BLOCK INTRODUCTION

You might have already gone through the first block of this course. Let us discuss about the second block of this course. This block consists of four units.

The *first unit* of this block is related to work related attitudes of individual. In this unit, you will come to know about the concept of Job Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Commitment. The unit discusses about the antecedents of job satisfaction, components of organizational commitment and also about the different types of organizational citizenship behavior.

The *second unit* of this block deals with the instrumental and terminal work values. By the end of this unit, you will come to know about the various models which depict the cultural differences in values (models by Hofstede, Trompenaar).You will also be surprised to know that there are cultural differences towards how we value our job. Lastly, the salient Indian social values will also be explained.

The *third unit* of this block is related to work motivation. With the help of this unit, you will come to know about the definition; process and theories of motivation. At the end of this unit, the Indian Perspective towards motivation will also be discussed.

In the *fourth and the last unit* of this block, you will be introduced about the concept of stress and wellbeing at the work place. In this unit the nature, causes and consequences of stress at workplace will be discussed. The unit will also explain the techniques of managing stress and enhancing well being at the workplace.

Unit 3- Work Attitudes

Structure

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction refers to the degree to which individuals like their jobs. Some people enjoy work and find it to be a central part of life. Others hate to work and do so only because they must. This job attitude has been the subject of extensive research in the domain of industrial-organizational psychology and organizational behavior. A thorough account of the meaning, causes and consequences of employee attitude will be presented in this unit. First, the nature of job satisfaction will be discussed highlighting its historical antecedents, meaning and dimensions. Second, some major assessment techniques will be discussed. Third, an account of the antecedents or predictors of job satisfaction will be put forth. The outcomes of job satisfaction will also be explained. At the end of the unit, the concepts of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment will also be explained.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

 • Explain the meaning, antecedents of job satisfaction;

 • Describe the meaning and types of organizational citizenship behavior;

 • Identify the concept and components of organizational commitment.

3.2 DEFINITION, CHARACTERISTICS AND NATURE OF JOB SATISFACTION

3.2.1 Definition of Job Satisfaction

In the past hundred years, job satisfaction has been defined by severalorganizational behavior scholars and researchers. The following are few of the definitions:

The most-used research definition of job satisfaction is by Locke (1976), who defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences".

Cook et al. (1981) defined job satisfaction as "an attitude which manifests itself in evaluation of the job and of the employing organization as contributing suitably to the attainment of one's personal objectives".

Lambert, Barton, and Hogan (1999) defined the term as "the fulfillment or gratification of certain needs that are associated with one's work."

Spector (1997) defines it as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs".

3.2.2 Characteristics of Job Satisfaction:

The above definitions reflect few of the characteristics of job satisfaction:

 1) Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred.

2) Job satisfaction is the extent to which the working environment meets the Job Satisfaction needs and expectations of employees. It is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides outcomes that are viewed as important.

3) Job satisfaction is an evaluation of the job and of the organization that shows up in significant work behaviors such as productivity, absenteeism, turnover, workplace deviance, organizational citizenship and so forth. Job satisfaction can thus be understood as an important job attitude.

Job satisfaction is reflected in terms of attitude of employees. As an attitude, it has three elements: *affective, cognitive and behavioral.* The *affective component* is the emotional response to the job situation and is reflected in the statement "I feel good about my job". The *cognitive element* is the appraisal on the extent to which the job fulfills important needs associated with one's work. It is illustrated in the statement "My job helps me to achieve my goals". The *behavioral component* is the intention to engage in specific behaviors as manifested in productivity, absenteeism, turnover and forms of organizational citizenship. It is reflected in the statement "I want to give my best on the job". Although viewing job satisfaction as made of three components is helpful in understanding its complexity, the term as it is generally used, essentially refers to the affect part of the three components. Thus the statement "I like my job" best exemplifies job satisfaction and signifies that it is primarily an individual's affective reaction to a particular job that results from the person's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, anticipated, or deserved.

3.2.3 Nature of Job Satisfaction

For almost one hundred years, employee job satisfaction has been targeted by research. The origin of these studies dates back to at least 1911, when Taylor began to study employees and their job duties to develop better ways to train workers. By 1927, the study of employee's positive or negative reaction to their jobs had fully begun to take hold when Elton Mayo first studied the effect of lighting at the Western Electric Hawthorne Works in Chicago. These studies showed that lighting had little connection to worker productivity, creating the fundamental groundwork for future studies that asked about other factors that may have an impact on employees. The Hawthorne Studies continued until 1932, and in the five-year interval, the research widened to include factors such as temperature, fatigue, breaks, and working hours.

Mayo's work may seem marginally relevant to job satisfaction today, but he discovered that the mere act of studying workers and providing them with more attention increased their motivation and productivity. Mayo had stumbled upon the essence of human motivation, marking a new era of humanistic job satisfaction research, and revolutionising the research and theories of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has now become one of the most frequently measured organizational variable in both research and applied settings. There are multiple reasons for interest in this work attitude. First, organizations and researchers are interested in simply assessing the current state of employee job satisfaction. They are often concerned with employee well-being and psychological health, and some form of job satisfaction measurement is therefore included in employee opinion surveys. Second, understanding the influences on job satisfaction is important for improving organizational functioning. Significant lines of research have therefore focused on the role of personal, work-related and organizational variables in job satisfaction. Third, job satisfaction has important implications for work outcomes within an organization. Interest has thus been in the empirical examination of job satisfaction and its relationship with such outcomes as performance, withdrawal behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors and other work behaviors.

3.3 ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Various studies have examined the antecedents or predictors of job satisfaction. Two distinct models of job satisfaction are apparent in these studies. The first model focuses on personal characteristics such as age, years of service, gender, occupational rank, educational level, personality and cultural factors. The second model places emphasis on the individual's work situation including the nature of the work, pay, promotional opportunities, supervisor, work group and working conditions. The two sets of variables are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1 Personal Characteristics

Following are few of the personal characteristics of an individual which influences their level of job satisfaction:

... *Age and years of experience* – In general, research on age and tenure differences in job satisfaction suggest that older and more experienced workers are more satisfied with their jobs than are younger and less experienced workers (e.g., Wright and Hamilton, 1978; Janson and Martin, 1982). This relationship holds true for blue-collar and white-collar employees and for men and women. Several explanations have been put forward for this relationship. First, it is attributed to the more realistic job expectations of older employees owing to age and maturity. Second, it is reasoned that age and experience usually bring increased confidence, responsibility and sense of accomplishment thus contributing to higher levels of satisfaction. Third, there is an indication that older people may actually have "better" or more highly rewarded jobs.

... *Gender* – Research evidence on gender differences in job satisfaction is inconsistent and contradictory. In general, women are paid less than men, their opportunities for promotion are fewer and they believe that they have to work harder than men to receive comparable rewards. These differences manifest in their satisfaction with their jobs. Thus gender relates to job satisfaction only to the extent that other factors vary with gender.

... *Occupational level* – The level at which individuals work within an organization has some influence on their satisfaction. In general, executives express more positive job attitudes than do first-line supervisors, who, in turn, are usually more satisfied than their subordinates are. Higher-level jobs offer greater opportunities for growth, challenge, autonomy and responsibility. Thus, employees' job satisfaction tends to increase with each level within the organizational hierarchy.

... *Education* – Educational level is found to be related to job satisfaction. While some researchers have found positive relationships between education levels and job satisfaction, others have found a slight negative correlation, especially for higher levels of education. The explanation is that better-educated persons have higher expectations and believe that their work should provide greater responsibility and fulfillment. Many jobs however do not satisfy these expectations resulting in lower levels of satisfaction. However, evidence on this relationship is still inconclusive.

... *Personality* – Research on positive and negative affectivity, the "Big Five" personality attributes and core self evaluations indicate that personality variables are related to job

satisfaction and that they are partly heritable. Firstly, it has been shown that persons high in positive affectivity are happier in their work than those who are high on negative affectivity. While positive affectivity is described by high energy, enthusiasm and pleasurable engagement, negative affectivity is characterised by distress, unpleasurable engagement and nervousness (Heller, 2002). Secondly, evidence suggests that people high on extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness (dimensions of the "Big Five") report higher levels of job satisfaction than those who are low on these dimensions. Finally, core self-evaluation (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) has been found to correlate with employee job satisfaction. Core selfevaluation has four facets: self - esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism). Research evidence found that these personality factors measured in childhood showed a direct relationship to job satisfaction some 30 years later. Those scoring high on esteem and efficacy, low on neuroticism and having an internal locus of control, as measured in their childhood, showed significantly higher job satisfaction in their middle adult years.

... *Cultural factors* – Cross-cultural research on job satisfaction suggests that employees in Western cultures have higher levels of job satisfaction than those in Eastern cultures. It is reasoned that individuals in Eastern cultures value negative emotions while those in Western cultures emphasise positive emotions and individual happiness. Evidence also indicates that among the Asian countries, employees in India are happier with their work environment, teamwork, supervision and training at the workplace.

3.3.2 Work Situation Characteristics

Following are few of the work related characteristics that influences the individual's level of of job satisfaction:

... *The work itself* – Of all the major situational influences on job satisfaction, the nature of the work itself best predicts overall job satisfaction, as well as other important outcomes like employee retention (Judge & Church, 2000). When employees were asked to evaluate different facets of their job such as supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, co-workers, and so forth, the content of the work – including job challenge, autonomy, variety, and scope, together called as "intrinsic job characteristics"– emerged as the most

important job facet. It was found that interesting and challenging work, work that is not boring and a job that provides status; were some of the most important ingredients of a satisfying job. Thomas & Tymon (1997) suggested that when employees feel their work is meaningful and that they are responsible for their outcomes, they show higher levels of effort and attention to doing tasks well. Similarly, Cappelli (2000) highlighted the importance of intrinsic rewards when participants rated interesting work, open communications, and opportunities for advancement as the top three things they desire in their jobs.

... *Pay* – Wages and salaries represent a significant, but complex, multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Employees often view pay as a reflection of how management view their contribution to the organization and thus influences the satisfaction they derive from their job. However, more important than actual pay, it is the perceived equity or fairness of one's pay that has been found to be related to job satisfaction. As long as people feel their pay is fair, they can express relatively high satisfaction with it, at least within broader limits.

... *Promotions* – Promotional opportunities have a significant impact on job satisfaction. However, since promotions take on different forms, they seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance. Additionally, a promotion with a 10% salary rise is typically not as satisfying as one with a 20% salary rise. These differences help explain why executive promotions may be more satisfying than promotions that occur at the lower level of organizations.

... *Supervision* – The nature of supervision provided can also have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Studies have shown that employees who have positive interactions with supervisors are generally more satisfied at work (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992). Positive interactions tend to include constructive feedback, effective communication, and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Schroffel, 1999). Positive supervisory relationships are also those that treat the employees with respect, that promote staff cohesion but allow for individual thinking, and that fulfill employee's functional and interpersonal needs. Supervision is a complex variable however, and it is unrealistic to assume that job

satisfaction can be guaranteed as long as supervisors interact positively with their employees. Individual personality characteristics may, for example, affect the employee's needs and management expectations. For example, Schroffel (1999) suggests that employees who have more experience desire less supervision and employees with less experience prefer more supervision. Also, studies have shown that organizational setting can affect the employee's desired supervisory relationship. In chaotic, ambiguous, or otherwise unstructured job settings, employees tend to prefer more structured supervision. Conversely, in jobs where tasks are clearly defined and workers are well trained, a less structured supervisory style is preferred Job Satisfaction (House and Mitchell, 1974).

... *Work group* – The importance of co-worker social support has been investigated for decades. As far back as the Hawthorne Studies of the 1920's, research has shown that workers who belong to a social group and have friendships on the job tend to be more satisfied (Maynard, 1986). Maynard suggests further that employees who lack social support at work experience more stress, have less coping techniques, and are generally less satisfied. Fellow employees can satisfy many social needs, and sympathetic and supportive co-workers can increase job satisfaction. Co-workers are also vital for evaluating the equity and fairness of one's pay and work requirements, and social needs studies have shown that coworker job satisfaction can influence one's own job satisfaction.

... *Working conditions* – Working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (e.g. clean, attractive surroundings), the employees will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (e.g. hot, noisy surroundings), they will find it more difficult to get things done.

3.4 OUTCOMES OF JOB SATISFACTION

The extent to which employees like or dislike their jobs has important consequences for workplace conduct. Feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one's job can be a predictor of productivity, organizational citizenship, withdrawal and other work behaviors. The specific outcomes of job satisfaction have been discussed in the following sections.

3.4.1 Job Performance

The notion that a "happy worker is a productive worker" has long been examined by organizational behavior researchers. Studies reflect that, job satisfaction can predict performance though only to a moderate extent. There are several factors that seem to weaken and modify the impact of job satisfaction on performancelike complexity of the job, autonomy to the employees,working conditions, task structure, previous experience, task abilities, requisite skills etc.

3.4.2 Withdrawal Behaviors Withdrawal behaviors constitute such actions as chronic absenteeism and voluntary turnover that enable employees to escape from adverse organizational situations. Although voluntary turnover is permanent, while absenteeism is a short-term reaction, both are ways of withdrawing from dissatisfying jobs.

3.4.3 Workplace Deviance Job dissatisfaction predicts a lot of specific behaviors, including unionization attempts, substance abuse, stealing at work, undue socialising and tardiness. Researchers argue that these behaviors are indicators of a broader syndrome that can be termed as workplace deviance counterproductive behavior or antisocial behavior. Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined workplace deviance as "voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms, and in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members". They used the multidimensional scaling technique to classify workplace deviances into two types: *organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance* (when the deviance is directed at members of the organization). The first type, organizational deviance refers to deviant behaviors targeting the organization such as theft, sabotage, being late to work or leaving early, withdrawing effort from work or taking extended breaks. The second type, interpersonal deviance refers to deviant acts toward co-workers, supervisors, and subordinates in the workplace. They may include such behaviors as making fun of others, acting rudely, arguing, or engaging in physical aggression. Both are destructive and lead to unfavorable outcomes.

3.4.4 Safety Performance Accidents and injuries at work are a serious matter – both for employees who are hurt and their organizations. Attempts have therefore been made to examine the potential causes of accidents and to reduce workplace injuries. A critical notion that has emerged from research is that employee attitudes and their job-related stress are significantly related to the occurrence of accidents, health and job safety. These studies have found that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of lower accident rates and that employee job satisfaction is

as important as eliminating physical hazards in the workplace to promote job safety. It has been demonstrated that in organizations using the so-called high-performance work systems, not only are employees satisfied, but they also perform their jobs very safely (Barling, Kelloway, & Iverson, 2003).

3.4.5 Customer Satisfaction Management of service organizations is especially concerned with pleasing customers. Customer satisfaction thus represents an important goal of such organizations that can probably be achieved with a happy workforce. Research evidence indeed suggests that job satisfaction has a positive effect on customer satisfaction. There are two main reasons for this relationship. First, satisfied employees are more likely to be friendly, upbeat and responsive. This naturally evokes positive emotions and appreciation from customers. Second, satisfied employees are less likely to quit their jobs, so they have better knowledge and skills to serve clients. Lower turnover also gives customers the same employees to serve them, so there is more consistent service. There is also some evidence that customers build their loyalty to specific employees, not to the organization, so keeping turnover low tends to build customer loyalty (Chesbrough & Teece, 1998).

3.4.6 Life Satisfaction The interplay between job and life satisfaction is an emerging area of study. Researchers have speculated that there are three possible forms of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction: (1) spillover, where job experiences spill over into non-work life and vice versa; (2) segmentation, where job and life experiences are separated and have little to do with one another; and (3) compensation, where an individual seeks to compensate for a dissatisfying job by seeking fulfillment and happiness in his or her non-work life and vice versa.

Self Assessment Questions (SAQ I)

State whether the following are 'True'or 'False':

1. The nature of supervision provided can also have a significant impact on job satisfaction.

2. Job satisfaction can be reflected in terms of attitude of employees.

3. Job dissatisfaction is a significant predictor of lower accident rates.

4. Job satisfaction predicts a lot of specific behaviors, including unionization attempts, substance abuse, stealing at work, undue socialising and tardiness.

3.5 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment is of considerable interest to organizational psychologists because of two primary reasons: 1) It is a broad attitudinal construct. It is theory-based, holds significant integrative potential, and is more manageable than other forms of organizational attitudes. 2) It is significantly related to favourableorganizational outcomes. At the individual level of analysis, commitment predicts important employeebehaviors such as staff turnover, absenteeism, organizational citizenship or extra-role behaviors, and performance (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977). Furthermore, when aggregated to the organizational subunit level, high levels of commitment are associated with elevated levels of customer satisfaction and sales achievement (e.g., Gelade& Young, 2005).

3.5.1 Concept of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as an individual's feelings about the organization as a whole. It is the psychological bond that an employee has with an organization and has been found to be related to goal and value congruence, behavioral investments in the organization, and allegiance to the organization.

Over the years, two basic approaches have been used to study organizational commitment: *attitudinal (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) and behavioral (Becker, 1960).* In the attitudinal approach, organizational commitment is viewed as a positive individual

orientation toward the organization. It is defined as "an affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974). According to Porter et al. (1974) organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

According to Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), organizational commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals.

These authors describe three components of commitment: 1) A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values. 2) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. 3) A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. The commitment-related behavior approach focuses on a behavioral pattern guided by internalized normative pressures to act in ways that meet organizational goals and interest (Wiener, 1982).

Wiener and Gechman (1977) argued that the pattern of behavior resulting from commitment should possess the following characteristics: (1) it should reflect personal sacrifices made for the sake of the organization; (2) it should show persistence – that is, the behaviors should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcements or punishment, and (3) it should indicate a personal preoccupation with the organization, such as devoting a great deal of personal time to organizationrelated actions and thoughts. Thus, according to the behaviorists, organizational commitment is demonstrated by "overt manifestations of commitment" (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) to the organization such as extra-role behaviors that link employees to their respective institution.

In essence, organizational commitment can be viewed as follows:

1) Willingness of an individual to identify with and the desire not to leave an organization for selfish interest or marginal gains;

2) Desire to contribute to the effectiveness of an organization;

3) Willingness to make personal sacrifice, to perform beyond normal expectations and to endure difficult times with an organization;

4) Belief in and acceptance of organization's values and goals.

3.5.2 Components of Organizational Commitment

The model of organizational commitment proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991) is the most popular and comprehensively validated multidimensional model. Three components are contained in Meyer and Allen's (1991) organizational commitment model: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment is a feeling of emotional attachment demonstrated in the statement, "I work here because the people are great and the work is fun." Continuance commitment is a feeling that the costs of leaving are too high or it is too much trouble to go somewhere else. For example, "I'd leave if I knew I could get another job that paid as much." Normative commitment is a feeling of obligation. For example, "I work here because they hired me when I needed a job so I owe it to them." The three components are now described in greater detail.

... Affective commitment

It refers to the employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification and involvement with their organization and its goals. It results from and is induced by an individual and organizational value congruency. As a result, it becomes almost natural for the individual to become emotionally attached to and enjoy continuing membership in the organization (O'Reily& Chatman, 1986, Meyer & Allen, 1984). Steers (1977) identified factors which help create intrinsically rewarding situations for employees to be antecedents of affective commitment. These factors include such job characteristics as task significance, autonomy, identity, skills variety and feedback concerning employee job performance, perceived organizational support or dependence (the feeling that the organization considers what is in the best interest of employees when making decisions that affect employment conditions and work environment), and the degree that employees are involved in the goalsetting and decision-making processes.

... Continuance commitment

It refers to employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organization. It is the willingness to remain in an organization because of personal nontransferable investments in the form of close working relationships with coworkers, retirement investments and career

investments, acquired job skills which are unique to a particular organization, years of employment in a particular organization, involvement in the community in which the employer is located, and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave and seek employment elsewhere. Meyer and Allen (1974) explain that if employees share continuance commitment with the employer, it makes it very difficult for them to leave the organization.

... Normative commitment

It refers to the employees' perceptions of their obligation to their organization. Such a feeling of obligation often results from what Wiener (1982) characterised as "generalised value of loyalty and duty." This is an almost natural predisposition to be loyal and committed to institutions such as family, marriage, country, religion and employment organization as a result of socialisation in a culture that places a premium on loyalty and devotion to institutions. This view of commitment holds that an individual demonstrates commitment behavior solely because she or he believes it is the moral and right thing to do. This feeling of moral obligation is measured by the extent to which a person feels that he or she should be loyal to his or her organization, make personal sacrifice to help it out and not criticize it.

3.5.3 Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

By now you might be confused between the concept of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. So, let us discuss about the differences between commitment and job satisfaction in this section:

1) Job satisfaction is a response to a specific job or facet of the job while commitment is more of a global response to an organization. Job satisfaction can thus be viewed as a micro work attitude while organizational commitment is more macro in its orientation of the individual to the organization.

2) Job satisfaction implies an effective response to one's job as opposed to organizational commitment that refers to the strength of employee identification to the entire organization. Therefore, organizational commitment tends to be more consistent than job satisfaction over time. Although day-to-day events in the workplace may affect an employee's level of job

satisfaction, such transitory events do not significantly alter his or her attachment to the overall organization (Mowday et al., 1982).

3) Job satisfaction reflects immediate affective reactions to the job and job facets (Locke, 1976). Thus, it forms soon after organizational entry. On the other hand, due to its macro orientation, organizational commitment is thought to develop more slowly, and after the individual possesses a firm understanding of not only the job and job facets but also of organizational goals and values, performance expectations and their consequences, and the implications of maintaining membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Consequently, commitment is seen as forming and stabilizing sometime after organizational entry.

4) Job satisfaction and organizational commitment differ in the ways they contribute to work behaviors, especially turnover. Job satisfaction tends to be correlated with turnover intention, whereas organizational commitment shows stronger correlation with actual turnover.

3.6 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (OCB)

It refers to the tendency of showing voluntarily commitment by an employee to perform extra job that is not part of his or her contractual tasks and does not get any extra reward for the task. Organizational citizenship behavior has been studied since the late 1970s. Over the past three decades, interest in these behaviors has increased substantially.Dennis Organ is considered as the father of OCB who expanded upon Katz's (1964) original work.

Organ (1988) defined OCB as the "individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (1988: 4.)

3.6.1 Types of OCB

Following are few of the types of OCB that have been categorized on basis of research and studies. Let us discuss them accordingly:

3.6.1.1 Courtesy

An employee may show the tendency of OCB by being extra polite with their colleagues, e.g. will not speak loudly to avoid disturbance to other; will counsel their colleague having any grievance.

3.6.1.2 Altruism

Certain employees show the tendency of altruistic behavior by helping others without expecting anything in return. For example, they may stay beyond the working hours to help their colleague in completing his/her target.

3.6.1.3 Sportsmanship

This principle means an employee decides to stay in good spirits even if situations do not favour them. For example, an employee refrains from complaining or gossiping about the rejection of a decision by the boss.

3.6.1.4 Conscientiousness

An employee who has high level of conscientiousness, he/she feels morally responsible towards a task and tries to complete it more carefully. He or she can go beyond their job description to ensure that the goal or target of the team is achieved.

3.6.1.5 Civic Virtue

Employees owing to have this kind of OCB represent their organizations positively in front of outsiders and speak favorably about their organization to others. Civic virtue leads to a high sense of community and strong interpersonal ties between the co-workers.

You must have understood by now that the employees, who show organizational citizenship behavior, feel more committed and liable towards their organization. They feel their work to be meaningful and purposive. They show high level of performance and have good control over their tasks.

3.7 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above unit that, job satisfaction is an important attitudinal variable both in organizational research and in applied settings. It is understood as an individual's affective reaction to his/her job and can be studied as global or facet satisfaction. Numerous measures of assessing job satisfaction have been developed. There are several predictors of job satisfaction including both personal and work situation characteristics. Organizational commitment is defined as an individual's feelings about the organization as a whole. At the end the concept of OCB was discussed, which refers to the tendency of showing a voluntarily commitment by an employee to perform extra job that is not part of his or her contractual tasks and does not get any extra reward for the task.

3.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Describe the nature, characteristics and antecedents of job satisfaction.

2) Discuss components of job satisfaction.

4) What are the components of organizational commitment?

6) Explain the concept and types of Organizational citizenship behavior.

3.9 GLOSSARY

Job satisfaction : Individual's affective reaction to a particular job that results from a comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, anticipated or deserved.

Global satisfaction : An overall affective reaction based on all characteristics of the job and the work environment.

Facet satisfaction : Affective response to specific aspects of the job.

Organizational commitment : The psychological bond that an employee has with an organization that has been found to be related to goal and value congruence, behavioral investments in the organization, and allegiance to the organization.

Affective commitment : Employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification and involvement with their organization and its goals.

Continuance commitment : Employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organization.

Normative commitment : Employees' perceptions of their obligation to their organization.

Organizational citizenship behavior : The tendency of showing voluntarily commitment by an employee to perform extra job that is not part of his or her contractual tasks and does not get any extra reward for the task.

3.10 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ-I

1. True

2. True

3. False

4. False

SAQ- II

1.altruistic

2.job

3.Affective commitment

4.Continuance commitment

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Unit 4 - Work Values

Structure

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Objectives

4.2 Definition and Meaning of Work Values

4.3 Relevance of Work Values for an Effective Organization

4.3.1 Team work spirit

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4.3.3 Work Ethic

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4.4 Cultural Differences in Values(Models by Hofstede andTrompenaar)

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the present unit of this block, you will be introduced with the concept and related aspects of work values. Commonly, work values refer to an individual's beliefs related to his/her career or place of work. These values vary from individual to individual. They are that principle which guides an individual about the waysthey work. They help in choosing between right and wrong ways of working, and they also help in making important decisions and career choices. Through this unit, you will come to know about the various influence of culture on work values. These

cultural differences will be explained with help of certain models. At the end of the unit, you will be explained about the salient features of Indian social values.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

• Explain the meaning and definition of work values;

• Describe the different types of work values;

    ...   Discuss the models of work values and,

• Identify the salient features of Indian social values.

4.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING OF WORK VALUES

Let us discuss about few of the definitions of work values now:

According to Rokeach (1973), "a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence".

Rokeach categorized the beliefs about preferable modes of conduct as 'instrumental values' and the beliefs about preferable end-states as 'terminal values'. In a value system, individuals rank-order their instrumental and terminal values along a continuum of importance. Work values are more specific than general life values as they apply to a specific life domain.

According to Elizur (1984): A work value can be defined "as the importance individuals give to a certain outcome obtained at work context".

Zedeck (1997) defined work values "as goals that people strive to attain through working".

Tevrüz, Turgut, 2004 opined work value as "the desired goals scaled according to importance which guide a person's life".

Nord et al (1990) has defined work values as, "end states that guide individuals work related preferences that can be attained through the act of working".

Nord, et al. (1990) classified work values as intrinsic or extrinsic work values. *Intrinsic work values* refer to the end-states that occur through work or in the course of people engaging in work activities such as a sense of accomplishment and are dependent on the content of work.They refer to the actual tasks and the efforts involved in completing that task or job. They include helping others, doing challenging work, and being an exemplary leader.

Extrinsic work values refer to the end states that occur as a consequence of work, regardless or independent of the state of the content of work per se such as family security (George, Jones, 1997). In other words, the extrinsic work value refers to what an employeegets out of his/her work, rather than what effort he/she puts into it. Examples of extrinsic values include high earnings, recognition, and job security.

Ginzberg, et al (1951) has suggested a third dimension and named it as the*social/environmental values* referring to relations with co-workers and the work environment itself.

Ros et al (1999) referred work values as the "beliefs pertaining to desirable end states (e.g. high pay) or behavior (e.g. working with people)" and there exists a relationship between these basic values and work values.

According to Ros et al (1999), different work goals are ordered by their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives. Because work values refer only to goals in the work setting, they are more specific than basic individual values.

It is clear from the above definition that work values refer to the subset of beliefs and ideas that are related to one's occupation. Itacts arecore principles and reflects uponan individual's identity. These principles might reflect an employees' level of honesty, service, self-respect, respect for others, peace, and success.

4.3RELEVANCE OF WORK VALUESFOR AN EFFECTIVEORGANIZATION

Certain values are required to be possessed by the employees, for the organizations to run effectively.The human resources are the most valuable resource for any organizationand their work values can successfully contribute towards the efficiency of the organization.Few of the work values of the employees that significantly impact on the efficiency of the organization are as follows:

4.3.1 Team work spirit

An employee who values team spirit, he/she visualize their own work in the context of the organizations' overall mission and promotes cooperation among employees towards the achievement of the goals of the organization.

4.3.2 Resilience

The resilient employees have a tendency to overcome the adverse and stressful situations. They face the difficult situations and bounce back from such situations. Such employees contribute towards the organizational change and development situations in a more motivated and committed manner.

4.3.3 Work Ethic

Those employees who possess high level of work ethics; they willfully work hard and can manage time management more efficiently.Such employees do not readily leave the organizations and they contribute towards reducing the employee turnover in organizations.

4.3.4 Positive Attitude

The employees who have a positive attitude, not only works in a dedicated manner, he/she motivates others also to work efficiently. Such employees help towards getting a job done in a reasonable period of time and thus help towards fulfilling the target of the organization.

4.3. 5 Responsible

The employees who complete their job on timeand are responsible for their actions and behavior, are like assets for any organization. A responsible employee values his/her job and are reliable for the organizations.

4.3.6 Adaptable

The employees who are adaptable and maintain flexibility in completing tasks in an ever-changing workplace can help the organization to meet the targets in adverse situations as well.The tendency of openness to change provides an opportunity to complete work assignments more efficiently both at individual as well as organizational level. New strategies, ideas, priorities, and work habits make such employees to have a better workplace.

4.3.7 Motivation

The motivated employees do not need much supervision and direction to get the work done in a timely and professional manner. They are ready to learn and grow. Organizations can manage with the changes and uncertainty with the help of such self motivated employees.

4.3.8 Honesty and Integrity

Organizations understand the worth of those employees who maintain a sense of honesty and integrity. The employers can trust such employees as they show moral and ethical behavior while working.

4.3.9 Professionalism

Few of the employees exhibit professional behavior at all times. Professional behavior includes learning every aspect of a job and performing it to the best of one's ability. They contribute towards maintaining the image of their organizations.They have a tendency to complete their task within the timeframe and provide a positive role model for others. They are enthusiastic about their work and optimistic about theirorganization.

4.3.10 Loyalty

Employers trust those employees who are loyal to the organizations. Researches show that the organizations who provide an environment of employee growth and opportunity, they have more loyal and committed employees.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ I)

Fill in the following Blanks:

1. _____ behavior includes learning every aspect of a job and performing it to the best of one's ability.

2. The employees who are _____ can help the organization to meet the targets in adverse situations as well.

3. The resilient employees have a tendency to overcome the _____ situations.

4. _____ work values refer to the end states that occur as a consequence of work, regardless or independent of the state of the content of work

4.4 CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN VALUES (MODELS BY HOFSTEDE, TROMPENAAR)

It is interesting to know that there are differences in values of people on the basis of different cultures to which they belong. Let us try to understand these differences with the help of cultural frame work models given by Hofstede and Trompenaar.

4.4.1 Hofstede's Cultural Model / Framework

According to Geert Hofstede (2001), culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the member of one group or category of people from another." It helps people to understand who they are, which are their acceptable and unacceptablebehaviors in any society. It affects almost everything we do, see, feel, and believe.

Hofstede has given a model to explain the importance of values in different cultures. According to the model, culture can refer to a number of entities. The major entities can be referred to at level of a nation (country) and the other one can be explained at the level of organizations. At the level of the nation that is the national culture, the nation resembles a group of people and

thenational culture refers to the mental set of humans by which the people of one nation distinguish themselves from the people of another nation.Whereas, the organizations are referred to as groups in context of theorganizational culture. The organizational cultureis more straightforward and precise to measure than the national culture because the organizations usually have clear objectives and requirements and the structure, tasks as well as the activities of organizations are designed to meet those objectives and requirements. Further, there exist differences in terms of practices, tools and equipment between the organizations belonging to the same culture and that is why unlike the organizations keeps on changing by changing those practices, unlike the national culture.

Due to globalization, now the employees of various organizations are joining companies of other countries and also the employees of domestic companies will likely encounter someone from another country. Also, with an advent of immigration, mergers and acquisitions, the organizations are tending to have more diverse workforce coming from different organizational culture. Therefore, the employees of any organization should have a knowledge as well as awareness of different organizational cultures. The work culture of countries are different, and if an employee is unable to adapt to the work culture of the organization of a foreign country, it creates a stress not only within the organization, it might lead to misunderstanding and stress between nations as well.

4.4.1.1 Dimensions of Hofstede's Cultural Model / Framework

Hofstede developed the cultural model primarily on the basis of differences in values and beliefs regarding work goals. The framework informs about differences between countries as well as organizations and how such differences can be managed. The model is very relevant and has implications for managerial activities, like change management, conflict management, leadership, negotiation, and work-related attitudes. Hofstede identified certain cultural dimensions with reference to the differences that might occur among employees belonging to different countries but working in same organization. Let us discuss about these dimensions one by one:

... Cultural Dimension 1: Power Distance

The cultural dimension of power distance refers to the degree to which members of a society accept differences in terms of power and authority. The society who has high power distance, believe in unequal powers among their members. According to the model, those who belong to high power distance societies, they are more likely to believe that there are some powerful people who are in charge and that those people are entitled to special benefits. While people belonging to low power distance societies tend to consider that all members are equal.

Table 4.1 Implications of Power Distance in Organizations

Levels	High Power Distance Culture Organizations	Low Power Distance Culture Organizations
Structural Level	They have a centralized and top-bottom kind of hierarchy system.	They have a flat and decentralised kind of hierarchy system.
Managerial Level	Authoritarian managing style is followed. The decision making is in the hand of top managers and the subordinates are to follow their orders or commands. High concentration of authority is at the top level.	More democratic managing style is followed. The decision making is taken collaboratively and consultatively. Subordinates are consulted while taking decisions. Authority is distributed among them.
Subordinate Level	Information sharing is based upon hierarchy. The subordinates have to follow their autocratic boss.	No such restrictions to sharing of information. The subordinates work along with their democratic boss.

The above table therefore reflects that the organizations belonging to two different kinds of power distance societies need to be aware of the belief system, know-how and manager-subordinate relationships of each other, while recruiting employees from different societies or countries.

... Cultural Dimension 2: Individualism and Collectivism

The second cultural dimension refers to individualism/collectivism. Individualism refers to the degree to which a society focuses on the relationship of the individual to the group. While, collectivism refers to the degree to which a society focuses on the relationship of the group as a whole.

Societies which are high on individualism (that is, low collectivism), they tend to value individualsin terms of their achievements and are rewarded as well as recognized for such achievements. While, the people living in societies having lower individualism (high collectivism) are considered to be a part of a wider group, known as the in-group. This in-group can be the family, team, or social class. The level of success of individuals is considered on basis of their relationship with the wider group. In other words, people's success is gauged by how others in their groups view and support them.

Table 4.2 Implications of Individualism/Collectivism in Organizations

Levels	High Individualism/Low Collectivism	LowIndividualism/High Collectivism
Managerial Level	Managers are more achievement oriented. They are busy in meeting their targets. The reward provided to the managers as well as subordinates are based on their work effort or equity.	Managers take decisions as per the interests of the in-group members (members of the team/ organization).The reward provided to the managers as well as subordinates are based on

		equality (same reward is given to all the team members) and not on equity.
Decision making Level	The decision is taken by the concerned individuals; they act as per their interest. Task and activities are more important.	The decision is taken at group or team level. The employees act as per the interest of the group. Personal Relationships are more important.

... Cultural Dimension 3: Uncertainty Avoidance

The third cultural dimension is uncertainty avoidance. It refers to the degree to which people in a society are comfortable with risk, uncertainty, and unpredictable situations. The people who belong to high uncertainty avoidance societies tend avoid uncertainty and unpredictability. Theorganizationalenvironments in such countries provide more stable and certain work culture through clear rules and instructions. While the societies with low uncertainty avoidance are always ready to take risk, challenges,uncertainty and unpredictability. In these countries, risky and ambiguous situations are less likely to upset people.

Therefore, the managers belonging to high uncertainty avoidance work culture provide an organized and specific structure to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity among subordinates. The organizational rules, procedures and expectation from its employees are well specified. This helps in reducing role ambiguity and confusion among the employees.

While organizationshaving low uncertainty avoidance environment give more flexibility and choice to its employees, as they are always comfortable with uncertain work environment and role ambiguity. The rules and regulations in such organizations are few.

Table 4.3 Implications of Uncertainty Avoidance in Organizations

Levels	Low Uncertainty Avoidance	High Uncertainty Avoidance
Managerial Level	Managers are confident about their subordinates' ambition and leadership abilities.	Managers doubt at their subordinates' ambition and leadership abilities.
Level of Innovation	Innovation is preferred in such organizations.	Innovation is resisted in such organizations.
Leadership	Transformational leaders are preferred in such organizations.	Autocratic leaders are preferred in such organizations.

... Cultural Dimension 4: Masculinity

The fourth cultural dimension is called as masculinity. It refers to the degree to which a society emphasizes upon the traditional masculine qualities such as, advancement and earnings. The societies which have high masculinity, they give utmost importance to work, the gender roles are very clear and specific, and work takes priority over other aspects of a person's life, such as family and leisure. They emphasize more on the earnings and achievements, and employees tend to work very long hours and take very little vacation time. While, the societies which are low in masculinity have people who work to manage their life, they prefer least hours to spend on work. Therefore, high masculinity societies have work-oriented employees and are motivated through

pay and security. While employees of low masculinity societies get motivated by interesting work and more leisure.

Table 4.4 Implications of Masculinity in Organizations

Levels	High Masculinity	Low Masculinity
Work Level	The employees work with an aim to get higher pay, security and work hours.	The employees work with an aim to get lower number of work hours and better living conditions.
Manager Level	Have fewer women at management level. Managers need to be competitive, ambitious and decisive.	Have more women at management level. Managers are fairly ambitious and satisfied.
Conflict Level	Conflict is resolved through arguments.	Conflict is solved in such organizations on the basis of compromises and negotiations.

4.4.2 Trompenaar's Cultural Model / Framework

The 7 Dimensions of Culture –

Trompenaar (1993) has given 7 dimensions of culture which can help people more effectively, who belong to different cultures. As mentioned earlier that due to globalization, organizations are getting more diverse work force that may also belong to different countries.

4.4.2.1 Cultural Dimensions of Trompenaar's model:

Trompenaar categorized seven dimensions to differentiate cultures. These dimensions can be seen in societies as well as organizations. These are as follows:

... Universalism vs. Particularism

The cultures which are based on universalism, they try to give equal treatment to all individuals. The employees have a culture of universalism tend to focus more on their rules and policies, in comparison to relationships.

While, the culture that prefer particularism, the people theregive more importance to relationships than rules. In such organizations, each employee is dealt as a separate individual.

... Individualism vs. Communitarianism

The societies having individualistic cultures, believe that the outcomes that people get in their life is a result of their own choices. Organizations belonging to such cultures, allow the employees to make their own decisions without consulting with others. Thus, the decision making in such organizations take place at a faster pace. Here the individuals are rewarded on the basis of their performance.

While, those societies whose culture is based on communitarianism, believe the quality of life of individuals gets better, if we help each other. Thus, organizations having communitarianism cultural dimension have employees who prefer to be a part of a team or a group. There is a strong sense of loyalty within the group. As the decision is taken on basis of the consensus of the group, it takes time. Due to higher group loyalty, employee turnover is low in such organizations.Here the groups are rewarded on the basis of their performance.

... Neutral vs. Affective

The employees belonging to a neutral culture do not share their emotions. Though, the emotions are felt by them,yet they keep a check and control on emotions. The employees of such organizations are considered to be logical and rational.

While, the societies as well as the organizations who have the affective cultural dimension, their people tend to share their emotions, even in the workplace. In an affective culture, it considered normal that people share their emotions.

… Specific vs. Diffuse

The organizations and the societies which possess the specific cultural dimension, have employees or people who tend to keep their personal life separate from their work life. They maintain a balance between their work and life and are more focused towards goal. They emphasize more on goals than relationships.

While the organization or any society which has a diffusive cultural dimension, their employees or people treat their personal and work life as interconnected. They emphasize more on relationships and believe that, better goals can be achieved if they have better relationships.Socialization among the employees are high in such organizations as well as societies. These cultures are courteous and respect age, status, and background more.

… Achievement vs. Ascription

The organizations which have a cultural dimension of achievement, their employees earn status through knowledge or skill. Job titles are earned by the employees, which reflect their knowledge and skill. Any employee can challenge a decision if they have a logical argument.

While, the organizations which have an ascription cultural dimension, their employees get a status on basis of who they are. Such status can be based upon their position, education, or age. Employees are respected on basis of their commitment to the organization and not on the basis of their abilities. Any decision can only be challenged by someone who belongs to a higher authority.

… Sequential time vs. Synchronous time

The employees belonging to a sequential time culturegive utmost importance to time. Employees work on projects in different phases and try to complete each stage on time. It is rude to be late for meetings in these cultures.

While, in a synchronous time culture, the employees believe that past, present and future are interconnected. Because of this,employees perform multi tasks at a single time because time is interchangeable. Therefore, the plans and deadlines are flexible and lesser importance is given to punctuality in such organizations.

... **Internal direction vs. External direction**

Organizations or the societies which possess an internal direction culture, consists of employees or people who have a belief that they can control their environment in order to achieve their goals. Their focus is more towards self (one's self, one's team, and one's organization). Winning is important in these cultures and aggressive personalities are thus prevalent.

While, the organizations or the societies which belong to the external direction culture, have employees who believe that they must work with their environment to achieve their goals. The employees give much more importance to relationships than goals. They focus on environmental factors like, relationships in order to achieve their goals.

4.5SALIENT INDIAN SOCIAL VALUES AND CULTURE

While, we have discussed about the various cultural values possessed by the people belonging to different societies, it is also important for us to understand the feature of social values of our country, India. Employees who need to work in Indian companies, they need to know about our social values along with our cultural values. Let us first discuss about the salient features of Indian society and its social values followed by its cultural values.

4.5.1SALIENT FEATURE OF INDIAN SOCIAL VALUES

- ... India is referred to as multi-ethnic society because the people living here identify themselves with others on the basis of a common language or dialect, history, society, culture or nation.

... India is a multi-lingual society where people speak different regional languages in order to interact with each other.

... India has a patriarchal society. Patriarchy refers to a social system in which men hold primary power and enjoy greater status than women. In a family, men are considered to be the decision makers and authority.

... India has a stratified society. Based on the income, education and skills, the people have be categorized in to different strata (e.g. high income group, middle income group and low income group).

... The family is considered to be the basic unit of social organization.

... In an Indian society, the blood relations and kinship ties enjoy a stronghold over other social relationships.

... The society considers marriage to be an important social institution which socially approved and is considered to be legal and governed by laws.

... The people of the society are more collectivistic in approaches and decision making.

4.5.2 SALIENT FEATURE OF INDIAN CULTURAL VALUES

... The organizational culture as well as the society believes in 'Unity in Diversity'. People belonging to different religion, gender, culture and other demographic factors, tend to work together.

... The society gives lesser importance to materialistic values. People belonging to this society tend to help others and other social welfare activities.

... The Indian culture possesses a spiritual value to realize the oneness of Brahman-atman, which is the only way for final salvation.

... The society believes to take obligations and responsibilities of their organizational as well as family members.

…   The existing culture is dynamic and is changing as well as adapting with time.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ II)

State whether the following statements are 'True' or 'False':

1. The employees belonging to a synchronous time culture give utmost importance to time.

2. The societies having individualistic cultures, believe that the outcomes that people get in their life is a result of their own choices.

3. Masculinity refers to the degree to which a society emphasizes upon the traditional masculine qualities such as, advancement and earnings.

4. The cultural dimension of collectivism refers to the degree to which members of a society accept differences in terms of power and authority.

4.6 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above unit that, work values refer to the subset of beliefs and ideas that are related to one's occupation. Itacts arecore principles and reflects uponan individual's identity and can contribute towards an effective organization. Certain cultural dimensions were also discussed with reference to the cultural models proposed by Hofstede and Trompenaar. At the end of the unit the salient features of Indian social values and cultural values were also discussed.

4.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Define work values and describe it relevance for an effective organization.

2. Discuss the cultural dimension of the Hofstede's model.

3. Explain the Cultural framework proposed by Trompenaar.

4. Describe the salient features of Indian social and cultural values.

4.8 GLOSSARY

Work Values

The subset of beliefs and ideas that are related to one's occupation.

Immigration

Movement of people from their home country to other countries; will continue to grow worldwide.

Hofstede model of national culture

Project involving survey of over 88,000 employees in IBM subsidiaries from 72 countries.

Expatriate

Foreign employee who moves and works in another country for an extended period of time.

Power distance

Refers to the degree to which societies accept power differences and authority in society.

Individualism

Degree to which a society focuses on the relationship of the individual to the group.

Uncertainty avoidance

The degree to which people in a society are comfortable with uncertainty and unpredictable situations.

Masculinity

Degree to which a society emphasizes traditional masculine qualities, such as advancement and earnings.

4.9 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ I

1. Professional

2. Adaptable

3.Adverse and stressful

4.Extrinsic

SAQ II

1. False

2. True

3. True

4. False

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UNIT 5 WORK MOTIVATION

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5.0 INTRODUCTION

Motivation has long been the topic of interest for both managers and organizational researchers. There are two primary reasons for this continued interest. First, motivation is an integral part of the performance equation at all levels. It is therefore an important topic to be understood for pragmatic reasons. Second, motivation is seen as the fundamental building block in the development of useful theories of effective management practice. It is indeed an important topic in many subfields in the study of management including leadership, managerial ethics, decision making and organizational change. It is not surprising, therefore, that this topic has received a lot of attention and generated many approaches toward understanding it. This unit is devoted to the understanding of the nature of work motivation. Various theories of motivation and its Indian perspective are also highlighted in this unit.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

• Explain the meaning of work and work motivation;

• Explain the main types of motives at work;

• Analyze the different motivational theories and their implications in organizations; and

    ... Identify the Indian perspectives towards motivation.

5.2 MEANING OF WORK

Work has been defined variously by authors and researchers from several streams. A broad definition that encompasses conceptualisations of work across social and behavioral sciences has been offered by Budd &Bhave (2010). He defined work as a purposeful human activity involving physical or mental exertion that is not undertaken solely for pleasure and that has economic value. The first part of this definition ("purposeful human activity") distinguishes work from the broader realm of all human effort. The second part ("not undertaken solely for pleasure") separates work from leisure, while allowing for work to be pleasurable and thereby recognising that there can sometimes be a nebulous boundary between work and leisure. The final part ("that has economic value") allows work to be more encompassing than paid employment by also including unpaid caring for others, self-employment, subsistence farming, casual work in the informal sector, and other activities outside the standard boundaries of paid jobs and career aspirations.

Work and its related motivational variables have also been defined from the point of view of the worker. Roe (1956) described work as the main focus of an individual's activities and thoughts. Lofquist and Dawis (1969) defined work as a focal point for the development of one's way of life, and a vehicle for one's total adjustment throughout life.

These two definitions emphasise the impact of work on individual lives. *Work as a human activity serves several important functions for an individual:*

• **Economic function –** Work provides goods and services, either directly through self-production or indirectly through earned income. Mainstream economic thought highlights this function by conceptualising work as an abstract quantity of productive effort that has tradable economic value. It is seen as something that individuals do in order to earn income and maximise their individual or household utility.

• **Social relation function** – Work consists of human interactions that are experienced in and shaped by social networks, norms and power relations. It thus serves a social relation function by allowing individuals to seek approval, status, sociability, and power.

• **Personal fulfillment function** – The nature of one's work – such as the job tasks, rewards, relations with co-workers, and supervision – can affect one's cognitive and affective states. Ideally, work is a source of personal fulfillment and psychological well-being because it can satisfy human needs for achievement, mastery, self-esteem, and self-worth (Turner, Barling, &Zacharatos, 2002). But lousy work – work with mindless repetition, abusive co-workers or bosses, excessive physical or mental demands, or other factors – can have negative psychological consequences.

• **Identity function** – Since work is such a major part of many people's lives, it can be conceptualised as a source of identity, that is, understanding and meaning (Leidner, 2006). This can occur on several levels. The personal identity dimension focuses on stable and consistent attributes and traits that an individual sees as making him or herself unique (Turner &Onorato,

1999). This can contain biographical information, including descriptors related to one's work. The social identity approach focuses on how individuals further construct their identities by categorizing themselves into various groups (Hogg, 2006). This might include one's occupation, employer, and other work-related group constructs.

5.3 NATURE OF WORK MOTIVATION

The study of motivation is concerned with why people behave in a certain way. The basic underlying question is 'why do people do what they do?' An important problem in the study of motivation is accounting for purposiveness of behavior. The term 'motivation' derives from the Latin word movere which means 'to move'. Taken literally, motivation is the process of arousing movement but the term ordinarily applies to the arousal of one kind of movement – behavior. However, the study of motivation is not restricted to the process of evoking behavior, but it also includes an analysis of the conditions which sustain activity and which regulate its patterning. It is also concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems.

5.3.1 Defining Work Motivation

In an attempt to understand the concept of motivation and highlight its complexity, several definitions have been offered. Atkinson (1964) defines motivation as "the contemporary (immediate) influence on direction, vigor, and persistence of action", while Vroom (1964) defines it as "a process governing choice made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity". Campbell and Pritchard (1976) suggest that "motivation has to do with a set of independent/ dependent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behavior, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment". Kanfer (1990) describes motivation as "a set of psychological processes involved with the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed". All definitions appear to have four common denominators which may be said to characterize the phenomenon of motivation.

That is, when we discuss motivation, we are primarily concerned with:

1) Activation of behavior – It has to do with the drive or energy behind our actions and is demonstrated by the arousal of goal-directed behavior.

2) Direction of behavior – It is concerned with the paths people choose toward meeting their goals and is seen by the regulation of behavior toward specific goals.

3) Persistence of behavior – It has to do with continued efforts in the achievement of goals often in the face of obstacles and is demonstrated by sustained activity over a period of time.

4) Intensity of behavior – It is concerned with the extent of effort put in to achieve a goal and is seen in the concentration and vigor that goes into pursuing the goal.

A definition of work motivation that covers these denominators is presented by Katzell and Thompson (1990) who defines it as a "broad construct pertaining to the conditions and processes that account for arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person's job".

Pinder (1998) defined work motivation as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviors, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration". There are two noteworthy features of this definition. First, motivation is identified as an energizing force – it is what induces action in employees. Second, this force has implications for the form, direction, intensity, and duration of behavior. That is, it explains what employees are motivated to accomplish, how they will attempt to accomplish it, how hard they will work to do so, and when they will stop.

More recently, Robbins (2005) defines work motivation as "the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual needs". Three key elements can be seen in this definition: *effort, organizational goals, and needs*. The effort element is a measure of intensity or drive. A motivated person tries hard. But high levels of effort are unlikely to lead to favorable job performance unless the effort is channeled in a direction that benefits the organization. Therefore, one must consider the quality of the effort as well as its intensity. Effort that is directed toward, and is consistent with, organizational goals is the kind of effort that managers and organizations should be seeking. Finally, motivation is a need-satisfying process. A need refers to some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within an individual. These drives lead to a search behavior to find particular goals that, if attained, will satisfy the need and reduce the tension. When the individuals' needs are compatible with the organization's goals, they may exert high levels of effort that are beneficial for the organization.

Work motivation is thus concerned with factors that energize, channel, sustain and amplify work performance toward organizational goals. Gaps between motivation and performance exist whenever people avoid starting something new, resist doing something familiar, stop doing something important and switch their attention to a less valued task, or refuse to "work smart" on a new challenge and instead use old, familiar but inadequate solutions to solve a new problem (Clark, 1998).

5.3.2 Characteristics of Work Motivation

From a review of motivational definitions, several characteristics of work motivation can be identified:

… Motivation is an individual psychological phenomenon that allows for a person's uniqueness to be demonstrated at the workplace.

… It is assumed to be under the person's control. Behaviors that are influenced by motivation, such as effort expended, are seen as purposive rather than random.

… The direction of a person's behavior toward organizational goals is determined by work motivation.

… It describes concerted effort often in the face of obstacles until the goal is accomplished.

… It leads individuals to invest greater cognitive effort to enhance both the quality and quantity of work performance.

… It is distinct from performance; other factors besides motivation (e.g., ability and task difficulty) influence performance.

… It is multifaceted. People may have several different motives operating at once. Sometimes, these motives may conflict with one another.

… Motivation is directly related to performance of an individual.

5.3.3 Process of Motivation

Motivation as a process starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Thus, motivation consists of three interacting and interdependent elements:

… **Needs** – Needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. For example, a need exists when cells in the body are deprived of food and water or when a person is deprived of friends and other companions. Although psychological needs may be based on a deficiency, sometimes they are not. For example, an individual with a strong need to get ahead may have a history of consistent success.

… **Drives** – Drives are set up to alleviate needs. They are action-oriented and provide an energising thrust toward achieving a certain goal or accomplishing a certain task. Needs for food and water are translated into the hunger and thirst drives, and the need for friends becomes a drive for affiliation.

… **Incentives** – Incentive is anything that can mitigate a need and decrease the intensity of the drive. Thus attaining an incentive tends to restore physiological or psychological balance and reduces the drive. Eating food, drinking water and obtaining friends will tend to restore the balance and reduce the corresponding drives. Food, water and friends are the incentives in these examples.

5.4 CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVES AT WORK

The various needs and motives can be categorized in a number of ways – for example, the division into primary and secondary motives; or into extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

5.4.1 Primary and Secondary Motives

Primary motives are unlearned, physiological needs that include hunger, thirst, sleep, sex, avoidance of pain and maintenance of body temperature. These needs arise from the basic requirements of life and are important for survival of the human race. They are, therefore, virtually universal, but they vary in intensity from one person to another. For example, a child may need more sleep than an older person. These needs may also be conditioned by social practice. If it is customary to eat three meals a day, then a person tends to become hungry at three times of the day, even though two meals might just be adequate. Similarly, if a coffee hour is introduced at work, coffee drinking may become a satisfying habit as well as a social need.

Secondary motives are learned, social motives that arise as a result of interaction with other people and develop as people mature. Included in this category are affiliation – desire to associate with others; recognition – need for frequent tangible proof that one is getting ahead; status – need to have a high rank in society, power – need to control and influence others; achievement – drive to accomplish something, autonomy – drive for independence; security and safety – desire to be secure; and defensiveness – desire to defend oneself from blame, criticism, ridicule and censure. Secondary needs are strongly conditioned by experience, vary in type and intensity among people, and are subject to change across time within any individual. These needs cannot usually be isolated and work in combination to influence behavior. Nearly all action that management takes will affect secondary needs; therefore managerial plans should consider the effect of any proposed action on the secondary needs of employees.

5.4.2 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is related to tangible rewards such as salary and fringe benefits, promotion, contract of service, the work environment and conditions of work. Individuals are extrinsically motivated when they engage in work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself. Extrinsic motivation thus requires an instrumentality between the activity and some separable consequences such as tangible or verbal rewards, so that satisfaction comes not from the activity itself but rather from the extrinsic consequences to which the activity leads.

Intrinsic motivation is related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. Individuals are intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work. Intrinsic motivation thus involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ I)

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

1. Intrinsic motivation is related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of challenge and achievement.

2. Attaining a drive tends to restore physiological or psychological balance and reduces the incentive.

3. Attention is an individual psychological phenomenon that allows for a person's uniqueness to be demonstrated at the workplace.

4. The term 'motivation' derives from the Latin word movere which means 'to move'.

5.5 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

There are many competing theories which attempt to explain the nature of motivation. These theories center on three different aspects of motivation: the individual's predisposition, the cognitive process, and the consequences deriving from the individual's action. Based on these aspects, there are three types of theories of motivation:

• **Content theories** – These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy these needs.

• **Process theories** – These theories are concerned more with how behavior is initiated, directed and sustained and attempt to identify the relationship among the dynamic variables, which make up motivation.

 • **Reinforcement theory (outcome theories)** – This theory seeks to explain what types of consequences motivate different people to work. It focuses on how environment teaches us to alter our behaviors so that we maximize positive consequences and minimize adverse consequences.

5.5.1 CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Content (or need) theories of motivation focus on factors internal to the individual that energize and direct behavior. In general, such theories regard motivation as the product of internal drives that compel an individual to act or move toward the satisfaction of individual needs. Major content theories of motivation are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's motivator- hygiene theory, and McClelland's learned needs or three-needs theory.

5.5.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (1954) proposes that humans are motivated by multiple needs and that these needs exist in a hierarchical order. Maslow identified five general types of motivating needs:

• **Physiological needs:** These are the most basic human physical needs, including food, water, and other conditions necessary for survival. In the organizational setting, these are reflected in the needs for pleasant working conditions and salary.

• **Safety needs:** These are the needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment and freedom from threats and emotional distress. In an organizational workplace, safety needs reflect the needs for safe jobs, fringe benefits and job security.

• **Social needs:** These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one's peers, have friendships, be loved, and be part of a group. In the organization, these needs influence the desire for good relationships with coworkers and supervisors and participation in a work group.

• **Esteem needs:** These needs relate to the desire for a positive self-image and to receive attention, recognition, and appreciation from others. Within an organization, esteem needs reflect a motivation for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status, and credit for contributions to the organization.

• **Self-actualization needs:** These represent the need for self-fulfillment, which is the highest need category. They concern developing one's full potential, increasing one's competence, and becoming a better person.Self-actualization needs can be met in the organization by providing people with opportunities for growth, creativity, advancement and achievement.

Maslow suggested that a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates; it is the lowest level of ungratified need in the hierarchy that motivates behavior; and lower-level needs (physiological and safety needs) must be met before upper- level needs (social, esteem and self-actualization) can be motivational. Thus, individuals must have safe working conditions, adequate pay to take care of one's self and one's family, and job security before they will be motivated by increased job responsibilities, status, and challenging work assignments. Because of the ease of its application, Maslow's theory has received wide recognition, particularly among plasticizing managers.

5.5.1.2 Alderfer's ERG Theory

The ERG theory is an extension of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Alderfer (1972) suggested that needs could be classified into three categories, rather than five. These three types of needs are existence, relatedness, and growth. These needs encompass the needs proposed by Maslow and they can be satisfied within the work environment.

• **Existence needs** are concerned with physical survival and include the needs for food, water, shelter and physical safety. Organizations can satisfy these needs through pay, fringe benefits, a safe working environment and job security.

• **Relatedness needs** involve interactions with other people and the associated satisfaction in terms of emotional support, respect, recognition and belongingness. These needs can be satisfied on the job by developing interpersonal relationships with co-workers and mentors and off the job by having family and friends.

• **Growth needs** are those related to the attainment of one's potential. These needs can be satisfied by using our skills and abilities to the fullest. A job can satisfy growth needs if it involves challenge, autonomy and creativity.

The ERG theory *differs* from the hierarchy of needs in several ways:

1) The ERG model does not assume a rigorous progression from one level to the other. Instead, it accepts the likelihood that all three levels might be active at any time – or even that just one of the higher levels might be active.

2) It suggests that if an individual is continually unable to meet upper-level needs, the person will regress and return to the lower-level needs and then progress again. For example, if employees cannot find emotional support or recognition on the job (relatedness needs), they may demand higher pay or better health coverage (existence needs) as compensation for failing to satisfy the other needs.

3) The model proposes that growth needs are not only unlimited but are actually awakened each time some satisfaction is attained. Thus while Maslow suggested that a satisfied need no longer motivates us, ERG model predicts that a satisfied need may actually increase its strength. For example, if a job provides a great deal of challenge and creativity, our growth needs might become stronger, leading us to seek greater challenges at work.

5.5.1.3 Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory

On the basis of research with engineers and accountants, Frederick Herzberg (1966) developed the motivator-hygiene theory. He asked his subjects to think about the times they felt especially good or bad about their jobs. Tabulating the reported good and bad feelings, Herzberg concluded that there are two sets of needs: the hygiene needs, which produce job dissatisfaction and the motivator needs, which produce job satisfaction. Taken together, the hygiene factors and motivators are known as Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. Hygiene factors (lower needs) are factors which 'surround the job' rather than the job itself; they are related to job context. These involve features of the work environment such as company policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions and salary and benefits. The hygiene factors dissatisfy employees when they are absent.

However, their presence brings employees only to a neutral state and by themselves, they are not strongly motivating. For example, a worker will only turn up to work if a business has provided a reasonable level of pay and safe working conditions but these factors will not make him work

harder at his job once he is there. The motivator needs (higher needs) motivate employees to high job performance and promote satisfaction. These needs are internal to the work itself; they are allied to job content, and include factors such as achievement, responsibility, recognition, growth, advancement and recognition.

The motivator factors operate to build motivation, but their absence is not strongly dissatisfying. These are the characteristics that people find intrinsically rewarding and serve as strongly motivating factors. Thus, the managers can imply these factors to motivate the subordinates accordingly.

5.5.1.4 McClelland's Learned Needs Theory

McClelland's theory (1971) suggests that needs are amplified or suppressed through self-concept, social norms, and past experience. Therefore, needs can be "learned". Three of the primary needs in this theory are as follows:

• **Need for achievement (nAch)** – The desire to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and to purse and attain goals.

• **Need for affiliation (nAff)** – The desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

• **Need for power (nPow)** – The desire to control one's environment and to influence others. People with a strong need for achievement want to accomplish reasonably challenging goals through their own effort. They prefer tasks with a moderate degree of risk and those that provide immediate and precise feedback information on progress toward a goal.

High achievers find accomplishment of a task to be intrinsically satisfying; they do not expect or necessarily desire the accompanying material rewards. Also, when high achievers select a goal, they tend to be totally preoccupied with the task until it is successfully completed. They tend to be realistic about their abilities and tend to persist in their efforts to accomplish goals.

5.5.2 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Process (or cognitive) theories of motivation focus on conscious human decision processes as an explanation of motivation. The process theories are concerned with determining how individual behavior is energized, directed, and maintained in the specifically willed and self-directed human cognitive processes. Process theories of motivation are based on early cognitive theories, which posit that behavior is the result of conscious decision-making processes. The major process theories of motivation are expectancy theory, equity theory, goal-setting theory, and reinforcement theory.

5.5.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) suggested that motivation is a product of three factors: expectancy, one's estimate that effort will lead to successful performance; instrumentality, one's estimate that performance

will result in certain outcomes or rewards; and valence, the extent to which expected outcomes are attractive or unattractive.

This relationship is stated in the following formula:

Expectancy × Instrumentality × Valence = Motivation

- … **Expectancy:** Expectancy is the strength of belief that one's work-related effort will result in a given level of performance. For example, a person selling insurance policies may know from experience that volume of sales is directly related to the number of sales calls made. Expectancies are stated as probabilities and range from 0.0 to 1.0. In some situations, employees may believe that they can unquestionably accomplish the task (p =1.0). In other situations, they expect that even their highest level of effort will not result in the desired performance level (p = 0.0). Normally, employee estimates of expectancy lie somewhere between the two extremes.
- … **Instrumentality:** Instrumentality represents the employee's belief that a specific performance level will lead to specific outcomes or rewards. This belief is stated as a probability ranging from 0.0 to 1.0. Thus, if an employee sees that promotions are usually based on performance data, instrumentality will be rated high. However, if the basis for such decisions is unclear or managerial favoritism is suspected, a low instrumentality estimate will be made.
- … **Valence:** Valence refers to the strength of a person's preference for receiving a reward. It is the anticipated satisfaction or dissatisfaction that an individual feels toward an outcome. It ranges from positive to negative. Outcomes have a positive valence when they are consistent with our values and satisfy our needs; they have a negative valence when they oppose our values and inhibit need fulfillment. Valence for a reward is unique to each employee and is thus a reflection of individual differences. For example, if an individual has a strong need for social interaction, working alone from home will have a strong negative valence. On the other hand, if a person prefers solitary activities and has a high desire to excel, working away from home with opportunities for career advancement may have a strong positive valence.

Expectancy theory claims that motivation is a multiplicative function of all three components. This means that for an individual to be highly motivated, all three components of the expectancy model must be high. It also implies that if any one of these three components is zero, the overall level of motivation will be zero. So, for example, even if an employee believes that her effort will result in performance, which will result in reward, motivation will be zero if the valence of the reward she expects to receive is zero.

Porter and Lawler (1968) published an extension of the Vroom expectancy model, which is known as the Porter-Lawler expectancy model. The basic premise of the model is the same as

Vroom's. But it extends the model by stating that motivation alone does not predict successful performance. It is a function of two other factors:

- … Skills and abilities – Motivation alone cannot ensure successful performance of a task. The employee should also have the abilities and skills required to successfully perform the task.
- … Role perceptions – The employee should have a clear perception of his role in the organization and an accurate knowledge of the job requirements. This will enable him to focus his efforts on accomplishing the assigned tasks. Thus although the basic premise of the model is the same as for Vroom's model, it is more complex.

5.5.2.1.1 Managerial implications of expectancy theory

The expectancy model is a valuable tool for helping managers design a motivational climate that will stimulate appropriate employee behavior. It provides clear guidelines for increasing employee motivation by altering expectancies, instrumentalities and outcome valences. These are discussed below:

- … **Increasing effort-performance expectancies –** Effort-performance expectancies can be increased by training employees to do jobs more effectively, by providing sufficient time and resources, by giving supportive feedback and by following employees' suggestions about ways to change their jobs. Selecting people with required skills and knowledge, matching employees to jobs and communicating tasks required for the job are also an important part of this process.
- … **Increasing performance-outcome instrumentalities** – The most obvious way to improve outcome expectancies is to measure performance accurately and distribute more valued rewards to those with higher job performance. However, in addition to a having a high performance-based reward system, companies need to regularly communicate the system through examples, anecdotes and public ceremonies, and clearly demonstrate the link between valued rewards and performance.
- … **Increasing outcome valences** – Performance outcomes influence work effort only when those outcomes are valued by employees. This implies that companies must develop individualized reward systems so that employees who perform well are offered a choice of rewards. Incentive systems that allow employees to choose from a menu of available alternatives like a pay raise, additional vacation days, improved insurance benefits or daycare facilities may serve to increase the satisfaction with the rewards that they receive. There are also performance outcomes that have negative valences that reduce the effectiveness of existing reward systems. For example, when there is peer pressure to perform at the minimum standard, formal rewards may not serve as motivators. Companies must therefore minimize the presence of such counter-valent outcomes.

Expectancy theory remains one of the better theories for predicting work effort and motivation. It has been applied to a wide variety of studies, such as predicting student motivation to participate in teaching evaluations, using a decision support system, leaving the organization and engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors. However, the theory seems to ignore the role of emotion in employee behavior.

5.5.2.2 Equity Theory

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) suggests that individuals engage in social comparison by comparing their efforts and rewards with those of relevant others. The perception of individuals about the fairness of their rewards relative to others influences their level of motivation. Equity exists when individuals perceive that the ratio of efforts to rewards is the same for them as it is for others to whom they compare themselves. Inequity exists when individuals perceive that the ratio of efforts to rewards is different for them than it is for others to whom they compare themselves.

There are two types of inequity—*under-reward and over-reward*. **Under-reward** occurs when a person believes that she puts in more effort than another, yet receives the same reward, or puts in the same effort as another for a lesser reward. For instance, if an employee works longer hours than her coworker, yet they receive the same salary, the employee would perceive inequity in the form of under-reward. Conversely, with **over-reward,** a person will feel that his efforts to rewards ratio is higher than another person's, such that he is getting more for putting in the same effort, or getting the same reward even with less effort.

The theory suggests that there are four possible referents for comparison:

• **Self-inside**: The employee compares his experiences in the present position with the experiences of those holding a similar position in the same organization.

• **Self-outside**: The employee compares his experiences in the present position with the experiences of those holding a similar position in another organization.

• **Other-inside**: The employee compares his experience in the present position with the experience of another individual or group of individuals holding a different position but belonging to the same organization.

• **Other-outside**: The employee compares his experiences in the present position with that of another individual or group of individuals holding a different position and belonging to a different organization.

Whatever be the source of referent comparison, *individuals are motivated to reduce perceived inequity and may attempt to reduce inequity in various ways:*

• **Change the inputs** – A person may change his or her level of effort; an employee who feels under-rewarded is likely to work less hard.

• **Change the outcomes** – A person may try to change his or her rewards, such as by asking for a raise or making unauthorized use of company resources.

• **Change the comparison with other's inputs** – A person may change the behavior of the reference person, perhaps by encouraging that person to put forth more effort.

• **Change the comparison with other's outcomes** – A person may change the outcome of the reference person perhaps by asking the boss to stop giving favourable treatment to him/her. • Change the comparison other – A person experiencing inequity may change the reference person and compare him or herself to a different person to assess equity.

• **Change one's perception** – A person may believe that the co-worker is doing more or that the higher outcomes that the other receives are no better that his/hers.

• **Leave the field** – A person may avoid thinking about the inequity by keeping away from the office, moving to another department or quitting the job.

While research suggests that under-reward motivates individuals to resolve the inequity, research also indicates that the same is not true for over-reward. Individuals who are over-rewarded often engage in cognitive dissonance, convincing themselves that their efforts and rewards are equal to another's. Evidence also reveals that some employees decrease their motivation and effort, others increase it and still other show no change in response to over-reward inequity.

5.5.2.2.1 Managerial implications of equity theory

Equity theory has important implications for ways of motivating people. The three key one are discussed below:

   … **Avoiding underpayment** – Companies that attempt to save money by reducing employees' salaries may find that employees respond in different ways to settle scores. For example, they may steal, shave a few minutes off their work, or otherwise withhold production. In extreme cases, they may go on strike. Thus making people feel underpaid is an unwise decision and ineffective managerial practice.

   … **Avoiding overpayment** – Overpaying employees to motivate them is also an ineffective strategy mainly for two reasons: (a) Increases in performance in response to overpayment inequity is only temporary. As time goes on, people begin to believe that they actually deserve the higher pay they are getting and drop their level of work down to normal. (b) Overpaying one employee implies that other are being underpaid. When the majority of employees feel underpaid, they will lower their performance resulting in a net decrease in productivity and widespread dissatisfaction.

… **Being open and honest with employees** – Openness and honesty about pay is critical because it helps employees understand the basis of their pay. This, in turn, leads to trust in their company, motivating them to put forth the effort required to excel.

5.5.2.3 Goal-Setting Theory

The goal-setting theory was developed primarily by Locke and Latham (1990). It posits that people will be motivated to the extent to which they accept specific, challenging goals and receive feedback that indicates their progress toward goal achievement.

The basic components of goal-setting theory are:

• **Goal acceptance** – Effective goals need to be accepted by employees. Goals that are not personally accepted will have little capacity to guide behavior. A powerful method of obtaining acceptance is to allow employees to participate in the goal-setting process. Communicating the purpose and necessity of the goal also ensures greater commitment to the goal.

• **Specificity** – Specific goals often involve clear, measurable quantitative targets for improvement in the behavior of interest. Research indicates that specific performance goals are much more effective than those in which a person is told to "do your best."

• **Challenge** – Challenging goals are difficult but not impossible to attain. They cause people to raise the intensity and persistence of their work effort and fulfill a person's achievement and self-actualization needs when they are met. Empirical research supports the proposition that goals that are challenging are more motivational than goals that are relatively easy to achieve.

• **Feedback** – Feedback is any information that people receive about the consequences of their behavior. It is central to goal-setting because it communicates what behaviors are appropriate or necessary in a particular situation. An effective feedback is specific, relevant, timely, credible and sufficiently frequent.

5.5.2.3.1 Managerial implications of goal setting theory

The theory of Goal-setting promotes superior performance by:

(1) increasing one's persistence of effort;

(2) regulating one's effort toward effective work behaviors;

(3) directing one's attention to the assigned roles and tasks; and

(4) encouraging the development of goal attainment strategies or action plans.

(5) It implies that managers must assign specific, challenging goals; make sure workers truly accept organizational goals; and provide frequent, specific performance-related feedback.

(6) A systematic way of using goal-setting is with a management by objectives program. Management by objective (MBO) emphasizesupon setting goals in a participative manner, that are tangible, verifiable and measurable.

(7) It emphasizes four aspects: goal specificity, participation in decision-making, an explicit time period and performance feedback.

5.5.3REINFORCEMENT THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Reinforcement theory seeks to explain what types of consequences motivate different people to work. Traditionally, it can be traced to the work of the pioneering behaviorist B.F. Skinner (1953). It posits that behavior depends on its consequences. Behavior that is accompanied by favorable consequences is likely to continue, while behavior that is followed by unfavorable consequences is not likely to be repeated.

Based on this principle, reinforcement theory describes four contingency methods of shaping behavior:

1) Positive reinforcement – It occurs when behavior is followed by a favorable consequence that encourages the repetition of that behavior. For example, a supervisor may praise the employee for a job well done. In this case, praise serves as a positive reinforcer that strengthens high-quality work. Other common positive reinforcers are recognition, promotion, money, approval, fringe benefits etc.

2) Negative reinforcement – It occurs when behavior is accompanied by the removal of an unfavorable consequence that results in strengthening of that behavior. For example, an employee may work till late at the office to revise a sales presentation to prevent being rebuked by the boss next morning. In this example, rebuking serves as a negative reinforcer that encourages avoidance behavior.

3) Punishment – It occurs when the administration of an unfavorable consequence discourages certain behavior. Giving an employee a two-day suspension from work without pay for showing up drunk is an example of punishment.

4) Extinction – It occurs when the target behavior decreases because no reinforcement follows it. For example, research suggests that when mangers stop congratulating employees for their good performance, that performance tends to decline.

... Schedules of Reinforcement

The effects of reinforcement depend heavily on the schedule according to which reinforcers are delivered. The two major types of reinforcement schedules are continuous and intermittent. A

continuous reinforcement schedule reinforces the desired behavior each and every time it is demonstrated. For example, to reinforce punctuality in an employee with a history of tardiness, the manager might compliment the employee whenever he is punctual.

With intermittent or partial reinforcement, on the other hand, not every instance of the desirable behavior is reinforced, but reinforcement is given often enough to make the behavior worth repeating. Intermittent partial schedules are distinguished by whether they are based on **time (interval) or number of behavioral events (ratio), and whether that interval or ratio is fixed or variable.**

The two dimensions result in four classes of intermittent schedules:

1) **Fixed interval schedule –** Reinforcement is given after uniform time intervals. For example, being paid the salary on a monthly basis.

2) **Fixed ratio schedule** – Reinforcement is given after a fixed number of responses. For example, being paid on a piece work basis or being given a day off after serving a specific number of customers.

3) **Variable interval schedule** – Reinforcement is given after varying time intervals. For example, randomly timed unannounced visits to a company office by the audit staff or getting promotions after undefined time intervals.

4) **Variable ratio schedule** – Reinforcement is given after a varying (unpredictable) number of responses. For example, making a variable number of calls to a potential customer for securing a sale. Continuous reinforcement produces rapid learning for newly emitted, unstable or low-frequency responses.

However, continuously reinforced responses extinguish more rapidly because the shift to no reinforcement is sudden and easier to perceive. Intermittent reinforcement, on the other hand, produces behavior that is learned more slowly but is more resistant to extinction. It is therefore more appropriate for stable or high-frequency responses. Further, among the intermittent schedules, the variable ones tend to lead to higher performance and produce a rapid rate of responding than fixed schedules.

Variable schedules are also more resistant to extinction. Thus the best way to promote fast learning and high resistance to extinction is to begin reinforcing a desired behavior on a continuous schedule until the behavior is well established and then shift to a variable intermittent schedule that is gradually made more demanding.

5.5.3.1 Managerial implications of reinforcement theory

Reinforcement concepts have been applied in the managerial setting using organizational behavior modification (OB Mod).

The typical OB Mod program follows a five-step problem-solving model:

1) **Identify critical behaviors** – Everything that an employee does is not equally important in terms of performance outcomes. It is therefore important to identify critical behaviors that make a significant impact on the employee's job performance.

2) **Develop baseline data** – It requires that the manager determines the number of times the identified behavior is occurring under present conditions.

3) **Identify behavioral consequences** – It involves performing a functional analysis to identify the behavioral contingencies or consequences of performance. It tells the manager the antecedent cues that emit the behavior and the consequences that are currently maintaining it.

4) **Develop and implement an intervention strategy** – It involves implementing an appropriate intervention strategy that will entail changing some elements of performance-reward linkage with the goal of making high-level performance more rewarding.

5) **Evaluate performance improvement** – It requires that the observed behavioral change be evaluated to ensure that learning had taken place.

A number of organizations have used OB Mod to improve employee productivity; to reduce errors, absenteeism, tardiness and accident rates; and to improve friendliness toward customers. Evaluation of reinforcement theory Although the effectiveness of reinforcements in the form of rewards and punishments has a lot of support in the literature, the theory has been criticized for overlooking thoughts and feelings that are evoked by environmental stimuli. The theory assumes that it is not necessary to study needs or cognitive processes to understand motivation, but that it is only necessary to examine the consequences of behavior. However, increasing research on cognitive processes has challenged this basic assumption of the theory.

5.6 Indian Perspectives of Motivation

The concept and knowledge of motivation can be found in our scriptures like Bhagwad Gita and Vedas. The Neo Vedic scholars who were mostly influenced by Buddhism and Jainism have also mentioned about the concepts related to action and motivation. All of the religious books/ records reflect that all human beings have desires. These desires drive them to engage in actions to make themselves complete.

Since the Vedic times, the saints/philosophers in India have to understand the forces that indulge people into specific actions, behavior, goals, and attitudes. They have also tried to understand the implications of individuals' actions (karma) on their life, suffering and salvation. According to

them there are certain motivating factors, which not only satisfies their basic needs of the individuals, they also contribute towards an individuals' peace, prosperity and progression. *These motivating factors are as follows:*

- **Dharma (righteous actions)**
- **Artha (wealth)**
- **Kama (sexual desire)**
- **Moksha (total freedom to be)**

The above motivating factors talk about the people's desire to achieve materialistic as well as spiritual needs. According to Vedic philosophers, the actions of humans are guided by their desires. By seeking possessions through actions, they try to become perfect and complete. The humandesires are a result of the continuous interactions of their senses with the worldly objects. It results in attraction (raga) and aversion (dvesha) to the dualities (dvandas) of life, which in turn lead to attachments (or clinging) and desire-ridden actions. The motives of individuals regulate their actions.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ II)

Fill in the following blanks:

1. Continuously _____ responses extinguish more rapidly because the shift to no reinforcement is sudden and easier to perceive.

2. Dharma, Artha, moksha and kama are the _____.

3. The goal-setting theory posits that people will be motivated to the extent to which they

_____

_____.

4. _____ is the strength of belief that one's work-related effort will result in a given level of performance.

5.7 LET US SUM UP

Work is an important activity in an individual's life that serves not only economic, but also social relation, personal fulfillment and identity functions for an individual. Motivation at work is valuable as it serves to arouse, direct, maintain and intensify effort toward specific goals. Motivation can be understood as an inner directing force that influences people's willingness to work toward organizational goals. As a process, it is initiated when there is an internal need that drives an individual toward actions directed at obtaining incentives.

Motivation at the workplace is a complex process of needs and drives, and awareness of goals and incentives that motivate employees to exert effort. However, results occur only when motivated employees are provided with the opportunity to perform and when they have the resources and the ability to do so. When an employee is productive and the organization takes note of it, rewards are distributed that result in the satisfaction of employee's original needs and drives. There are several motives that can be classified as primary,secondary, extrinsic and intrinsic. At the end, the Indian perspective of motivation was also discussed.

5.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Describe the meaning and functions of work.

2) Explain the concept of motivation by quoting suitable definitions.

3) Define motivation. Describe some of its important characteristics.

4) Discuss the process and content theories of motivation.

5) Explain the Indian Perspective of motivation.

5.9 GLOSSARY

Work : Human activity involving physical or mental exertion that is not undertaken solely for pleasure and that has economic value.

Motivation : Psychological process governing the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed.

Work motivation : Process that accounts for arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person's job.

Need : Physiological or psychological deficiency that creates a state of tension and imbalance.

Drive : Tension that provides an energising thrust toward achieving a certain goal or accomplishing a certain task.

Incentive : Anything that can mitigate a need and decrease the intensity of the drive.

Primary motives : Unlearned physiological needs that arise from the basic requirements of life and that are important for the survival of human race.

Secondary motives : Learned social motives that arise as a result of interaction with other people and that develop as people mature.

Extrinsic motivation : Motivation promoted by factors external to the individual and unrelated to the task being performed.

Intrinsic motivation : Internal desire to perform a particular task because it is enjoyable.
Hedonism : The doctrine holding that behavior is motivated by the desire for pleasure and the avoidance of pain.

Self-actualisation : Highest need category in Maslow's need hierarchy that concerns developing one's full potential, increasing one's competence, and becoming a better person.

Task identity : The degree to which a job requires completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work.

Task significance : The degree to which one's job has a substantial impact on the organization and/or larger society.

Autonomy : The degree to which a job gives employees the freedom, independence, and discretion to schedule their work and determine the procedures used in completing it.

Feedback : Information that people receive about the consequences of their behavior.

Expectancy : The individual's belief that work-related effort will result in a given level of performance.

Instrumentality : The individual's belief that a specific performance level will lead to specific outcomes or rewards.

Valence : The anticipated satisfaction or dissatisfaction that an individual feels toward an outcome.

5.10 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ I

1. True

2. False

3. False

4. True

SAQ II

1. reinforced

2. motivating factors

3. accept specific, challenging goals and receive feedback that indicates their progress toward goal achievement

4. Expectancy

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Unit 6- Stress and Wellbeing at the Work Place

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Nirav was a very studious boy. He pursued MBA and was a topper in his institute. He was also able to secure a good job as a manager in one of the leading multinational companies. Nirav was very excited about his new job. Though, as he started working, his parents and friends started noticing change in Nirav's behavior. He was always irritated, angry, barely interacted with any one, was not eating and sleeping adequately. His colleagues also noticed the change in his behavior as they felt that otherwise effective and jovial Nirav was becoming secluded and that was affecting his performance at work.

Samina was eldest child in her family and was a bright student. She wantedto become a doctor when she grew up. However, her mother fell very sick and Samina had to leave her studies and take care of her ailing mother and her three younger siblings. Subsequent to death of her mother, Samina was not same as before. She started falling sick often and doctors could find no physiological reasons for her sickness. She also lost interest in her studies and in fact did not even bother to appear for her examination.

Ravi was sure that he will be promoted to senior manager's post after this year's performance appraisal. He had worked very hard and felt that he deserved the promotion. However, as the news with regard to promotions in his department was announced, he was shocked to see that he was not promoted. Ravi felt very frustrated after this news as he felt that his work and sincerity were not appreciated by his superiors. He lost interest in his job and his productivity started declining. The frustration experienced by him also affected his family relationship and he started having fights with his spouse. This led to further frustration and anger and Ravi ended up having a psychological breakdown.

Above are three different examples of individuals who experienced stress in one way or other in their lives. Nirav was stressed due to the job pressure that he experienced, with which he was not able to cope, and that had an impact on his wellbeing. A very negative and tragic life experience of losing a parent led Samina to experiencing stress that affected her physiological wellbeing. Stress as a result of frustration experienced by Ravi led him to become psychologically distressed and experiencing a psychological breakdown. The three examples also imply that

there are various reasons why a person may experience stress and the symptoms of stress as displayed by the individuals also vary.

Though, one thing can be stated clearly, that is, if stress is not identified and managed in time or on regular basis it can have detrimental effects on the individual. His / her functioning and productivity will decrease and it can also have a negative impact on the significant people in his/her life like parents, spouse, children, friends and even colleagues. Stress has a negative impact on both psychological and physiological well- being of a person and thus needs to be dealt with adequately using suitable intervention strategies. Though, before discussing the techniques of stress management in the present unit, we will make an attempt to understand the concept of stress and will also focus on the sources, causes and consequences of stress.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, you will be able to:

    ...   Mention the concept and definition of stress;

• Discuss the sources and effects of stress; and

 • Describe the techniques of stress management.

6.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF STRESS

After reading the above examples you may have developed some idea about what is stress. In the present section of this Unit we will discuss about the concept and nature of stress so as to develop a better understanding about this term. The terms stress has been derived from 'stringere' that is a Latin word and means 'to draw tight' (Cox, 1978).

 It has today become a very commonly used term in every context whether school, workplace, day to day lifeand so on. We often come across people who say that they are stressed or Stress: An Introduction experiencing stress in their lives. We ourselves experience stress often. The origins of stress can mainly be traced to physical sciences (Schafer, 1998).

During the 17th century it was exceedingly used to denote affiliations and hardships experienced by individuals and during the 18th century it came to be described mainly in terms of pressure, strain or force (Cartwright and Cooper, 1997).

The initial conceptualization of stress mainly focused on stress as an external stimulus. Though later it was described as a response of an individual to certain disturbances. The study carried out by Cannon can be mentioned in this context, where he mainly studied the fight and flight reaction. The focus of the study by Cannon was on the effect that stress has on animals as well as humans. Cannon also observed physiological changes in the participants of his study and he attributed these changes, as displayed by individuals, to stress. Hans Selye (1974) described stress as a response of the body to certain demand that is made on it and he further stated that this response was nonspecific.

Baum et al. (1981) have defined stress as a "process in which environmental events or forces, called, stressors, threatens an organism's existence and wellbeing".

Schafer (1998, pg. 6) defined stress as "arousal of mind and body in response to demands made on them".

Both the above definitions focus on the demand and an individual's response to the same. Thus, the onus here is on the response of the individual. Though the first definition focuses only on body the second definition brings in the important aspect of mind, implying that stress is a response of both body as well as mind.

Yet another definition of stress was given by Lazarus and Folkman (1984, pg. 19). They define stress as "a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his/ her resources and endangering his/ her wellbeing". This definition emphasizes on the relationship between person and the environment, though here the stress is presented in a negative light, stress is not always negative and may have its own advantages.

Lazarus and Folkman put forth the transactional model of stress and coping that focuses on how an event is interpreted or appraised by an individual, which in turn will determine the stress

experienced by the individual. This model highlights that stress and coping up with stress are being interrelated processes.

Truxillo et al. (2016, pg. 440) defined stress as "the body's reaction to a change that requires a physical, mental or emotional adjustment or response". This definition has further elaborated the response as being physical, mental or emotional in nature. The above definitions mainly looked at stress from a western perspective. If we describe stress from an eastern perspective, it denotes absence or lack on inner peace (Seaward, 2014).

While discussing the concept of stress it is also important to understand the term stressor, that can be described as situation, event, person or anything that leads to the stress response.

Gerrig and Zimbardo (2005, pg. 430) defined stressor as a stimulus event that places a demand on an organism for some kind of adaptive response". At a given point of time an individual may have various stressors in his/ her life. It could be an upcoming official event, an impending report, examination and so on. Stressors can also be described as varied external and internal stimuli that may lead to stress. Stressors can be categorized into physical, psychological, environmental, social and as life events. Stressors could range from adjusting to change, financial issues and problems, life events like separation, divorce, illnesses or death of a loved one, managing varied roles and responsibilities, facing frequent challenging situations and even technological changes and development.

Some of the stressors that an individual may have in one's life are shown in figure 7.1.
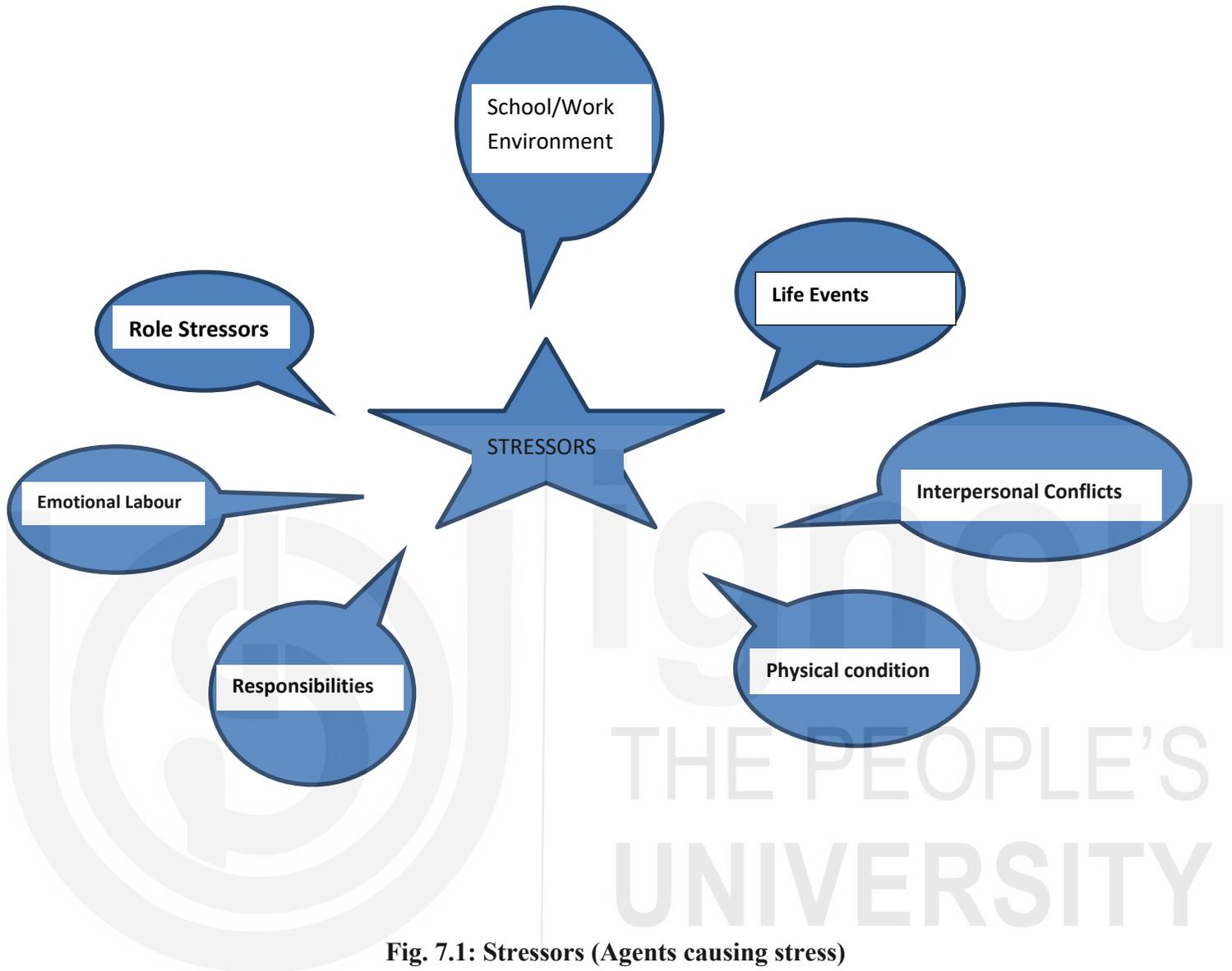
Fig. 7.1: Stressors (Agents causing stress)

6.3 CAUSES/ SOURCES OF STRESS

As we have developed a clear idea about the concept of stress, we will now move on to the sources of stress. Coleman (1970) categorized the sources or the causes of stress in to three main categories, namely, *Frustration, Conflict of motives and Pressure* (Coleman, 1970).

- **Frustration:** Frustration can be described as occurring when a goal-oriented behavior of an individual is thwarted. As stated by Mangal (1984, pg. 46) "a wide range of environmental obstacles, both physical and social and the internal factors in the form of personal limitations, biological conditions and psychological barriers may lead to frustration of our needs, motives and efforts". For example, Ravi expected his promotion, however, when he did not receive the same, he experienced frustration.

- **Conflict of Motives:** The next source is conflict of motives that can cause stress as an individual has to choose between alternatives and decision making in this regard can lead to stress.

- **Pressure:** Pressure is yet another source of stress that can be external or internal. External pressures are result of demands from the environment, responsibilities and obligations that are mainly social in nature as well as demands and expectations of the significant persons in our lives.

Other sources of stress can be pointed out as follows:

- **Interpersonal Relationships:** Stress can also result due to ineffective interpersonal relationships or interpersonal conflicts, family related issues, lack of work life balance, work pressures and work overload and even environmental pressures that could be due to noise pollution, crowding and so on.

- **Life events:** Stress can be caused due to varied life events. These could be death of a loved one, divorce or separation, losing one's job, marriage and so on. These could be termed as significant life events in one's life that may put pressure on the adjustment and coping resources of the person as they expose the individual to certain new and unique challenges. Thus, life events can lead to stress which in turn can have detrimental effects on the day to day functioning as well as physical and psychological health of the individual.

- **Daily hassles:** Similar to life events, daily hassles can also create stress. Daily hassles like lack of time, work overload, daily roles, responsibilities and duties and so on can lead to stress.

- **Status insecurity:** Individuals (e.g. type A personality) may display status insecurity, which is likely to stem from low self-esteem. Such individuals will constantly compare

themselves with others and will find themselves to be inferior in their own eyes. They are also constantly striving to enhance their self-esteem. These individuals often have a very high expectation from themselves and are also highly critical about self. This will often drive them to achieve and accomplish as much as possible.

... **Drive towards self-destruction:** The lifestyle led by certain individuals (e.g. type A personalities) can take a toll on them and they often seek escapism and thus in a way they may drive themselves on the path of self-destruction. Individuals with type A are not only more prone to stress, as was mentioned earlier, but they may display lower satisfaction with regard to job, health, home and life. They may also experience lack of energy and may experience more affective tension and symptoms of distress.

... **Hostility:** Schafer (2004, pg. 194) described hostility as "cynicism towards others' motives and values, easily and frequently aroused anger, and a tendency to express that anger towards others." Hostility in this context does not relate to anger that leads to violent behavior. But this is the irritability and anger experienced by individuals who otherwise seem perfectly normal (Schafer, 2004). Such a hostility may be experienced in simple events in life, like someone spills tea on the office table, a family member does not fold clothes and they are left in the sitting chair and so on, for which individuals who are not hostile may barely react.The long-term effect of such hostility is negative as it not only affects one's health but can also affect one's social relationships. Links have been found between hostility and stress (Felsten,1996; Hackett et al, 2015). Thus, hostility can also be termed as a factor that can make individuals more prone to stress.

... **Perfectionism:** Yet another factor that can lead to stress proneness is perfectionism. Perfectionism can be described as expectations that an individual may have from self and others or both and these expectations are demanding in nature which seldom leaves chance for compromise. Perfectionism can be categorized into internal perfectionism (expectations from self) and external perfectionism (expectations from others). Individuals with internal perfectionism will have high expectations from themselves and this can not only affect their health but also their productivity. It can also negatively affect their relationship and self-esteem. Individuals who have external

perfectionism will often find fault with others and are never satisfied with how others work and this can lead them to experiencing frustration as well as hostility.

...   **Procrastination:** We discussed earlier that perfectionism may lead to procrastination, but procrastination in itself is also a factor that could lead to stress proneness. Procrastination can simply be described as not doing things/ activities on time and keeping them for later. This can be because the things or those activities are viewed as not appealing/ pleasant or difficult. Procrastination can lead to stress because individuals who procrastinate will not only feel guilty and indulge in condemnation of self, but there could also be external repercussions (for example, examination fee not paid in time, delay in submitting an important report and so on).

...   **Learned Helplessness/ Learned pessimism:** The term learned helpless was put forth by Seligman and it can be described as tendency to become helpless when frequently faced with events that cannot be controlled. Schafer (2004, pg. 215) defines learned pessimism as "the tendency to interpret bad events as personally caused, part of a permanent pattern, and pervasive into all parts of one's life and the tendency to interpret positive events as caused by luck or external forces, temporary, and limited to this one aspect".

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ I)

Fill in the following Blanks:

1. Frustration can be described as occurring when a _____ of an individual is thwarted.

2. _____ can be described as tendency to become helpless when frequently faced with events that cannot be controlled.

3. _____ can also be described as varied external and internal stimuli that may lead to stress.

4.   Hans   Selye   (1974)   described   stress   as   a
_____
_____

6.4 CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

Let us now discuss the consequences or the effects of stress on the individuals. We will discuss the consequences of stress on an individuals' health, performance, productivity and interpersonal relationships:

6.4.1 Effect of Stress on Health

Stress has an impact on the physical health of an individual. A number of illnesses like cardiovascular disorders, aches and pain, ulcers, hypertension, diabetes, asthma, hyperthyroidism, and even cancer can be attributed to stress. Stress can have an impact on the immune system of the individual and thus the individual may become easily prone to varied infections and illnesses. Stress can also accelerate ageing.

When an individual is experiencing stress, the resources and energy is diverted from immune system to systems in the body that play more important role in stress reactivity (as was also discussed under fight and flight response and GAS) and thus, individuals who experience stress for long period of time are prone to develop infections as their immune system is compromised. Stress can lead to development of cardiovascular disorders in individuals. When there is perception of stress, one of the physiological changes that occur is that pulse rate increases as well as there is an increase in the blood pressure. As such the heart tends to be on a rapid mode and works harder when stress is experienced. A stress for a long period of time will have the heart working overtime for a longer period of time and that can lead to development of cardiovascular disorders. Further, lifestyle of the individual, including diet and nutrition, physical exercise, consumption of alcohol and drugs and so on can also contribute to the development of such disorders.

Prolonged stress can also cause hypertension as sympathetic nervous system gets activated and blood pressure increases and remains increased for a longer period of time. And prolonged hypertension can again lead to development of cardiovascular disorders and could also lead to stroke and kidney related disorders.

As a result of prolonged stress, an individual could also develop ulcers, irritable bowel syndrome and inflammatory bowel diseases. Stress is one of the factors that can also lead to individuals developing asthma. Stress can also cause hyperthyroidism, as experiencing stress for a prolonged period of time can negatively affect thyroid, the gland that is responsible for metabolism as well as regulation of various physiological functions. The functioning of the thyroid can also get affected due to stress. Various hormones are also released as stress is experienced and this can lead to increased levels of glucose in blood.

Further, stress can also cause anxiety and depression. When stress is experienced by an individual, there is a release of neurotransmitters (the chemicals that transmit signal between the neurons) Serotonin and Adrenalin. After the release of these neurotransmitters, stress related hormones are released and these can have an impact on area of brain relevant to memory and regulation of affect. When stress is experienced by an individual for a prolonged period of time, then there is a negative effect on the way these systems function and as a result the individual is prone to developing anxiety and depression.

Further, depression can also be linked to extended activation of immune system, that is a result of stress experienced by an individual over a period of time (Crannage, 2018). Extreme stress can also lead to development of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD).

Stress can also lead to indulgence of the individual in unhealthy coping behavior which can also involve substance use (alcohol, drug and so on). This in turn can not only lead to addiction but can have detrimental effect on health. Besides a person under stress may also engage in unhealthy lifestyle, like they may not exercise, maintain healthy diet and may even indulge in unhealthy eating behaviors. Thus, it can be said that stress can have a negative effect on one's physical health as well as mental health. Further, it can also impact one's lifestyle and behavior which in turn have adverse effects on one's overall health.

6.4.2 Effect of Stress on Performance and Productivity

When we talk about performance and productivity, it could be overall performance and productivity of the individual and it could also be performance and productivity in the context of work. Before we go on to discuss performance and productivity in the context of work, let us discuss about how stress can impact cognitive functioning, that is a key to performance and

productivity. Stress can have a negative impact on cognitive functioning or performance of the individual, which can be for a short term or for long period of time. In fact, stress experienced over a long period of time may even lead to decline in cognitive functioning and is also linked to occurrence of dementia (Scott et al, 2015).

Prolonged stress can affect memory, attention and concentration of the individual. Individuals experiencing stress may also display ineffective decision making. Stress can also lead to worrying constantly, forgetting, lack of organization, lack of judgment and all these in turn can have an impact on the overall performance and productivity of the individual. Stress has a negative effect on the executive functioning of an individual that includes tasks like making plans, reasoning, management of one's life, problem solving and so on. And this can be attributed to the overload that is created by stress, where the resources of the individual are diverted towards coping with stress.

Thus, an individual under stress may not be able to remember well, indulge in effective problem solving and may not be able to pay his/ her complete attention. When an individual is experiencing stress, his/ her cognitive performance as well as ability to make decisions can get negatively affected.

Under stress, individuals may also not be able to indulge in analyzing complex situations or carry out manipulation of information (Kavanagh, 2005). Stress that is experienced in day to day life can also result in negative mood that is experienced by the individual, which in turn may lead to the individual experiencing fatigue, which can further affect his/ her ability to pay attention (Scott et al, 2015). While discussing about relationship between stress and performance, the hypothesis related to the inverted- U needs to be discussed. Inverted- U is also called as Yerkes-Dodson Law that denotes relationship between arousal and performance. It was put forth by Robert Yerkes and John Dillingham Dodson in 1908. The law says that an optimum level of stress is required for an individual to perform and meet their targets, but if the stress increases after an extent the performance of the individual deteriorates.

All this can not only impact their health but also their cognitive functioning leading to detrimental impact on their performance and productivity. Let us discuss about how stress can have an impact on performance and productivity at workplace. When employees experience

stress for a longer period of time, the outcome could be affective exhaustion, decreased organizational commitment and higher turnover amongst the employees (Kavanagh, 2005). Decreased performance, job dissatisfaction and even absenteeism can be related with stress (Miner, 1992). Most often individuals under stress take more time to complete a task than an individual not experiencing stress. Individuals experiencing stress may also display poor time management. Inability to manage time and complete work as per deadlines can further cause stress. Such individuals may also display lack of punctuality which can cost the organization man-hours. Individuals experiencing stress may also remain absent from jobs for extended period of time (absenteeism). This could mainly be because of the negative impact that the stress can have on their physical and mental health. Individuals under stress may also not be able to focus on their work activities and this again can affect the productivity and even cause accidents.Communication can also get hampered when individuals are under stress and the likelihood of individuals being prone to groupthink is also high. As a result of groupthink, the members of a group may reach a consensus decision which may not be correct or rational. Thus, stress can have a negative effect on interactions and relationships at workplace, which in turn can affect team work.

Employees may also experience technostress, stress that is experienced due to lack of ability to cope with advances in technology. In this context, we also need to discuss about yet another term that is 'Burnout'. Pestonjee (1999, pg. 23) defined burnout as "the end of stress experienced but not properly coped with, resulting in symptoms of exhaustion, irritation, ineffectiveness, discounting of self and others and problems of health (hypertension, ulcers and heart problem)". Not only the quality of work of the individual experiencing stress will suffer but stress can also have an impact on the work life balance of the individual.

6.4.3 Effect of Stress on Inter Personal Relationships

Individuals are not islands but are interdependent on each other. They cannot function in isolation and rely on each other to carry out various activities as well as for support. Thus, one of the important dimensions of an individual's life is his/ her relationship with others. Stress can also have an impact on the individual's relationships and can have an impact on his/her relationship with others.

Inadequate coping strategies employed by the individuals may also lead to behaviors that may negatively affect the individual's relationship with others. For instance, as a result of stress, the person may indulge in substance use (consumption of alcohol and drug use) and such behaviors over a period of time can negatively affect his/ her relationship with others. Stress may also lead to interpersonal conflicts that again may result in negative effects on relationships. Individuals who are under stress may say certain things or make certain mistakes that they would otherwise refrain from doing. Even decision making and problem-solving abilities of the person get affected and certain decisions he/ she takes or problem solving strategies that he/ she may employ can affect his/ her relationship with others and develop interpersonal conflicts.

Jobs and work-related activities have become more and more complex and the stress experienced at work is also high and this can have a spill over in the personal life of the individual. Often, individuals bottle up their stress and do not deal with it or express it.

6.5 STRESS MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

You might know by now, that, stress can have several negative effects on individuals, but stress is a condition which all of us face inevitably. So in order to prevent ourselves from the negative effects of stress, *let us now discuss about few of the techniques which can help in managing stress and enhancing our well- being*:

6.5.1 Relaxation techniques

As discussed earlier that, there are a number of physiological changes that take place in the individual who is experiencing stress. These could range from rapid breathing to increased heartbeat and pulse rate, tightening of muscles and so on. In such a situation relaxation technique can be effectively used, especially, to reduce the muscle tension experienced by the individual undergoing stress. Relaxation techniques help not only in relieving stress but they also help in dealing with anxiety, help sleep better, help in regulation of blood pressure, reduce headaches and migraine and so on.

One such relaxation technique is *Jacobson's Progressive Muscle Relaxation*. This technique involves deep muscle relaxation. The main assumption of this technique is that relaxation and tension cannot occur at the same time, mainly because both are as a result of two different

autonomic nervous systems, that is, sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. And these systems cannot be active at the same time as they reciprocally inhibit each other.

The technique mainly involves contracting various body muscles and then relaxing them. The exercise can be carried out for approximately 15 to 20 minutes and could be practiced twice a day.

The following needs to be kept in mind before practicing this technique (Ghosh, 2015):

1. It is to be practiced in a place that one finds comfortable.

2. Preferably it needs to be carried out at a time when there are least distractions.

3. It needs to be carried out with belief in one self and should not be hurriedly carried out.

4. Any drugs or medications should not be used for relaxation and those on medication may practice after seeking medical advice.

5. Caution must be maintained by persons suffering from problems like backaches, fractures and other injuries. The technique mainly starts with breathing in, holding the breath and letting go.

It is important to be calm as well as comfortable while practicing this technique. Eyes can be closed during the technique. Breathing exercise could be repeated a few times and that can be followed by tensing and relaxing of different muscles. This technique involves contracting and relaxing 16 muscle groups alternatively. These muscles include arms, hands, shoulders, neck, forehead-eyes-scalp, jaws - mouth, chest - trunk, stomach, lower back, buttocks, thigh, foot-calf (Ghosh 2015).

The contracting and relaxing of muscle is to be carried out as follows:

• Bend the arms up to the elbow, hold for few seconds and relax.

• Hands can be clenched in a fist, hold for some time and open.

• Shoulders can be pulled in upward direction, held in this position for a while and then released.

• For relaxing the neck, head can be pushed back for a few seconds and then brought in the original position. Similarly, chin can be brought down towards the chest, for a few seconds and then brought in the original position.

• For chest, deep breaths to be taken, held for few seconds and then relaxed. • Stomach can be pulled in for a few seconds and then relaxed.

• For thighs, knees can be pulled together for a while and then relaxed by drifting them apart. • Buttocks can be squeezed together and relaxed.

• For feet, pull your toes up in the direction of your knees, hold this position briefly and then relax by letting go.

Heels can be pressed against the ground for a few seconds and the relaxed by letting go. Post exercise it is important to remain relaxed Before you open your eyes count backwards from ten to one and then rub your palms together and put them on your eyes. Then, eyes can be opened slowly and the feeling of being relaxed can be enjoyed.

6.5.2 Meditation

Meditation is yet another technique that can be used to deal with stress. Meditation is the English word for Sanskrit term 'Dhyana'. It can be described as a process of "quieting the mind in order to spend time in thought for relaxation with a goal to attain inner state of awareness and intensify personal and spiritual growth" (https://www.yogapedia.com/ definition/4949/meditation).

Meditation will relax your body and thus the negative impact of stress on the body is reduced. Meditation not only leads to relaxation of body but it also helps in increasing self-awareness. And regular practice of meditation will have long term benefits. There are different types of meditation (Villines, 2017, Welch, 2019).

Some of these are briefly explained as follows:

... **Mindfulness meditation:** This mainly includes becoming aware about one's thoughts. It involves sitting in a place without any distractions and non-judgmentally observing one's thoughts and emotions. Transcendental meditation: This involves chanting of a 'mantra'/

chant or a word repeatedly in certain manner. This again can be done in a quiet place. One can sit straight but comfortably and practice this meditation for 15 to 20 minutes.

... **Guided meditation:** As the name suggests, in this meditation, there is often a guide who will take you through the meditation process. This meditation mainly involves visualisation of certain images that you may find relaxing. It also involves utilising one's senses. The person may be asked to sit in a quiet and calm place with eyes closed and visualise certain images that he/ she finds relaxing.

... **Vipassana meditation:** The main aim of this meditation is self-observation in order to transform oneself. It requires attention to be paid to different bodily sensations in order to create a connection between body and mind.

... **Loving kindness meditation (Metta meditation):** This meditation includes directing love and kindness towards others. The individual is required to sit straight but in a comfortable position in a quiet place. He/ she is then required to take a few deep breaths and repeat to oneself words that express kindness to self, then to family, friends and other significant people in his/ her life and then to everyone.

The benefits of meditation include not only reduction of stress but it can also help in managing anxiety, promoting affective health, enhancing self awareness, increasing the span of attention and so on. Initially it can be practiced once in a day for a few minutes and later on the duration can be increased and it can also be practiced twice a day.

6.5.3 Yoga

You all must be aware that we celebrate International Day of Yoga on 21st June every year. Such is the effectiveness of Yoga that it is now promoted at International level in order to create awareness and promote practice of Yoga amongst the individuals so as to help them enhance their health and wellbeing. Yoga as a practice originated in India and the term Yoga is derived from Sanskrit meaning 'to unite', indicating a union of consciousness and body (https://www.un.org/en/events/yogaday/). T

he main goal of Yoga is self realisation (Balaji, 2012). Yoga finds its mention in Bhagwad Gita, where a whole chapter is devoted to it. Three main types of yoga have been mentioned in this regard. *Karma Yoga:* That is yoga related to one's actions. *Bhakti Yoga*: Yoga related to

devotion. *Jnana Yoga:* That is Yoga related to knowledge. There is also a fourth type that was put forth by Patanjali, He introduced *Ashtang Yoga*, that is, power yoga. This yoga involves a movement or a flow from posture to posture (Balaji, 2012).

6.5. 4Time Management

 Effective and systematic management of time could be a key to stress management. Time is a precious resource and time management basically involves making the best use of the time that one has. It also includes planning, controlling the waste of time, implementation of various techniques to manage time as well as carrying out evaluation that can help one improve. Seaward (2014, pg. 147) explains time management as "prioritization, scheduling and execution of responsibilities to personal satisfaction". Main aspects that have been reflected in this definition are:*prioritization, scheduling and execution*.

- ... **Prioritization:**
   Prioritization involves listing tasks and responsibilities according to their priority or how important and urgent they are to be carried out. Here the difference needs to be made between what is urgent and what is important.
- ... **Scheduling:**
   It involves grouping smaller tasks together (e.g. going to meet a friend and shopping) as well as breaking complicated tasks in to smaller tasks (e.g. studying the whole course, chapter wise).

- ... **Execution:** This has to do with actually carrying out the task as mere planning and scheduling is not enough. Thus, one needs to be motivated enough to carry out the task. One way to motivate oneself is by self rewarding one's self for every completed task. These rewards could be tangible or intangible or big or small. Though, it is a good idea to motivate oneself intrinsically to carry out the task.

6.5.5 Cognitive Restructuring

Cognitive restructuring can be described as "a process of replacing stress provoking negative thoughts and beliefs with more constructive and realistic ones which reduce cognitive appraisal of the threat" (Ghosh, 2015 pg. 185). Thus, cognitive restructuring mainly involves changing the

thinking process and making it more rational and positive. For instance, if a student gets very low marks in an examination, instead of thinking oneself as a failure, he/ she can take a learning lesson and decide to try harder next time.

6.5.6 Mindfulness

Mindfulness denotes awareness about ones thinking, the way one feels, physical sensations and one's surrounding in the present moment and thus contributes towards enhancing well being. It mainly involves becoming non-judgmental in one's awareness about one's thoughts and feelings. It mainly involves paying attention to things that generally we do not notice as we are too occupied with our lives, thinking about future and past and are seldom focusing on present. Mindfulness is often termed as a contrast to automatic pilot mode (or a default mode) where we do things without much thought or attention. Often, we are doing certain activities like driving, household chores or even eating which we may do by not paying our complete attention to the task and most often our attention and thought process may be somewhere else rather than on these activities. Thus, we are in auto pilot mode.

Whereas, mindfulness involves becoming aware and focusing our attention on these activities. The main characteristics of mindfulness according to Kabat-Zinn (1990) are being nonjudgmental, cultivating patience, being open minded, having trust, non-striving, acceptance and letting go. In fact Kabat-Zinn was also responsible for starting a program on Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction in 1997 at University of Massachusetts Medical School.

It is also important that when mindfulness is practiced, one involves in observing one's experiences including thoughts, feelings and physiological sensations. Though when one is focusing at varied experiences, it is to be done one at a time. Besides observation, it also involves description of what is being observed but this is to be done non-judgmentally. Practicing mindfulness can have a positive impact on an individual's body and mind. It not only helps in dealing with certain illnesses by strengthening one's immune system but it also helps deal with stress and promote positive mental health. Even memory, attention, problem solving and decision making can improve with the help of mindfulness.

It can also enhance one's self esteem and can play a role in building and maintaining positive relationships.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ II)

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

1. Effective and systematic management of time could be a key to stress management.

2. Anxiety can be described as "a process of replacing stress provoking negative thoughts and beliefs with more constructive and realistic ones which reduce cognitive appraisal of the threat".

3. Jacobson's Progressive Muscle Relaxation is a technique that involves deep muscle relaxation.

4. Under stress, individuals may also not be able to indulge in analysing complex situations or carry out manipulation of information.

6.6 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the present unit that, stress can be defined as a "process in which environmental events or forces, called, stressors, threatens an organism's existence and wellbeing". After defining the concept of stress, various causes of stress were also discussed in this unit. The consequences of stress were discussed later.

The unit also discussed about the different techniques with the help of which one can manage stress. The unit ends with the discussion on relevance of time management. Effective and systematic management of time could be a key to stress management.

6.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1. Define stress and discuss its causes.

2. What are the various causes of stress.

3. Discuss the different techniques of managing stress.

4. Write Short Notes on the following:

a) Consequences of stress

b) Effective time management

6.8 GLOSSARY

Biofeedback: Biofeedback can be described as a process that is noninvasive in nature and helps in comprehending the effect of stress on one's body.

Meditation: It can be described as a process of quieting the mind in order to spend time in thought for relaxation with a goal to attain inner state of awareness and intensify personal and spiritual growth.

Mindfulness: Mindfulness denotes awareness about ones thinking, the way one feels, physical sensations and one's surrounding in the present moment.

Yoga: Yoga as a practice originated in India and the term Yoga is derived from Sanskrit meaning 'to unite', indicating a union of consciousness and body. The main goal of Yoga is self realisation. Yoga mainly involves bodily postures (Asanas), breathing exercises and meditation that are to be carried out in a specific manner.

Cognitive restructuring: Cognitive restructuring can be described as a process of replacing stress provoking negative thoughts and beliefs with more constructive and realistic ones which reduce cognitive appraisal of the threat.

Delegation: Delegation is assigning the task to someone else.

Time management: Time management can be explained as prioritisation, scheduling and execution of responsibilities to personal satisfaction.

6.9 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS (SAQ)

SAQ I

1. goal oriented behavior

2. Learned helplessness

3. Stressors

4. response of the body to certain demand that is made on it.

SAQ II

1. True

2. False

3. True

4. True

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