands and explaining why they are important. Your offer documents supporting your demands.

Bargaining and problem solving : This is a give and take process and a process of reaching at an agreeable solution, when both parties will require to make concessions for each other.

Closure and Implementation : The last step of negotiations will be formalizing an agreement and developing procedures for implementing it. But in most of the organisation, the last step of negotiation process is nothing but a handshake.

3.5.4 Guidelines for effective negotiations:

- Consider the other party's situation and view point.
- Always have a plan and correct strategy.
- Being with positive overture.
- Address problem and not personalities.
- Pay little attention to initial offers.
- Emphasise win-win solution.
- Create a climate of trust
- Have an open mind.
- Insists on using objective criteria.
- Adapt to cultural difference.

3.5.5 Individual Differences in Negotiation Effectiveness - This refers to personal factors influencing negotiation. It includes personality traits, emotions and gender. We would discuss each of these briefly.

Personality Traits and Negotiation: Initial researches showed that personality and negotiations are not directly related. Recent research shows that several of big five traits are related to negotiation outcomes. Negotiators who are agreeable or extraverted are not very successful when it comes to distributive bargaining. Extroverts are more friendly and outgoing, they tend to share more information than what is required. Agreeable people will find the ways in which they can cooperate rather than protecting the interests of the organisation. These traits are slightly helpful where integrative bargaining is concerned. But they become liabilities when interests are really opposing each other. Distributive bargaining can be best done by introvert who does not share much. Introverts are more concerned with their own outcomes rather than pleasing the other party and having good social support.

Finally intelligence also has its influence on effectiveness of negotiation. The influence of personality and intelligence is not so strong on the overall outcome of negotiation.

Emotions in Negotiations: Distributive negotiations have better outcomes when negotiators show anger. Anger induces concessions from opponents. This is true when negotiators are instructed to show anger, even when they are not angry. Positive moods and emotions lead to higher levels of joint gains especially in integrative negotiation.

Gender Differences in Negotiations: A popular stereo type is, women are more cooperative and pleasant in negotiations than men. But evidence shows that men negotiate better outcomes than women. The difference between men and women is relatively small. The difference observed in outcomes of negotiations is because of differences attached to outcome.

Women are perceived as nicer than men in negotiations, because of the confusion between gender and lower degree of power that women hold in most of organisations. Because of the gender stereotype, compared to men, women are penalized more if they initiate negotiations. When men act tough and women act nice they fulfill the gender stereotype, and this is one of the reasons why there are differences in negotiations of men and women. Most of the negotiations, favour men rather than women as women are criticised if they violate gender stereotype and if they do not do so, even then they are criticised.

Third Party Negotiations: Often individuals and groups reach a point where conflict cannot be resolved through direct negotiations. In such cases they turn to the third part negotiator.

They third party performs four basic rules 1) Mediator, 2) Arbitrator, 3) Conciliator, 4) Consultant.

1) Mediator:

A neutral third party who facilitates negotiated solutions by using reasoning, persuasion and suggestion for alternatives.

Very often function in civil court and labour management.

He can become successful only when both parties are motivated to resolve the conflict.

Can become successful only if the mediator is perceived as neutral and non-coercive.

2) Arbitrator:

A third party to negotiation who has an authority to dictate an agreement.

Arbitrator can be voluntary when it is requested by parties.

Arbitrator is fixed when it is forced by law or contract.

It always results in settlement.

The settlement depends on the power of arbitrator.

This can leave one party defeated and dissatisfied, leading to resurfacing of conflict.

3) Conciliator:

It is a trusted third party who provides an informal communication link between the negotiator and opponent.

The role of conciliator and mediator is more likely to overlap.

Conciliator do not only act as a communicating agent, they go beyond the role.

They engage in fact finding, interpreting messages and persuading disputes to develop agreements.

4) Consultants:

They have knowledge of conflict management.

They are impartial third party, engage into problem solving through communication and analysis.

They do not aim at settlement they are more concerned with improving relationship between the conflicting parties.

They help parties to develop an understanding and work with each other. Thus, finding a solution based on mutual understanding.

3.6 GLOBAL IMPLICATIONS

Cross cultural differences between the conflict resolution strategies are not really understood. There is a very little research done on it. There are studies indicating the differences in U.S. and Asian managers. Compared to Japanese negotiators, U.S. negotiators are more likely to see offers from the counter parts as unfair and reject them. Another study showed that U.S. managers were more likely to use competing tactics in the face of conflict. Compromising and avoiding are the most preferred methods of conflict management in China.

Cultural Differences in negotiation:

Negotiation get complicated when negotiating parties hail from different cultural backgrounds. Negotiation approaches vary across the countries. Majority of negotiators from India, Japan, China, Argentina, France and USA tend to adopt win-win approach while sitting for negotiation. Britishers, Mexicans, Germans, Nigerians and Spaniards generally use win lose approach for negotiating. It is difficult to expect give and take approach while negotiating with Spaniards and Germans, but it is possible with Indians and Mexicans. One study compared U.S. and Japanese negotiators. It was found that Japanese negotiators communicated indirectly and adapted their behaviours to the situations. Follow up study showed that among U.S. managers, making early offers led to anchoring

effect, for Japanese negotiators early offers led to more information sharing and better integrative outcome.

North American, Arab and Russian negotiators were compared. It was observed that North American depended on fact and logic. They made small concessions in early negotiations. To establish relationship, they also reciprocated opponents concessions. Deadlines were important for them. Arabians persuaded by using emotions. They made concessions throughout the bargaining process and always reciprocated to concessions offered by the opposite parties. They approached deadlines very casually. Russians used asserted ideals for bargaining. They made very few concessions. Any concession offered by opposition was a sign of weakness. They ignored deadlines.

Finally, it is important to adapt to cultural expectations of negotiator from different countries. It helps in maintaining rapport and credibility of potential outcomes. It is also necessary to be aware of one's own cultural biases and nuances, so that they are not exploited by opponents.

3.7 SUMMARY

Conflicts can be defined as "The struggle between incompatible or opposing needs, wishes, ideas, interests or people". Conflicts arise when individual or groups encounter goals that both parties cannot obtain satisfactorily. Conflict found in the organisation is a process that begins when one party perceives another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect something that first cares about.

Conflict and competition, both have incompatible goals. Competition does not always refer to interfering with the goals of other, whereas conflict means interfering with the goals of others.

Three views of conflict are commonly discussed. Traditional view prevailed during 1930s and 1940s. It stressed that conflict in the organisation was unnecessary and harmful. It holds that conflict is caused by poor communication, lack of trust, and failure of managers in understanding needs and aspiration of employees. Human relations view of conflict (1970s) suggest that conflict is a natural occurrence in all groups and organisations. It suggests that conflict cannot be eliminated but they may benefit the performance of group. Interactionist view of conflict believes that conflict is inevitable and necessary part of its functioning. This is a recent view of conflict, it suggests that conflict can be functional or dysfunctional.

Dysfunctional conflict is a conflict that affects the performance of group. There are three types of dysfunctional conflict namely, Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict and Process Conflict. Functional conflicts are constructive forms of conflicts. They refer to confrontation between ideas or goals of parties.

Generally organisational performance is low when conflict level is extremely high or low, moderate levels of conflict contribute to high level

of performance. When conflict is low performance is also low because of lack of stimulation.

The process conflict comprises of five stages each of these five stages were discussed.

Negotiations: It is like a barter system, where there is fair exchange of goods and services. Negotiations include combination of compromises and collaboration. The success of negotiation depends on physical settings, location, time and audience.

Approaches to negotiation: They are bargaining strategies adopted by groups. They are 1) Distributive Bargaining and 2) Integrative Bargaining.

The process of negotiation involve five major steps, each of these steps were discussed:

Negotiations are also influenced by emotions. Anger induces concessions from opponent parties. Positive moods lead to joint gain of both parties. There are gender differences in negotiations. Evidence shows that men negotiate better than women. The difference between men and women is observed because of the different importance attached to outcomes.

Third party negotiations take place when both parties cannot resolve through direct negotiation. Third party negotiators perform four basic types of negotiation.

- Mediator
- Arbitrator
- Conciliator
- Consultant

Negotiation becomes complicated when negotiating parties hail from different cultural backgrounds.

3.8 GLOSSARY

Intentions: It can be defined as a decision o ac in a given way.

Negotiation: It is an important process in which two or more parties exchange goods and services and attempts to agree on exchange rate for them.

Distributive Bargaining: It is one type of win-lose situation. In this form of negotiation individuals seek to divide a fixed amount of resources. It is one type of zero sum game. In this any gain that an individual makes result in loss to another and vice versa. Distributive bargaining involves negotiating over who gets what share of a fixed share.

Integrative Bargaining: It is a bargaining strategy which leads to a win-win situation.

3.9 QUESTIONS

Q.1 Define Conflict and discuss transitions in conflict thought.

Q. 2 Explain different perspectives on Conflict.

Q.3 Discuss the various stages in the Conflict Process.

Q.4 Write short notes on the following :

1. Functional Outcomes
2. Dysfunctional Outcomes
3. Bargaining Strategies

Q.5 Discuss the different steps involved in the Negotiation Process.

Q.6 Write a note on individual differences in negotiation effectiveness.

Q. 7 Discuss some important factors that help one effectively negotiate.

.Q.8 Write notes on the following :

1. Third party negotiations?
2. Cross cultural differences in negotiating styles.

3.10 REFERENCES

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EMOTIONS AND MOODS

Unit Structure

4.0 Objectives

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4.2 What Are Emotions and Moods?

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4.0 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

4.1 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)

4.2 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.

4.2.1 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.

4.2.2 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 impact 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 cause 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 a 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 vent 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** perceive 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.

4.3 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.

4.4 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.

4.4.1 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.

4.5 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.

4.5.1 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.

4.6 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 (EQ) is given below.

$$\text{Emotional Quotient (EQ)} = \text{Emotional Age} / \text{Chronological Age} * 100$$

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.

4.6.1 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.

4.7 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.

4.7.1 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.

4.7.2 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.

4.8. 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.

4.9 SUMMARY

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 labor have on 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

4.10 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

4.11 REFERENCES

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ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND STRESS MANAGEMENT - I

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2. Forces for change
- 5.3. Planned Change
- 5.4. Resistance to Change
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- 5.8. Creating a Culture for Change
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5.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the Forces for change, planned change , ;
- Describe the Resistance to Change and how to overcome it .
- Explain The Politics of Change
- Elaborate the Approaches to Managing Organizational change
- Reflect on Creating a Culture for Change

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is about change and stress. Here you will find environmental forces that require firms to change, why people and organizations often resist change, and how this resistance can be overcome. Study the review processes for managing organizational change. Then we move to the topic of stress and its sources and consequences in the next chapter. Let's start with Forces for Change.

5.2. FORCES FOR CHANGE

No company today is in a particularly stable environment. Even those with dominant market share must change, sometimes radically. Exhibit 18-1 summarizes six specific forces stimulating change.

Force	Examples
Nature of the workforce	More cultural diversity Aging population Increased immigration and outsourcing
Technology	Faster, cheaper, and more mobile computers and handheld devices Emergence and growth of social networking sites Deciphering of the human genetic code
Economic shocks	Rise and fall of global housing market Financial sector collapse Global recession
Competition	Global competitors Mergers and consolidations Increased government regulation of commerce
Social trends	Increased environmental awareness Liberalization of attitudes toward gay, lesbian, and transgender employees More multitasking and connectivity
World politics	Rising health care costs Negative social attitudes toward business and executives Opening of markets in China

(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge, T.A. & Vohra, N. (2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition) Pearson Education.)

Almost every organization must adjust to a multicultural environment, demographic changes, outsourcing and immigration. Technology is continually changing jobs and organizations. It is not hard to imagine the very idea of an office becoming an antiquated concept in the near future. The housing and financial sectors recently have experienced extraordinary economic shocks, leading to the elimination, bankruptcy, Tens of thousands of jobs were lost and may never return.

Competition is changing. Competitors are as likely to come from across the ocean as from across town. Successful organizations will be fast on their feet, capable of developing new products rapidly and getting them to market quickly. In other words, they'll be flexible and will require an equally flexible and responsive workforce. Consumers who are otherwise strangers now meet and share product information in chat rooms and blogs. Companies must continually adjust product and marketing strategies to be sensitive to changing social trends. Consumers, employees, and organizational leaders are more sensitive to environmental concerns. "Green" practices are quickly becoming expected rather than optional.

Not even globalization's strongest proponents could have imagined how world politics would change in recent years. Throughout the industrialized world, businesses—particularly in the banking and financial sectors—have come under new scrutiny.

5.3. PLANNED CHANGE

A group of housekeeping employees who work for a small hotel confronted the owner: "It's very hard for most of us to maintain rigid 7-to-4 work hours," said their spokeswoman. "Each of us has significant family and personal responsibilities. And rigid hours don't work for us. We're going to begin looking for someplace else to work if you don't set up flexible work hours." The owner listened thoughtfully to the group's ultimatum and agreed to its request. The next day, a flextime plan for these employees was introduced.

A major automobile manufacturer spent several billion dollars to install state-of-the-art robotics. One area that would receive the new equipment was quality control, where sophisticated computers would significantly improve the company's ability to find and correct defects. Because the new equipment would dramatically change the jobs in the quality-control area, and because management anticipated considerable employee resistance to it, executives were developing a program to help people become familiar with it and deal with any anxieties they might be feeling.

Both these scenarios are examples of change, or making things different. However, only the second scenario describes a planned change. Many changes are like the one that occurred at the hotel: they just happen. Some organizations treat all change as an accidental occurrence. In this chapter, we address change as an intentional, goal-oriented activity.

What are the goals of planned change?

First, it seeks to improve the ability of the organization to adapt to changes in its environment.

Second, it seeks to change employee behavior. Change agents are responsible for managing change activities in organizations. They see a future for the organization that others have not identified, and they are able to motivate, invent, and implement this vision. Change agents can be managers or non-managers, current or new employees, or outside consultants.

5.4. RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Many change agents fail because organizational members resist change.

Our egos are fragile, and we often see change as threatening. One recent study showed that even when employees are shown data that suggest they need to change, they latch onto whatever data they can find that suggests they are okay and don't need to change. Employees who have negative feelings about a change cope by not thinking about it, increasing their use

of sick time, and quitting. All these reactions can sap the organization of vital energy when it is most needed. Resistance to change can be positive if it leads to open discussion and debate. These responses are usually preferable to apathy or silence and can indicate that members of the organization are engaged in the process, providing change agents an opportunity to explain the change effort. Change agents can also use resistance to modify the change to fit the preferences of other members of the organization. When they treat resistance only as a threat, rather than a point of view to be discussed, they may increase dysfunctional conflict.

Resistance doesn't necessarily surface in standardized ways. It can be overt, implicit, and immediate. It's easiest for management to deal with overt and immediate resistance, such as complaints, a work slowdown, or a strike threat.

The greater challenge is managing resistance that is implicit or deferred. These responses—loss of loyalty or motivation, increased errors or absenteeism—are more subtle and more difficult to recognize for what they are. Deferred actions also cloud the link between the change and the reaction to it and may surface weeks, months, or even years later. Or a single change of little inherent impact may be the straw which breaks the camel's back because resistance to earlier changes has been deferred and stockpiled.

There are different sources for resistance. Individual sources reside in human characteristics such as perceptions, personalities, and needs. Organizational sources reside in the structural makeup of organizations themselves. It's worth noting that not all change is good. Speed can lead to bad decisions, and sometimes those initiating change fail to realize the full magnitude of the effects or their true costs. Rapid, transformational change is risky, and some organizations have collapsed for this reason. Change agents need to carefully think through the full implications.

5.5. OVERCOMING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Eight tactics can help change agents deal with resistance to change.

Education and Communication

Communicating the logic of a change can reduce employee resistance on two levels. First, it fights the effects of misinformation and poor communication: if employees receive the full facts and clear up misunderstandings, resistance should subside. Second, communication can help "sell" the need for change by packaging it properly.

Participation

It's difficult to resist a change in decision in which we've participated. Assuming participants have the expertise to make a meaningful contribution, their involvement can reduce resistance, obtain commitment, and increase the quality of the change decision. However, against these

advantages are the negatives: potential for a poor solution and great consumption of time.

Building Support and Commitment

When employees' fear and anxiety are high, counseling and therapy, new-skills training, or a short paid leave of absence may facilitate adjustment. When managers or employees have low emotional commitment to change, they favor the status quo and resist it. Employees are also more accepting of changes when they are committed to the organization as a whole. So, firing up employees and emphasizing their commitment to the organization overall can also help them emotionally commit to the change rather than embrace the status quo.

Develop Positive Relationships

People are more willing to accept changes if they trust the managers implementing them. One study surveyed 235 employees from a large housing corporation that was experiencing a merger. Those who had a more positive relationship with their supervisors, and who felt that the work environment supported development, were much more positive about the change process. Another set of studies found that individuals who were dispositionally resistant to change felt more positive about the change if they trusted the change agent. This research suggests that if managers are able to facilitate positive relationships, they may be able to overcome resistance to change even among those who ordinarily don't like changes.

Implementing Changes Fairly

One way organizations can minimize negative impact is to make sure change is implemented fairly. procedural fairness is especially important when employees perceive an outcome as negative, so it's crucial that employees see the reason for the change and perceive its implementation as consistent and fair.

Manipulation and Cooptation

Manipulation refers to covert influence attempts. Twisting facts to make them more attractive, withholding information, and creating false rumors to get employees to accept change are all examples of manipulation. If management threatens to close a manufacturing plant whose employees are resisting an across-the-board pay cut, and if the threat is actually untrue, management is using manipulation.

Cooptation, on the other hand, combines manipulation and participation. It seeks to "buy off" the leaders of a resistance group by giving them a key role, seeking their advice not to find a better solution but to get their endorsement. Both manipulation and cooptation are relatively inexpensive ways to gain the support of adversaries, but they can backfire if the targets become aware they are being tricked or used. Once that's discovered, the change agent's credibility may drop to zero.

Selecting People Who Accept Change

Research suggests the ability to easily accept and adapt to change is related to personality—some people simply have more positive attitudes about change than others. Such individuals are open to experience, take a positive attitude toward change, are willing to take risks, and are flexible in their behavior. A study of 258 police officers found those higher in growth-needs strength, internal locus of control, and internal work motivation had more positive attitudes about organizational change efforts. Individuals higher in general mental ability are also better able to learn and adapt to changes in the workplace.

In sum, an impressive body of evidence shows organizations can facilitate change by selecting people predisposed to accept it. Besides selecting individuals who are willing to accept changes, it is also possible to select teams that are more adaptable. Studies have shown that teams that are strongly motivated by learning about and mastering tasks are better able to adapt to changing environments. This research suggests that it may be necessary to consider not just individual motivation, but also group motivation when trying to implement changes.

Coercion

Last on the list of tactics is coercion, the application of direct threats or force on the resisters. If management really is determined to close a manufacturing plant whose employees don't acquiesce to a pay cut, the company is using coercion. Other examples are threats of transfer, loss of promotions, negative performance evaluations, and a poor letter of recommendation. The advantages and drawbacks of coercion are approximately the same as for manipulation and cooptation.

5.6. THE POLITICS OF CHANGE

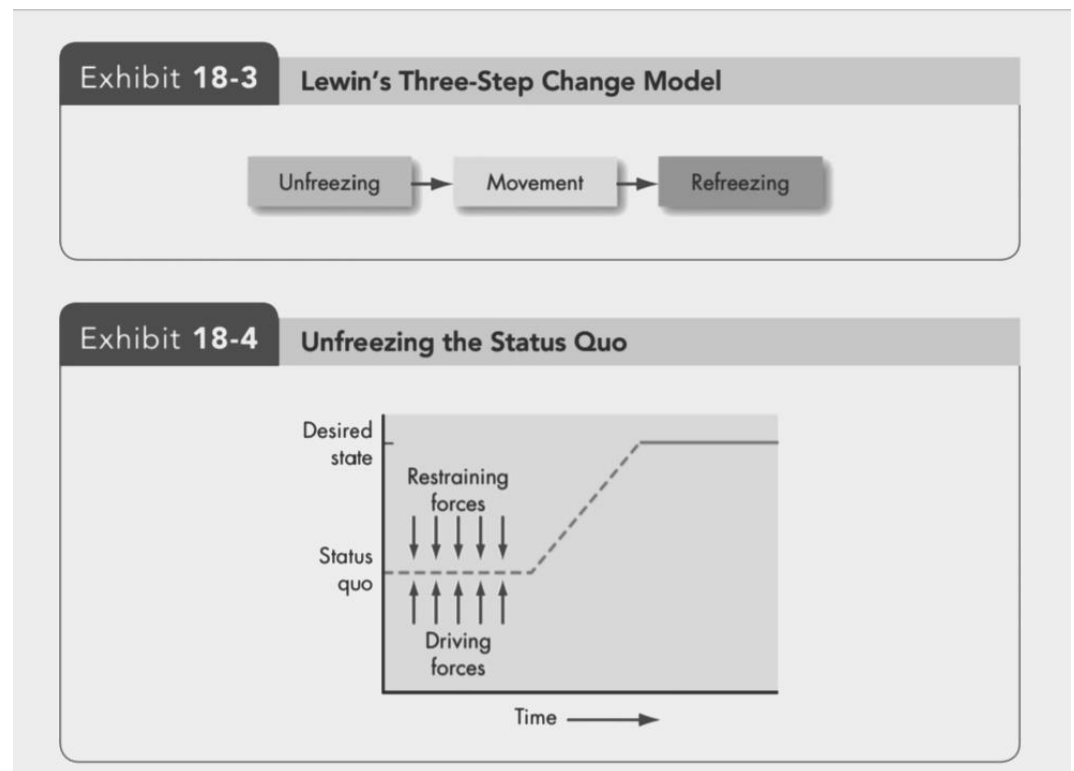
No discussion of resistance would be complete without a brief mention of the politics of change. Because change invariably threatens the status quo, it inherently implies political activity. Politics suggests the impetus for change is more likely to come from outside change agents, employees new to the organization, or managers slightly removed from the main power structure. Managers who have spent their entire careers with a single organization and achieved a senior position in the hierarchy are often major barriers to change. It is a very real threat to their status and position. Yet they may be expected to implement changes to demonstrate they're not merely caretakers. By acting as change agents, they can convey to stockholders, suppliers, employees, and customers that they are addressing problems and adapting to a dynamic environment. Of course, as you might guess, when forced to introduce change, these longtime power holders tend to implement incremental changes. Radical change is too threatening. This explains why boards of directors that recognize the imperative for rapid and radical change frequently turn to outside candidates for new leadership.

5.7. APPROACHES TO MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Now we turn to several approaches to managing change: Lewin's classic three step model of the change process, Kotter's eight-step plan, action research, and organizational development.

Lewin's Three-Step Model

Kurt Lewin argued that successful change in organizations should follow three steps: unfreezing the status quo, movement to a desired end state, and refreezing the new change to make it permanent. (See Exhibit 18-3.)



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge, T.A. & Vohra, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition) Pearson Education.)

The status quo is an equilibrium state. To move from equilibrium—to overcome the pressures of both individual resistance and group conformity—unfreezing must happen in one of three ways (see Exhibit 18-4).

The driving forces, which direct behavior away from the status quo, can be increased. The restraining forces, which hinder movement away from equilibrium, can be decreased. A third alternative is to combine the first two approaches.

Companies that have been successful in the past are likely to encounter restraining forces because people question the need for change. Similarly, research shows that companies with strong cultures excel at incremental change but are overcome by restraining forces against radical change.

Positive incentives such as pay increases, liberal moving expenses, and low-cost mortgage funds for new homes might encourage employees to accept the change. Management might also unfreeze acceptance of the status quo by removing restraining forces. It could counsel employees individually, hearing and clarifying each employee's specific concerns and apprehensions. Assuming most are unjustified, the counselor could assure employees there was nothing to fear and offer tangible evidence that restraining forces are unwarranted. If resistance is extremely high, management may have to resort to both reducing resistance and increasing the attractiveness of the alternative if the unfreezing is to be successful.

Research on organizational change has shown that, to be effective, the actual change has to happen quickly. Organizations that build up to change do less well than those that get to and through the movement stage quickly. Once change has been implemented proved to be successful the new situation must be refrozen so it can be sustained over time. Without this last step, change will likely be short-lived and employees will attempt to revert to the previous equilibrium state. The objective of refreezing, then, is to stabilize the new situation by balancing the driving and restraining forces.

The formal rules and regulations governing behavior of those affected by the change should also be revised to reinforce the new situation. Over time, of course, the work group's own norms will evolve to sustain the new equilibrium. But until that point is reached, management will have to rely on more formal mechanisms.

Kotter's Eight-Step Plan for Implementing Change

John Kotter of the Harvard Business School built on Lewin's three-step model to create a more detailed approach for implementing change. Kotter began by listing common mistakes managers make when trying to initiate change. They may fail to create a sense of urgency about the need for change, to create a coalition for managing the change process, to have a vision for change and effectively communicate it, to remove obstacles that could impede the vision's achievement, to provide short-term and achievable goals, and to anchor the changes into the organization's culture. They may also declare victory too soon.

Kotter then established eight sequential steps to overcome these problems. They're listed in Exhibit 18-5 .

Exhibit 18-5

Kotter's Eight-Step Plan for Implementing Change

1. Establish a sense of urgency by creating a compelling reason for why change is needed.
2. Form a coalition with enough power to lead the change.
3. Create a new vision to direct the change and strategies for achieving the vision.
4. Communicate the vision throughout the organization.
5. Empower others to act on the vision by removing barriers to change and encouraging risk taking and creative problem solving.
6. Plan for, create, and reward short-term "wins" that move the organization toward the new vision.
7. Consolidate improvements, reassess changes, and make necessary adjustments in the new programs.
8. Reinforce the changes by demonstrating the relationship between new behaviors and organizational success.

Source: Based on J. P. Kotter, *Leading Change* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1996).

Notice how Kotter's first four steps essentially extrapolate Lewin's "unfreezing" stage. Steps 5, 6 and 7 represent "movement," and the final step works on "refreezing." So Kotter's contribution lies in providing managers and change agents with a more detailed guide for successfully implementing change.

Action Research

Action research is a change process based on the systematic collection of data and selection of a change action based on what the analyzed data indicate. Its value is in providing a scientific methodology for managing planned change.

Action research consists of five steps: diagnosis, analysis, feedback, action, and evaluation. The change agent, often an outside consultant in action research, begins by gathering information about problems, concerns, and needed changes from members of the organization. This diagnosis is analogous to the physician's search to find specifically what troubles a patient. In action research, the change agent asks questions, reviews records, and interviews employees and listens to their concerns

Diagnosis is followed by analysis. What problems do people key in on? What patterns do these problems seem to take? The change agent synthesizes this information into primary concerns, problem areas, and possible actions. Action research requires the people who will participate in any change program to help identify the problem and determine the solution. So the third step—feedback—requires sharing with employees what has been found from the first and second steps. The employees, with the help of the change agent, develop action plans for bringing about any needed change. Now the action part of action research is set in motion. The employees and the change agent carry out the specific actions they have identified to correct the problem. The final step, consistent with the

scientific underpinnings of action research, is evaluation of the action plan's effectiveness, using the initial data gathered as a benchmark.

Action research provides at least two specific benefits. First, it's problem focused. The change agent objectively looks for problems, and the type of problem determines the type of change action. Although this may seem intuitively obvious, many change activities are not handled this way. Rather, they're solution centered. The change agent has a favorite solution—for example, implementing flextime, teams, or a process reengineering program—and then seeks out problems that the solution fits. Second, because action research engages employees so thoroughly in the process, it reduces resistance to change. Once employees have actively participated in the feedback stage, the change process typically takes on a momentum of its own under their sustained pressure to bring it about.

Organizational Development

Organizational development (OD) is a collection of change methods that try to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well-being. OD methods value human and organizational growth, collaborative and participative processes, and a spirit of inquiry. Contemporary OD borrows heavily from postmodern philosophy in placing heavy emphasis on the subjective ways in which people see their environment. The focus is on how individuals make sense of their work environment. The change agent may take the lead in OD, but there is a strong emphasis on collaboration. These are the underlying values in most OD efforts:

1. Respect for people.

Individuals are perceived as responsible, conscientious, and caring. They should be treated with dignity and respect.

2. Trust and support.

An effective and healthy organization is characterized by trust, authenticity, openness, and a supportive climate.

3. Power equalization.

Effective organizations deemphasize hierarchical authority and control.

4. Confrontation.

Problems should be openly confronted, not swept under the rug.

5. Participation.

The more engaged in the decisions they are, the more people affected by a change will be committed to implementing them. Here are six OD techniques or interventions which bring about change.

Sensitivity Training

A variety of names— sensitivity training, laboratory training, encounter groups, and T-groups (training groups)—all refer to an early method of changing behavior through unstructured group interaction. Members were brought together in a free and open environment in which participants discuss themselves and their interactive processes, loosely directed by a professional behavioral scientist who created the opportunity to express ideas, beliefs, and attitudes without taking any leadership role. The group was process oriented, which means individuals learned through observing and participating rather than being told. Many participants found these unstructured groups intimidating, chaotic, and damaging to work relationships.

Survey Feedback

One tool for assessing attitudes held by organizational members, identifying discrepancies among member perceptions, and solving these differences is the survey feedback approach. Everyone in an organization can participate in survey feedback, but of key importance is the organizational “family”—the manager of any given unit and the employees who report directly to him or her. All usually complete a questionnaire about their perceptions and attitudes on a range of topics, including decision-making practices; communication effectiveness; coordination among units; and satisfaction with the organization, job, peers, and immediate supervisor. Data from this questionnaire are tabulated with data pertaining to an individual’s specific “family” and to the entire organization and then distributed to employees. These data become the springboard for identifying problems and clarifying issues that may be creating difficulties for people. Particular attention is given to encouraging discussion and ensuring it focuses on issues and ideas and not on attacking individuals. For instance, are people listening? Are new ideas being generated? Can decision making, interpersonal relations, or job assignments be improved? Answers should lead the group to commit to various remedies for the problems identified.

Process Consultation

Managers often sense their unit’s performance can be improved but are unable to identify what to improve and how. The purpose of process consultation (PC) is for an outside consultant to assist a client, usually a manager, to perceive, understand, and act upon process events' ' with which the manager must deal. These events might include workflow, informal relationships among unit members, and formal communication channels. PC is similar to sensitivity training in assuming we can improve organizational effectiveness by dealing with interpersonal problems and in emphasizing involvement. But the PC is more task directed, and consultants are there to “give the client ‘insight’ into what is going on around him, within him, and between him and other people.” They do not solve the organization’s problems but rather guide or coach the client to solve his or her own problems after jointly diagnosing what needs

improvement. The client develops the skill to analyze processes within his or her unit and can continue to call on it long after the consultant is gone. Because the client actively participates in both the diagnosis and the development of alternatives, he or she arrives at greater understanding of the process and the remedy and is less resistant to the action plan chosen.

Team Building

Organizations increasingly rely on teams to accomplish work tasks. Team building uses high-interaction group activities to increase trust and openness among team members, improve coordination efforts, and increase team performance. Here, we emphasize the intragroup level, meaning organizational families (command groups) as well as committees, project teams, self-managed teams, and task groups.

Team building typically includes goal-setting, development of interpersonal relations among team members, role analysis to clarify each member's role and responsibilities, and team process analysis. It may emphasize or exclude certain activities, depending on the purpose of the development effort and the specific problems with which the team is confronted. Basically, however, team building uses high interaction among members to increase trust and openness.

Intergroup Development

A major area of concern in OD is dysfunctional conflict among groups. Intergroup development seeks to change groups' attitudes, stereotypes, and perceptions about each other. Here, training sessions closely resemble diversity training, except rather than focusing on demographic differences, they focus on differences among occupations, departments, or divisions within an organization. In one company, the engineers saw the accounting department as composed of shy and conservative types and the human resources department as having a bunch of "ultra-liberals more concerned that some protected group of employees might get their feelings hurt than with the company making a profit." Such stereotypes can have an obvious negative impact on coordination efforts among departments. Among several approaches for improving intergroup relations, a popular one emphasizes problem solving. Each group meets independently to list its perceptions of itself and of the other group and how it believes the other group perceives it. The groups share their lists, discuss similarities and differences, and look for the causes of disparities. Are the groups' goals at odds? On what basis were stereotypes formulated? Have words and concepts been defined differently by each group? Answers to questions like these clarify the exact nature of the conflict.

Once they have identified the causes of the difficulty, the groups move to the integration phase—developing solutions to improve relations between them. Subgroups can be formed of members from each of the conflicting groups to conduct further diagnosis and formulate alternative solutions.

Appreciative Inquiry

Most OD approaches are problem centered. They identify a problem or set of problems, then look for a solution. Appreciative inquiry (AI) instead accentuates the positive. Rather than looking for problems to fix, it seeks to identify the unique qualities and special strengths of an organization, which members can build on to improve performance. That is, AI focuses on an organization's successes rather than its problems. The AI process consists of four steps—discovery, dreaming, design, and discovery—often played out in a large-group meeting over a 2- or 3-day time period and overseen by a trained change agent. Discovery sets out to identify what people think are the organization's strengths. Employees recount times they felt the organization worked best or when they specifically felt most satisfied with their jobs. In dreaming, employees use information from the discovery phase to speculate on possible futures, such as what the organization will be like in 5 years. In design, participants find a common vision of how the organization will look in the future and agree on its unique qualities. For the fourth step, participants seek to define the organization's destiny or how to fulfill their dream, and they typically write action plans and develop implementation strategies.

AI has proven an effective change strategy in many famous organizations. Senior managers were able to use employees' information to better their methods of making financial forecasts, improve IT investments, and create new performance-management tools for managers. The end result was a renewed culture focused on winning attitudes and behaviors.

5.8. CREATING A CULTURE FOR CHANGE

We've considered how organizations can adapt to change. But recently, some OB scholars have focused on a more proactive approach—how organizations can embrace change by transforming their cultures. In this section, we review two such approaches: stimulating an innovative culture and creating a learning organization.

Stimulating a Culture of Innovation

Certain characteristics surface repeatedly when researchers study innovative organizations. We've grouped them into structural, cultural, and human resource categories. Change agents should consider introducing these characteristics into their organization to create an innovative climate. Before we look at these characteristics, however, let's clarify what we mean by innovation.

Definition of Innovation

We said change refers to making things different. Innovation, a more specialized kind of change, is a new idea applied to initiating or improving a product, process, or service. So all innovations imply change, but not all changes necessarily introduce new ideas or lead to significant

improvements. Innovations can range from small incremental improvements, such as netbook computers, to radical breakthroughs.

Sources of Innovation

Structural variables have been the most studied potential source of innovation. A comprehensive review of the structure–innovation relationship leads to the following conclusions:

1. Organic structures positively influence innovation. Because they're lower in vertical differentiation, formalization, and centralization, organic organizations facilitate the flexibility, adaptation, and cross-fertilization that make the adoption of innovations easier.
2. Long tenure in management is associated with innovation. Managerial tenure apparently provides legitimacy and knowledge of how to accomplish tasks and obtain desired outcomes.
3. Innovation is nurtured when there are slack resources. Having an abundance of resources allows an organization to afford to purchase innovations, bear the cost of instituting them, and absorb failures
4. Interunit communication is high in innovative organizations. These organizations are high users of committees, task forces, cross-functional teams, and other mechanisms that facilitate interaction across departmental lines. Innovative organizations tend to have similar cultures. They encourage experimentation. They reward both successes and failures. They celebrate mistakes. Unfortunately, in too many organizations, people are rewarded for the absence of failures rather than for the presence of successes. Such cultures extinguish risk taking and innovation. People will suggest and try new ideas only when they feel such behaviors exact no penalties. Managers in innovative organizations recognize that failures are a natural by-product of venturing into the unknown.

Within the human resources category, innovative organizations actively promote the training and development of their members so they keep current, offer high job security so employees don't fear getting fired for making mistakes, and encourage individuals to become champions of change. Once a new idea is developed, idea champions actively and enthusiastically promote it, build support, overcome resistance, and ensure it's implemented. Champions have common personality characteristics: extremely high self-confidence, persistence, energy, and a tendency to take risks. They also display characteristics associated with transformational leadership—they inspire and energize others with their vision of an innovation's potential and their strong personal conviction about their mission. Ideal champions are good at gaining the commitment of others, and their jobs provide considerable decision-making discretion; this autonomy helps them introduce and implement innovations.

People in collectivist cultures prefer appeals for cross-functional support for innovation efforts; people in high power distance cultures prefer champions to work closely with those in authority to approve innovative activities before work is begun; and the higher the uncertainty avoidance of a society, the more champions should work within the organization's rules and procedures to develop the innovation. These findings suggest that effective managers will alter their organization's championing strategies to reflect cultural values. So, for instance, although ideal champions in Russia might succeed by ignoring budgetary limitations and working around confining procedures, champions in Austria, Denmark, Germany, or other cultures high in uncertainty avoidance will be more effective by closely following budgets and procedures.

Creating a Learning Organization

Another way an organization can proactively manage change is to make continuous growth part of its culture—to become a learning organization.

What's a Learning Organization?

“All organizations learn, whether they consciously choose to or not—it is a fundamental requirement for their sustained existence.” Just as individuals learn, so too do organizations. A learning organization has developed the continuous capacity to adapt and change. Some organizations just do it better than others. Most organizations engage in single-loop learning. When they detect errors, their correction process relies on past routines and present policies. In contrast, learning organizations use double-loop learning. They correct errors by modifying objectives, policies, and standard routines. Double-loop learning challenges deeply rooted assumptions and norms. It provides opportunities for radically different solutions to problems and dramatic jumps in improvement. Proponents of the learning organization envision it as a remedy for three fundamental problems of traditional organizations: fragmentation, competition, and reactivity. First, fragmentation based on specialization creates “walls” and “chimneys” that separate different functions into independent and often warring fiefdoms. Second, an overemphasis on competition often undermines collaboration. Managers compete to show who is right, who knows more, or who is more persuasive. Divisions compete when they ought to cooperate and share knowledge. Team leaders compete to show who the best manager is. And third, reactivity misdirects management's attention to problem solving rather than creation. The problem solver tries to make something go away, while a creator tries to bring something new into being. An emphasis on reactivity pushes out innovation and continuous improvement and, in its place, encourages people to run around “putting out fires.”

Managing Learning

Managers can do following things to make their firms learning organizations

Establish a strategy.

Management needs to make explicit its commitment to change, innovation, and continuous improvement.

Redesign the organization's structure.

The formal structure can be a serious impediment to learning. Flattening the structure, eliminating or combining departments, and increasing the use of cross-functional teams reinforces interdependence and reduces boundaries.

Reshape the organization's culture.

To become a learning organization, managers must demonstrate by their actions that taking risks and admitting failures are desirable. That means rewarding people who take chances and make mistakes. And management needs to encourage functional conflict. "The key to unlocking real openness at work," says one expert on learning organizations, "is to teach people to give up having to be in agreement. We think agreement is so important. You have to bring paradoxes, conflicts, and dilemmas out in the open, so collectively we can be more intelligent than we can be individually."

5.9. SUMMARY

The need for change has been implied throughout this text. "A casual reflection on change should indicate that it encompasses almost all of our concepts in the organizational behavior literature." For instance, think about attitudes, motivation, work teams, communication, leadership, organizational structures, human resource practices, and organizational cultures. Change was an integral part in our discussion of each. If environments were perfectly static, if employees' skills and abilities were always up to date and incapable of deteriorating, and if tomorrow were always exactly the same as today, organizational change would have little or no relevance to managers. But the real world is turbulent, requiring organizations and their members to undergo dynamic change if they are to perform at competitive levels. There are different approaches to change that enable the Employee, manager and organization to manage the consequences of it.

5.10. QUESTIONS

Write long answers:

1. What forces act as stimulants to change, and what is the difference between planned and unplanned change?
2. What forces act as sources of resistance to change?
3. What are the four main approaches to managing organizational change?

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ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND STRESS MANAGEMENT - II

Unit Structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2. Work Stress and Its Management
- 6.3. What Is Stress?
- 6.4 Demands–resources model.
- 6.5. Potential Sources of Stress
- 6.6. Individual Differences
- 6.7. Cultural Differences
- 6.8. Consequences of Stress
- 6.9. Managing Stress
- 6.10. Summary
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- 6.12. References

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand Work Stress And Its Management
- Explain What Is Stress?
- Elaborate Demands–resources model.
- Understand Potential Sources of Stress
- Describe Individual Differences and Cultural Differences
- Explain Consequences of Stress and ways for Managing Stress.

6.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous Chapter we studied Changes and how they influence an employee. Readiness to change is most of the time difficult but with efforts by individuals it can be possible. We also studied the approaches of

change in detail. Now in this chapter we will discuss Work Stress and Its Management. First we understand the concept of stress. Then it is necessary to focus on sources of stress to manage them properly. Then after discussing consequences we can study ways of managing stress effectively.

6.2. WORK STRESS AND ITS MANAGEMENT

Friends say they're stressed from greater workloads and longer hours because of downsizing at their companies. Parents worry about the lack of job stability and reminisce about a time when a job with a large company implied lifetime security. There are surveys in which employees complain about the stress of trying to balance work and family responsibilities. Indeed, work is, for most people, the most important source of stress in life.

6.3. WHAT IS STRESS?

Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, demand, or resource related to what the individual desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important.

Although stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it is not necessarily bad in and of itself; it also has a positive value. It's an opportunity when it offers potential gain. Consider, for example, the superior performance an athlete or stage performer gives in a "clutch" situation. Such individuals often use stress positively to rise to the occasion and perform at their maximum. Similarly, many professionals see the pressures of heavy workloads and deadlines as positive challenges that enhance the quality of their work and the satisfaction they get from their job.

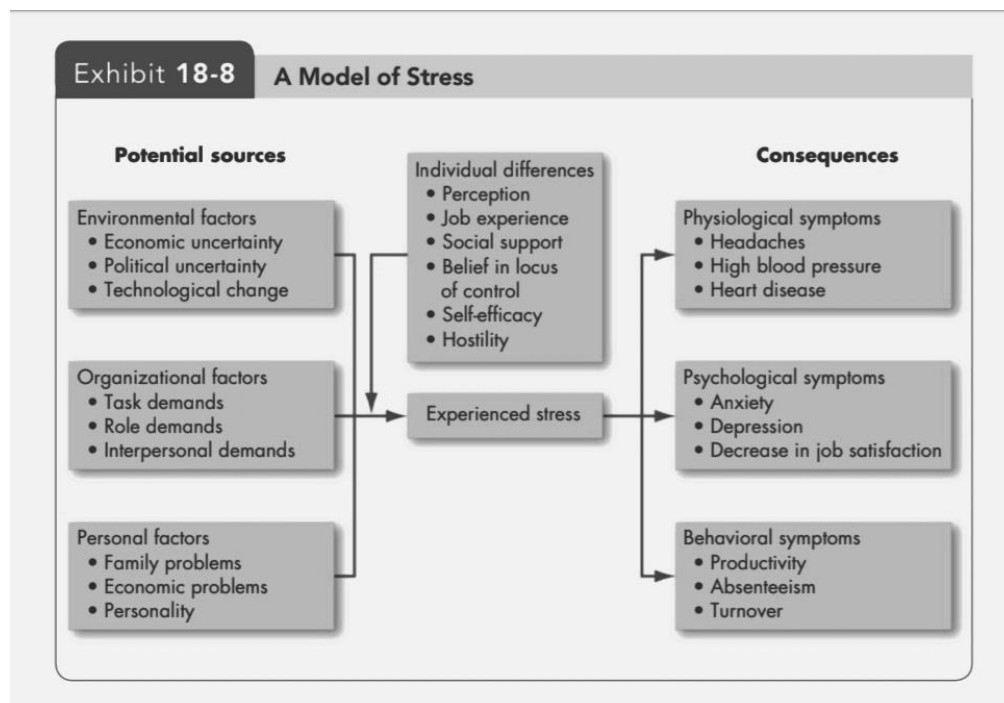
Recently, researchers have argued that challenge stressors—or stressors associated with workload, pressure to complete tasks, and time urgency—operate quite differently from hindrance stressors—or stresses that keep you from reaching your goals. Although research is just starting to accumulate, early evidence suggests challenge stressors produce less strain than hindrance stressors. Researchers have sought to clarify the conditions under which each type of stress exists. It indicates that employees who have a stronger affective commitment to their organization can transfer psychological stress into greater focus and higher sales performance, whereas employees with low levels of commitment perform worse under stress. And when challenge stress increases, those with high levels of organizational support have higher role-based performance, but those with low levels of organizational support do not.

More typically, stress is associated with demands and resources. Demands are responsibilities, pressures, obligations, and uncertainties individuals face in the workplace. Resources are things within an individual's control that he or she can use to resolve the demands.

6.4 DEMANDS–RESOURCES MODEL

When you take a test at school or undergo your annual performance review at work, you feel stress because you confront opportunities and performance pressures. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities, and a higher salary. A poor review may prevent you from getting a promotion. An extremely poor review might even result in your being fired. To the extent you can apply resources to the demands on you—such as being prepared, placing the exam or review in perspective, or obtaining social support—you will feel less stress.

Research indicates adequate resources help reduce the stressful nature of demands when demands and resources match. If emotional demands are stressing you, having emotional resources in the form of social support is especially important. If the demands are cognitive—say, information overload—then job resources in the form of computer support or information are more important. Thus, under the demands–resources perspective, having resources to cope with stress is just as important in offsetting it as demands are in increasing it.



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge , T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

6.5. POTENTIAL SOURCES OF STRESS

As the model in Exhibit 18-8shows, there are three categories of potential stressors: environmental, organizational, and personal.

Environmental Factors

Just as environmental uncertainty influences the design of an organization's structure, it also influences stress levels among employees in that organization. Indeed, uncertainty is the biggest reason people have trouble coping with organizational changes. There are three main types of environmental uncertainty:

- 1) Economic
- 2) Political
- 3) Technological

Changes in the business cycle create economic uncertainties. When the economy is contracting, for example, people become increasingly anxious about their job security.

Political uncertainties don't tend to create stress among North Americans as they do for employees in countries such as Haiti or Venezuela. The obvious reason is that the United States and Canada have stable political systems, in which change is typically implemented in an orderly manner. Yet political threats and changes, even in countries such as the United States and Canada, can induce stress. Threats of terrorism in developed and developing nations, or the difficulties lead to political uncertainty that becomes stressful to people in these countries. Because innovations can make an employee's skills and experience obsolete in a very short time, computers, robotics, automation, and similar forms of technological change are also a threat to many people and cause them stress.

Organizational Factors

There is no shortage of factors within an organization that can cause stress. Pressures to avoid errors or complete tasks in a limited time, work overload, a demanding and insensitive boss, and unpleasant coworkers are a few examples. These factors can be categorized around task, role, and interpersonal demands.

Task demands relate to a person's job. They include the design of the job, working conditions, and the physical work layout. Assembly lines can put pressure on people when they perceive the line's speed to be excessive. Working in an overcrowded room or a visible location where noise and interruptions are constant can increase anxiety and stress. As customer service grows ever more important, emotional labor becomes a source of stress.

Role demands relate to pressures placed on a person as a function of the particular role he or she plays in the organization. Role conflicts create expectations that may be hard to satisfy. Role overload occurs when the employee is expected to do more than time permits. Role ambiguity means role expectations are not clearly understood and the employee is not sure what to do. Individuals who face high situational constraints are also less able to engage in the proactive coping behaviors that reduce stress levels.

When faced with hassles at work, they will not only have higher levels of distress at the time, but they'll also be less likely to take steps to eliminate stressors in the future.

Interpersonal demands are pressures created by other employees. Lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause stress, especially among employees with a high social need. A rapidly growing body of research has also shown that negative co-worker and supervisor behaviors, including fights, bullying, racial harassment, and sexual harassment, are especially strongly related to stress at work.

Personal Factors

The typical individual works about 40 to 50 hours a week. But the experiences and problems people encounter in the other 120-plus can spill over to the job. This includes factors in the employee's personal life: family issues, personal economic problems, and inherent personality characteristics. National surveys consistently show people hold family and personal relationships dear. Marital difficulties, the breaking of a close relationship, and discipline troubles with children create stress. Employees often can't leave at the front door when they arrive at work. Some people are poor money managers or have wants that exceed their earning capacity. The economic problems of overextended financial resources create stress and take attention away from work.

Studies in three diverse organizations found that participants who reported stress symptoms before beginning a job accounted for most of the variance in stress symptoms reported 9 months later. The researchers concluded that some people may have an inherent tendency to accentuate negative aspects of the world. If this is true, then a significant individual factor that influences stress is a person's basic disposition. That is, stress symptoms expressed on the job may actually originate in the person's personality.

Stressors Are Additive When we review stressors individually, it's easy to overlook that stress is an additive phenomenon—it builds up. Each new and persistent stressor adds to an individual's stress level. So a single stressor may be relatively unimportant in and of itself, but if added to an already high level of stress, it can be dangerous. To appraise the total amount of stress an individual is under, we have to sum up his or her opportunity stresses, constraint stresses, and demand stresses.

6.6. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Some people thrive on stressful situations, while others are overwhelmed by them. These four—perception, job experience, social support, and personality—are relevant. Employees react in response to their perception of reality, rather than to reality itself. Perception, therefore, will moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and an employee's reaction to it. Layoffs may cause one person to fear losing his job, while another sees an opportunity to get a large severance allowance and start her own business. So stress potential doesn't lie in objective conditions; rather, it lies in an employee's interpretation of those conditions.

Experience on the job tends to be negatively related to work stress. Two Reasons have been found. First is selective withdrawal. Voluntary turnover is more probable among people who experience more stress. Therefore, people who remain with an organization longer are those with more stress-resistant traits or those more resistant to the stress characteristics of their organization. Second, people eventually develop coping mechanisms to deal with stress. Because this takes time, senior members of the organization are more likely to be fully adapted and should experience less stress. Social support—collegial relationships with co-workers or supervisors—can buffer the impact of stress. This is among the best-documented relationships in the stress literature. Social support acts as a soothing, negative effect of even high-strain jobs. Perhaps the most widely studied personality trait in stress is neuroticism, neurotic individuals are more prone to experience psychological strain. Evidence suggests that neurotic individuals are more prone to believe there are stressors in their work environments, so part of the problem is that they believe their environments are more threatening. They also tend to select less adaptive coping mechanisms, relying on avoidance as a way of dealing with problems rather than attempting to resolve them.

Work-holism is another personal characteristic related to stress levels. Workaholics are people obsessed with their work; they put in an enormous number of hours, think about work even when not working, and create additional work responsibilities to satisfy an inner compulsion to work more. In some ways, they might seem like ideal employees. That's probably why when most people are asked in interviews what their greatest weakness is, they reflexively say, "I just work too hard." However, there is a difference between working hard and working compulsively. Workaholics are not necessarily more productive than other employees, despite their extreme efforts. The strain of putting in such a high level of work effort eventually begins to wear on the workaholic, leading to higher levels of work-life conflict and psychological burnout.

6.7. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Research suggests the job conditions that cause stress show some differences across cultures. A study of 5,270 managers from 20 countries found individuals from individualistic countries experienced higher levels of stress due to work interfering with family than did individuals from collectivist countries. The authors proposed that this may occur because, in collectivist cultures, working extra hours is seen as a sacrifice to help the family, whereas in individualistic cultures, work is seen as a means to personal achievement that takes away from the family. Evidence suggests that stressors are associated with perceived stress and strains among employees in different countries. In other words, stress is equally bad for employees of all cultures.

6.8. CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

Stress shows itself in a number of ways, such as high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty making routine decisions, loss of appetite, accident proneness. These symptoms fit under three general categories: physiological, psychological, and behavioral symptoms. **Physiological Symptoms** Most early concern with stress was directed at physiological symptoms because most researchers were specialists in the health and medical sciences. Their work led to the conclusion that stress could create changes in metabolism, increase heart and breathing rates and blood pressure, bring on headaches, and induce heart attacks. Evidence now clearly suggests stress may have harmful physiological effects. One study linked stressful job demands to increased susceptibility to upper respiratory illnesses and poor immune system functioning, especially for individuals with low self-efficacy. Many other studies have shown similar results linking work stress to a variety of indicators of poor health.

Psychological Symptoms

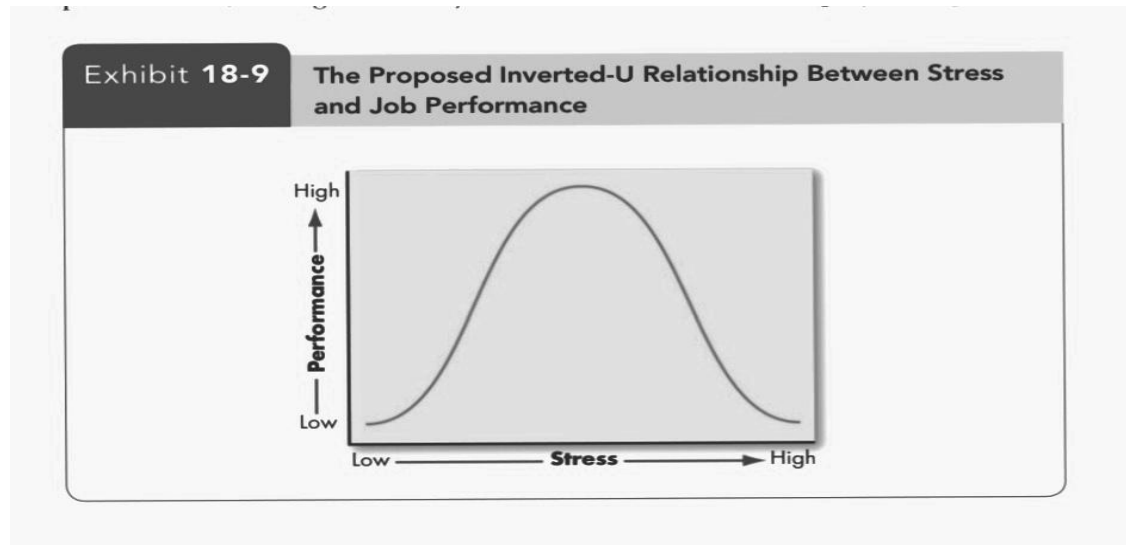
Job dissatisfaction is “the simplest and most obvious psychological effect” of stress. But stress shows itself in other psychological states—for instance, tension, anxiety, irritability, boredom, and procrastination. For example, a study that tracked physiological responses of employees over time found that stress due to high workloads was related to higher blood pressure and lower emotional well-being.

Jobs that make multiple and conflicting demands or that lack clarity about the incumbent’s duties, authority, and responsibilities increase both stress and dissatisfaction. Similarly, the less control people have over the pace of their work, the greater their stress and dissatisfaction. Jobs that provide a low level of variety, significance, autonomy, feedback, and identity appear to create stress and reduce satisfaction and involvement in the job. Not everyone reacts to autonomy in the same way, however. For those with an external locus of control, increased job control increases the tendency to experience stress and exhaustion.

Behavioral Symptoms

Research on behavior and stress has been conducted across several countries and over time, and the relationships appear relatively consistent. Behavior-related stress symptoms include reductions in productivity, absence, and turnover, as well as changes in eating habits, increased smoking or consumption of alcohol, rapid speech, fidgeting, and sleep disorders.

A significant amount of research has investigated the stress–performance relationship. The most widely studied pattern of this relationship is the inverted U shown in Exhibit 18-9.



(Source - Based on Robbins, S.P. Judge, T.A. & Vohra,, N.(2013) Organizational Behavior (15th Edition)Pearson Education.)

The logic underlying the figure is that low to moderate levels of stress stimulate the body and increase its ability to react. Individuals then often perform their tasks better, more intensely, or more rapidly. But too much stress places unattainable demands on a person, which result in lower performance. In spite of the popularity and intuitive appeal of the inverted-U model, it doesn't get a lot of empirical support. So we should be careful of assuming it accurately depicts the stress–performance relationship.

Researchers have begun to differentiate challenge and hindrance stressors, showing that these two forms of stress have opposite effects on job behaviors, especially job performance. A meta-analysis of responses from more than 35,000 individuals showed role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, job insecurity, environmental uncertainty, and situational constraints were all consistently negatively related to job performance. There is also evidence that challenge stress improves job performance in a supportive work environment, whereas hindrance stress reduces job performance in all work environments.

6.9. MANAGING STRESS

Because low to moderate levels of stress can be functional and lead to higher performance, management may not be concerned when employees experience them. Employees, however, are likely to perceive even low levels of stress as undesirable. It's not unlikely, therefore, for employees and management to have different notions of what constitutes an acceptable level of stress on the job. What management may consider to be “a positive stimulus that keeps the adrenaline running” is very likely to be seen as “excessive pressure” by the employee.

Individual Approaches

An employee can take personal responsibility for reducing stress levels. Individual strategies that have proven effective include time-management

techniques, increased physical exercise, relaxation training, and expanded social support networks.

Many people manage their time poorly. The well-organized employee, like the well-organized student, can often accomplish twice as much as the person who is poorly organized. So an understanding and utilization of basic time-management principles can help individual better cope with tensions created by job demands.

A few of the best-known time-management principles are

- (1) Making daily lists of activities to be accomplished,
- (2) Prioritizing activities by importance and urgency,
- (3) Scheduling activities according to the priorities set,
- (4) Knowing your daily cycle and handling the most demanding parts of your job when you are most alert and productive, and
- (5) Avoiding electronic distractions like frequently checking email, this can limit attention and reduce efficiency.

These time-management skills can help minimize procrastination by focusing efforts on immediate goals and boosting motivation even in the face of tasks that are less desirable. Physicians have recommended noncompetitive physical exercise, such as aerobics, walking, jogging, swimming, and riding a bicycle, as a way to deal with excessive stress levels. These activities increase lung capacity, lower the at-rest heart rate, and provide a mental diversion from work pressures, effectively reducing work-related levels of stress.

Individuals can also teach themselves to reduce tension through relaxation techniques such as meditation, hypnosis, and deep breathing. The objective is to reach a state of deep physical relaxation, in which you focus all your energy on release of muscle tension. Deep relaxation for 15 or 20 minutes a day releases strain and provides a pronounced sense of peacefulness, as well as significant changes in heart rate, blood pressure, and other physiological factors. A growing body of research shows that simply taking breaks from work at routine intervals can facilitate psychological recovery and reduce stress significantly and may improve job performance, and these effects are even greater if relaxation techniques are employed.

As we have noted, friends, family, or work colleagues can provide an outlet when stress levels become excessive. Expanding your social support network provides someone to hear your problems and offer a more objective perspective on a stressful situation than your own.

Organizational Approaches

Several organizational factors that cause stress— particularly task and role demands—are controlled by management and thus can be modified or changed. Strategies to consider include improved employee selection and job placement, training, realistic goal-setting, redesign of jobs, increased

employee involvement, improved organizational communication, employee, and corporate wellness programs.

Certain jobs are more stressful than others but, as we've seen, individuals differ in their response to stressful situations. We know individuals with little experience or an external locus of control tend to be more prone to stress. Selection and placement decisions should take these facts into consideration. Obviously, management shouldn't restrict hiring to only experienced individuals with an internal locus, but such individuals may adapt better to high-stress jobs and perform those jobs more effectively. Similarly, training can increase an individual's self-efficacy and thus lessen job strain. Individuals perform better when they have specific and challenging goals and receive feedback on their progress toward these goals. Goals can reduce stress as well as provide motivation. 100 Employees who are highly committed to their goals and see purpose in their jobs experience less stress because they are more likely to perceive stressors as challenges rather than hindrances. Specific goals perceived as attainable clarify performance expectations. In addition, goal feedback reduces uncertainties about actual job performance. The result is less employee frustration, role ambiguity, and stress. Redesigning jobs to give employees more responsibility, more meaningful work, more autonomy, and increased feedback can reduce stress because these factors give employees greater control over work activities and lessen dependence on others. But, not all employees want enriched jobs. The right redesign for employees with a low need for growth might be less responsibility and increased specialization. If individuals prefer structure and routine, reducing skill variety should also reduce uncertainties and stress levels. Role stress is detrimental to a large extent because employees feel uncertain about goals, expectations, how they'll be evaluated, and the like. By giving these employees a voice in the decisions that directly affect their job performance, management can increase employee control and reduce role stress. Thus, managers should consider increasing employee involvement in decision making, because evidence clearly shows that increases in employee empowerment reduce psychological strain. Increasing formal organizational communication with employees reduces uncertainty by lessening role ambiguity and role conflict. Given the importance that perceptions play in moderating the stress-response relationship, management can also use effective communications as a means to shape employee perceptions.

Some employees need an occasional escape from the frenetic pace of their work. Proponents say they can revive and rejuvenate workers who might otherwise be headed for burnout. Our final suggestion is organizationally supported wellness programs. These typically provide workshops to help people quit smoking, control alcohol use, lose weight, eat better, and develop a regular exercise program; they focus on the employee's total physical and mental condition. Some help employees improve their psychological health as well. A meta-analysis of 36 programs designed to reduce stress showed that interventions to help employees reframe stressful situations and use active coping strategies appreciably reduced stress levels. Most wellness programs assume employees need to take

personal responsibility for their physical and mental health and that the organization is merely a means to that end. Most firms that have introduced wellness programs have found significant benefits.

6.9. SUMMARY

In this chapter we discussed Work Stress and Its Management. It is important to cope with stress and for that we have to study the concept of stress. It gives awareness about sources of stress. Even Consequences of stress enables employees to work on coping strategies and then there are ways which leads individual to manage their stress. Stress is a part of life but to improve work performance and overall progress of individual it is necessary to study and add these healthy strategies to individual's lifestyle. It will enhance personal and Organizational Development. Even taking care of organizational stress is a responsibility of Organization too and they should work on it with the cooperation of employees. It will definitely improve organization's performance for the long run.

6.10. QUESTIONS

Write long answers:

1. What is stress, and what are the possible sources of stress?
2. What are the consequences of stress?
3. What are the individual and organizational approaches to managing stress?

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