FAIRFIELD
Institute of Management & Technology
(A Grade Institute By DHE, Govt. of NCT Delhi and Affiliated to GGSIP University, Delhi)

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ISO 9001:2008 & 14001:2004

BCOM 212

Work Psychology

UNIT-I

Psychology: Nature and Scope of Psychology, Emergence as Science, Subject Matter, Psychology in India. Methods of Psychology: Experimental, Observation, Survey, Branches of Psychology, Applications of Psychology

Work Psychology: Nature of work psychology, the world of work and organisations, emerging issues in occupational psychology.

UNIT-II

People at work: personality, intelligence, emotional intelligence, creativity and innovation at work. Perception: Introduction, perception, perception and attitude, attitude to work, social perception, social norms and socialization.

Social Interaction: Conformity, Cooperation, Pro-social behavior, Altruism, Aggression, Changing others behavior.

UNIT-III

Positive Organizational Behavior: Optimism and positive thinking, Social Intelligence, Self-Efficacy; Work-Life balance, spiritual quotient Work Satisfaction: job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction and its causes, work motivation.

UNIT-IV

Industrial Psychology: Nature, Scope, Changing Workplaces and Worker Involvement, Ergonomics Management Issues: loss of work, employment, unemployment, redundancy, retirement; psychological health in the workplace, organizational responsibility for psychological health.

UNIT I

Psychology comes from a Greek word Psyche which means *mind, consciousness, or awareness*.
It refers to the soul which is the core, essence of a person. It also derive character which is attributed to man.
Psychology is the science of behavior and mental processes.

Psychology has been defined in various ways, perhaps the simplest yet most accurate definition is that provided by miller (1966), "*the science of mental life"* mental life refers to three phenomena: behaviors, thoughts and emotions. Today, most psychologists would agree that psychology involves all three.

Psychology is the study of the mind, occurring partly via the study of behavior. Grounded in scientific method, psychology has the immediate goal of understanding individuals and groups by both establishing general principles and researching specific cases, and for many it ultimately aims to benefit society. In this field, a professional practitioner or researcher is called a psychologist, and can be classified as a social scientist, behavioral scientist, or cognitive scientist. Psychologists attempt to understand the role of mental functions in individual and social behavior, while also exploring the physiological and neurobiological processes that underlie certain cognitive functions and behaviors.

> ➢ **Aristotle and Socrates -** Psychology evolved out of both philosophy and biology. The word psychology is derived from the Greek word psyche, meaning 'soul' or 'mind.'

> ➢ **The British Psychological Society -** Psychology is the scientific study of people, the mind and behaviour. It is both a thriving academic discipline and a vital professional practice.

> ➢ **American Psychological Association -** The scientific study of the behaviour of individuals and their mental processes.

➢ **Wikipedia -** Psychology is an academic and applied discipline involving the scientific study of mental processes and behaviour.

➢ **William James (1842-1910) -** An American psychologist, developed an approach which came to be known as functionalism. This emphasis on the causes and consequences of behaviour has influenced contemporary psychology.

➢ **Wundt-** psychology is a science it attempts to investigate the causes of behaviour using systematic and objective procedures for observation, measurement and analysis, backed-up by theoretical interpretations, generalizations, explanations and predictions.

➢ **APA -** Psychology is the study of the mind and behaviour. The discipline embraces all aspects of the human experience from the functions of the brain to the actions of nations, from child development to care for the aged. In every conceivable setting from scientific research centres to mental health care services, "the understanding of behaviour" is the enterprise of psychologists.

➢ **Medilexicon's medical dictionary** - psychology is "The profession (clinical psychology), scholarly discipline (academic psychology), and science (research psychology) concerned with the behaviour of humans and animals, and related mental and physiologic processes."Although psychology may also include the study of the mind and behaviour of animals, in this article psychology refers mainly to humans' conformity, aggression and prejudice.

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NATURE OF PSYCHOLOGY

⊙ Psychology has the following features:

  ▪ Describe behavior – what is the nature of this behavior?

  ▪ Understand and explain behavior - why does it occur?

  ▪ Predict behavior– can we forecast when and under what circumstances it will occur?

  ▪ Control behavior - what factors influence this behavior?

- Inter-disciplinary

- Psychology is a science

- Psychology is an art

SCOPE OF PSYCHOLOGY

A. HEALTH

Today, many psychologists work in the emerging area of health psychology, the application of psychology to the promotion of physical health and the prevention and treatment of illness. Researchers in this area have shown that human health and well-being depends on both biological and psychological factors. Many psychologists in this area study psycho physiological disorders (also called psychosomatic disorders), conditions that are brought on or influenced by psychological states, most often stress. These disorders include high blood pressure, headaches, asthma, and ulcers (see Stress-Related Disorders). Researchers have discovered that chronic stress is associated with an increased risk of coronary heart disease. In addition, stress can compromise the body's immune system and increase susceptibility to illness. Health psychologists also study how people cope with stress. They have found that people who have family, friends, and other forms of social support are healthier and live longer than those who are more isolated. Other researchers in this field examine the psychological factors that underlie smoking, drinking, drug abuse, risky sexual practices, and other behaviors harmful to health.

B. Education

Psychologists in all branches of the discipline contribute to our understanding of teaching, learning, and education. Some help develop standardized tests used to measure academic aptitude and achievement. Others study the ages at which children become capable of attaining various cognitive skills, the effects of rewards on their motivation to learn, computerized instruction, bilingual education, learning disabilities, and other relevant topics. Perhaps the best-known application of psychology to the field of education occurred in 1954 when, in the case of Brown v. Board of Education, the Supreme Court of the United States outlawed the segregation of public schools by race. In its ruling, the Court cited psychological studies suggesting that segregation had a damaging effect on black students and tended to encourage prejudice.

In addition to the contributions of psychology as a whole, two fields within psychology focus exclusively on education: educational psychology and school psychology. Educational psychologists seek to understand and improve the teaching and learning process within the classroom and other educational settings. Educational psychologists study topics such as intelligence and ability testing, student motivation, discipline and classroom management, curriculum plans, and grading. They also test general theories about how students learn most effectively. School psychologists work in elementary and secondary school systems administering tests, making placement recommendations, and counselling children with academic or emotional problems.

C. Business

In the business world, psychology is applied in the workplace and in the marketplace. Industrial-organizational (I-O) psychology focuses on human behavior in the workplace and other organizations. I-O psychologists conduct research, teach in business schools or universities, and work in private industry. Many I-O psychologists study the factors that influence worker motivation, satisfaction, and productivity. Others study the personal traits and situations that foster great leadership. Still others focus on the processes of personnel selection, training, and evaluation. Studies have shown, for example, that face-to-face interviews sometimes result in poor hiring decisions and may be biased by the applicant's gender, race, and physical attractiveness. Studies have also shown that certain standardized tests can help to predict on-the-job performance. See Industrial-Organizational Psychology.

Consumer psychology is the study of human decision making and behavior in the marketplace. In this area, researchers analyze the effects of advertising on consumers' attitudes and buying habits. Consumer psychologists also study various aspects of marketing, such as the effects of packaging, price, and other factors that lead people to purchase one product rather than another.

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D. Law

Many psychologists today work in the legal system. They consult with attorneys, testify in court as expert witnesses, counsel prisoners, teach in law schools, and research various justice-related issues. Sometimes referred to as forensic psychologists, those who apply psychology to the law study a range of issues, including jury selection, eyewitness testimony, confessions to police, lie-detector tests, the death penalty, criminal profiling, and the insanity defence.

Studies in forensic psychology have helped to illuminate weaknesses in the legal system. For example, based on trial-simulation experiments, researchers have found that jurors are often biased by various facts not in evidence—that is, facts the judge tells them to disregard. In studying eyewitness testimony, researchers have staged mock crimes and asked witnesses to identify the assailant or recall other details. These studies have revealed that under certain conditions eyewitnesses are highly prone to error.

Psychologists in this area often testify in court as expert witnesses. In cases involving the insanity defense, forensic clinical psychologists are often called to court to give their opinion about whether individual defendants are sane or insane. Used as a legal defense, insanity means that defendants, because of a mental disorder, cannot appreciate the wrongfulness of their conduct or control it (see Insanity). Defendants who are legally insane at the time of the offense may be absolved of criminal responsibility for their conduct and judged not guilty. Psychologists are often called to testify in court on other controversial matters as well, including the accuracy of eyewitness testimony, the mental competence (fitness) of defendants to stand trial, and the reliability of early childhood memories.

E. Other Domains

Psychology has applications in many other domains of human life. Environmental psychologists focus on the relationship between people and their physical surroundings. They study how street noise, heat, architectural design, population density, and crowding affect people's behavior and mental health. In a related field, human factors psychologists work on the design of appliances, furniture, tools, and other manufactured items in order to maximize their comfort, safety, and convenience. Sports psychologists advise athletes and study the physiological, perceptual-motor, motivational, developmental, and social aspects of athletic performance.

PSYCHOLOGY AS SCIENCE

The definition of psychology claims that psychology contains the features of science. First of all it is important to know what science is. Second, if psychology is a science, i: it a natural science like physics, chemistry, and biology or a social science like sociology and economics? Psychology has evolved out of the combined influences of natural science and philosophy. Hence, it contains some of the elements of natural science.

What is science?

Science refers to a systematic process of acquiring and organizing knowledge. Science is defined not by its subject matter, but by the methods employed to acquire knowledge. The methods used in science are systematic, objective, and verifiable. The objective of science is to gain an understanding of the cause-and-effect relationship among variables under carefully controlled observations. The controlled observations, called be experiments, usually take place in the laboratory with the help of scientific instruments. While using experimental procedures, certain variables or conditions are changed by the experimenter to observe their effects on another variable. The variables changed by the experimenter are called 'independent variables'; the variables on which their effects are observed are called 'dependent variables'. The process of gaining knowledge follows certain defined stages in scientific enquiry:

(a) Identification and analysis of a problem,

(b) Formulation of a hypothesis which states the expected finding of an investigation,

(c) Preparing a design or strategy,

d) Collection and analysis of data,

(e) Interpretation of the findings, and

(f) Developing or revising a theory.

Since Wundt established the first psychology laboratory in 1879 at Leipzig, psychologists are claiming a scientific status for their discipline. In the early years, psychology emulated the methods of physics and biology, it was also considered to be a life science as it was connected with biology. Recently, neurophysiology has emerged as a discipline, which studies the relationship between biological structure of the brain and its psychological functions. Thus psychology contains a few elements of natural sciences.

The data are collected, analysed, and interpreted. If the findings show that the distributed condition results in better retention compared to the massed condition, the hypothesis is supported; if it does not, the hypothesis is rejected. The researcher is objective and has collected information systematically. The findings can also be verified by another scientist, who would probably obtain the same result. These findings can be generalized to form scientific laws. Using these laws, scientists can understand and make predictions.

Can we call psychology a science?

Yes, we can, because it fulfills many conditions of science. It has systematic and objective methods; its findings can be verified; it examines cause-and-effect relationships to produce universal laws governing human behaviour.

The question arises, 'Is psychology an exact science like physics, chemistry, and biology?' Perhaps, not. Unlike natural sciences, psychology deals with behaviours and mental processes. Behaviour is very complex, dynamic, and ever changing. The mental processes are very abstract, and are in a state of dynamic interaction. Hence, the laws in psychology are not as exact and precise as those in physics.

We cannot expect that psychology would conform to the laws of natural sciences. Human beings not only live in their natural environment; they live in a community having its unique socio-cultural aspects**.** The cultural influences vary immensely from one setting to another.

The two factors that make psychology different from exact science are:

1. Cultural influences
2. Social influences

Hence it is difficult to come up with universal laws that would be applicable in all contexts. Furthermore, many issues of psychological interest cannot be studied in laboratory set up under artificially controlled conditions. Considering all these, psychology can best be described as a social science, devoted to the scientific study of behaviors, experiences, and mental processes.

SUBJECT MATTER

Subject matter of psychology includes:

1. Behaviour
2. Thoughts
3. Emotions
4. Experiences
5. Mental processes

PSYCHOLOGY IN INDIA

Psychology as an academic discipline made a new beginning in India in the first decade of this century. Review of research shows that Western theories and concepts still constitute the core of research and teaching programmes in most of the Indian universities. This chapter argues that Indian psychologists live in two parallel worlds: one of west-oriented academic psychology to advance professional growth; and another of less formalized scholarship to satisfy their creative urges. As a result, academic psychology did not get enriched from diverse expertise and life-experiences of Indian psychologists. Though psychology has traversed a long distance in India, lack of direction has cast doubts about the application of psychology in the context of a rapidly

changing socio-economic scenario. Psychology in India has remained dissociated from its own vast storehouse of knowledge inherent in the Indian philosophical texts. These scriptures and texts provide immense possibilities of developing psychological theories of self and human development. At the turn of the Millennium, psychology in India is returning to its roots and a new beginning seems to be in the offing.

For almost a century, academic psychology in India has continued to be an alien discipline. In the beginning of the last Century, psychology was imported lock-stock-barrel from the West and was first implanted in 1916 in Calcutta University. The Western model of research and teaching provided the basis on which Indian research grew for a long period. For Indian psychologists trained in the western traditions, it has been a long journey to turn towards their own heritage and take Indian concepts and theories germane to understanding Indian social reality. Indeed, in this long history, concerns have been voiced from time to time to align psychology with contemporary social issues, so as to meet the challenges of rapid socio-economic and global changes. Looking back, one gets an impression that psychology in India has come a long way to find its roots in its own native wisdom, though it still has to cover much ground to become a science of Indian origin.

Throughout its existence as an alien implant, psychology has been struggling to ground itself in the Indian soil and adapt to local conditions. Over the years this implant has grown, with branches spreading all over the country. However, it has not borne fruits as expected and has largely remained a sterile academic pursuit, as far as the real issues of national development are concerned. The non-visibility of psychologists in various national forums gives rise to serious concerns about its relevance and future. What kind of psychology we aspire to have in the 21st century is contingent on a better understanding of the present state-of-the-art. This section aims to examine the status of psychology in India as a scientific discipline, identifying the factors responsible for its retarded growth. This section also discusses the parallel movement now underway to rediscover the knowledge rooted in scriptures and folk practices, and explores its relevance in the present times.

Three sets of arguments are put forward to explain the retarded growth of academic psychology in India. One, which is more charitable, is the lack of a supportive intellectual climate. In a country where a vast population lives in a condition of subhuman poverty, and decisions about social developmental programmes are politically motivated, any scholarly pursuit is considered peripheral. The academic institutions plagued by a rising student population, political manipulations and lack of funds have gradually become non-performers. There is no premium placed on excellence in teaching and research. Adair, Pandey, Begam, Puhan, and Vora (1995) conducted a study on 64 Indian psychologists through a mailed questionnaire. The survey revealed three major impediments to research productivity: (a) lack of supportive intellectual climate, (b) poor professional support, and (c) inadequate research funding. Ostensibly, the lack of an academic culture and a non-supportive socio-political environment are greatly responsible for the prevailing state of affairs. It does explain the overall decline in the academic standards in the country. It, however, throws no light on 'why is psychology in India lagging behind other sisterly disciplines, such as sociology, anthropology and economics?' It brings forth the second line of argument that there are some inherent limitations in psychology as a scientific discipline. Its excessive conformity to empiricist-positivist methodologies and confining to micro-level problems have restricted the scope of its psycho-social inquiry. This methodological approach is insufficient to take up more applied macro-level problems (Dalal, in press). The restricted boundaries of the discipline obviate the need to work in applied settings, or to work with governmental or non-governmental agencies.

The third set of arguments focus on the personal and professional background of Indian psychologists. Psychologists in the first half of this Century were a product of the colonial domination of the Indian society, greatly influenced by Western scholarly traditions. The first generation psychologists after India's Independence were predominantly converts from the philosophy background. This combined with their elitist-urban background; fewer job openings and self-serving research orientation gave Indian psychologists an identity distinct from those who belonged to other sister disciplines. This chapter examines the progress of psychology in India against the backdrop of these arguments. It endeavours to explore the possibilities of psychology becoming a more vibrant science, accepting the challenges of a rapidly changing Indian society. We need a psychology which is a positive discipline conducive to self-growth and social harmony.

Indian psychology has come a long way in the hundred years of its existence. Today, there are large number of teaching and research institutions offering wide range of courses in psychology. It is not known how many colleges and universities offer psychology courses and how many psychologists are professionally active. There are no data which official agencies, like the University Grants Commission, Indian Council of Social Science Research, or Department of Science and Technology can furnish. One estimate (A. K. Jain, 2005) suggests that there are more than 15000 psychologists in India. In any case, India has the largest number of psychologists outside the Western block, and is considered a 'publication giant' among all developing countries (Gilgin & Gilgin, 1987). This rapid expansion of the discipline has aroused many hopes and expectations about its possible contribution to the success of nation-building projects. The problems of poverty, illiteracy, urban decay and disease control cannot be handled on the basis of sound economic planning only, but also require changes in the attitudes and beliefs of people, and their motivations for collective action. This calls for a realistic appraisal of the impediments which psychology in India is currently experiencing. Psychology needs to break its present disciplinary shackles to join hands with other social sciences. Currently, much soul-searching is going on within the discipline and it is realized that psychology in India needs to be rooted in its own history and heritage.

METHODS OF PSYCHOLOGY

EXPERIMENT

Lab Experiment

- This type of experiment is conducted in a well-controlled environment – not necessarily a laboratory – and therefore accurate and objective measurements are possible.

- The researcher decides where the experiment will take place, at what time, with which participants, in what circumstances and using a standardized procedure.

Field Experiment

- These are conducted in the everyday (i.e. natural) environment of the participants but the situations are still artificially set up.

- The experimenter still manipulates the IV, but in a real-life setting (so cannot really control extraneous variables.)

Case Study

Correlation

- Correlation means association - more precisely it is a measure of the extent to which two variables are related.
- If an increase in one variable tends to be associated with an increase in the other then this is known as a positive correlation.
- If an increase in one variable tends to be associated with a decrease in the other then this is known as a negative correlation.
- A zero correlation occurs when there is no relationship between variables.

Unstructured (informal) interviews are like a casual conversation. There are no set questions and the participant is given the opportunity to raise whatever topics he/she feels are relevant and ask them in their own way. In this kind of interview much qualitative data is likely to be collected.

Structured (formal) interviews are like a job interview. There is a fixed, predetermined set of questions that are put to every participant in the same order and in the same way. The interviewer stays within their role and maintains social distance from the interviewee.

Questionnaires

- Questionnaires can be thought of as a kind of written interview. They can be carried out face to face, by telephone or post.

- The questions asked can be open ended, allowing flexibility in the respondent's answers, or they can be more tightly structured requiring short answers or a choice of answers from given alternatives.

- The choice of questions is important because of the need to avoid bias or ambiguity in the questions, 'leading' the respondent, or causing offence

Observations

- Covert observations are when the researcher pretends to be an ordinary member of the group and observes in secret. There could be ethical problems or deception and consent with this particular method of observation.

- Overt observations are when the researcher tells the group he or she is conducting research (i.e. they know they are being observed).

- Natural: Here spontaneous behaviour is recorded in a natural setting.

- Controlled: behaviour is observed under controlled laboratory conditions (e.g. Bandura Bobo doll).

- Participant: Here the observer has direct contact with the group of people they are observing.

- Non-participant (aka "fly on the wall): The researcher does not have direct contact with the people being observed.

Content Analysis

- Content analysis is a research tool used to indirectly observe the presence of certain words, images or concepts within the media (e.g. advertisements, books films etc.). For example, content analysis could be used to study sex-role stereotyping.

- Researchers quantify (i.e. count) and analyze (i.e. examine) the presence, meanings and relationships of words and concepts, then make inferences about the messages within the media, the writer(s), the audience, and even the culture and time of which these are a part.

- To conduct a content analysis on any such media, the media is coded or broken down, into manageable categories on a variety of levels - word, word sense, phrase, sentence, or theme - and then examined.

Pilot Study

- A pilot study is an initial run-through of the procedures to be used in an investigation; it involves selecting a few people and trying out the study on them. It is possible to save time, and in some cases, money, by identifying any flaws in the procedures designed by the researcher.

- A pilot study can help the researcher spot any ambiguities (i.e. unusual things) or confusion in the information given to participants or problems with the task devised.

- Sometimes the task is too hard, and the researcher may get a floor effect, because none of the participants can score at all or can complete the task – all performances are low. The opposite effect is a ceiling effect, when the task is so easy that all achieve virtually full marks or top performances and are "hitting the ceiling".

Survey method

A field of applied statistics, **survey methodology** studies the sampling of individual units from a population and the associated survey data collection techniques, such as questionnaire construction and methods for improving the number and accuracy of responses to surveys.

Statistical surveys are undertaken with a view towards making statistical inferences about the population being studied, and this depends strongly on the survey questions used. Polls about public opinion, public health surveys, market research surveys, government surveys and censuses are all examples of quantitative research that use contemporary survey methodology to answer questions about a population.

The Experimental Method

This method is considered as the basis of all scientific research.

It usually begins with a statement of the hypothesis.

It consists of at least 2 variables, as follows:

- Independent Variable – stimulus (cause);

- Dependent Variable – response (effect).

Other variables that could affect the independent variable are factors known as extraneous variables.

Experimental versus Control Group

Experimental Group - the group in which the condition under study is present.

Eg: The group that gets little amount of sleep.

Control Group - the group in which the condition is not present.

Eg: The group that gets sufficient amount of sleep.

Correlation Study

This research methodology determines the direction of the variables. It is not concerned with causal relationships at all. There are 2 kinds: 1) Positive or Direct; 2) Negative or Indirect or Inverse.

Direct – as one variable increases, the other also increases, and vice-versa.

Indirect – as one variable increases, the other variable decreases or as one variable decreases, the other increases.

The farther the correlation coefficient from zero, the stronger the relationship between the two variables; the closer to zero (whether positive or negative), the weaker the relationship.

BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY

Research psychology

- ◉ Abnormal psychology

- ◉ Biological psychology

⦿ Cognitive psychology

⦿ Comparative psychology

⦿ Developmental psychology

⦿ Personality psychology

⦿ Quantitative psychology

⦿ Social psychology

Applied psychology

⦿ Clinical psychology

⦿ Counseling psychology

⦿ Educational psychology

⦿ Psychology and Law

⦿ Health psychology

⦿ Human factors psychology

⦿ Industrial and organizational psychology

⦿ School psychology

⦿ **Abnormal psychology**

Abnormal psychology is the study of abnormal behavior in order to describe, predict, explain, and change abnormal patterns of functioning. Abnormal psychology studies the nature of **psychopathology** and its causes, and this knowledge is applied in clinical psychology to treating patients with psychological disorders.

⦿ **Biological psychology**

Biological psychology is the scientific study of the biological bases of behavior and mental states. Because all behavior is controlled by the central nervous system, it is sensible to study how the brain functions in order to understand behavior.

This is the approach taken in behavioral neuroscience, cognitive neuroscience, and neuropsychology.

◉ **Cognitive psychology**

The nature of thought is another core interest in psychology. Cognitive psychology studies cognition, the mental processes underlying behavior. It uses information processing as a framework for understanding the mind. Perception, learning, problem solving, memory, attention, language and emotion are all well researched areas.

◉ **Comparative psychology**

Comparative psychology refers to the study of the behavior and mental life of animals other than human beings.

◉ **Development psychology**

Mainly focusing on the development of the human mind through the life span, developmental psychology seeks to understand how people come to perceive, understand, and act within the world and how these processes change as they age

◉ Personality psychology

Personality psychology studies enduring psychological patterns of behavior, thought and emotion, commonly called an individual's personality.

extraversion—introversion

neuroticism—emotional stability

psychoticism.

◉ Quantitative psychology

Quantitative psychology involves the application of statistical analysis to psychological research, and the development of novel statistical approaches for measuring and explaining human behavior. And it is loosely comprised of the subfields psychometrics and mathematical psychology.

◉ Social psychology

Social psychology is the study of the nature and causes of human social behavior, with an emphasis on how people think towards each other and how they relate to each other.

⦿ Clinical psychology

Clinical psychology is the application of psychological science and research to the understanding, treatment, and assessment of health problems, particularly emotional, behavioral and mental health problems. It has traditionally been associated with psychological treatment and psychotherapy.

The work performed by clinical psychologists tends to be done inside various therapy models. A popular model is the Cognitive-Behavioral therapy (CBT) framework. One of the most famous CBT therapies is cognitive therapy.

※Cognitive therapy

focused on depression and developed a list of "errors" in thinking that he proposed could cause or maintain depression, including arbitrary inference, selective abstraction, over-generalization, and magnification (of negatives) and minimization (of positives). Cognitive therapy seeks to identify and change "distorted" or "unrealistic" ways of thinking, and therefore to influence emotion and behavior.

⦿ Counseling psychology

Counseling psychology differs from clinical psychology in that it is focused more on normal developmental issues and everyday stress rather than psychopathology. Counseling psychologists are employed in a variety of settings, including universities, hospitals, schools, governmental organizations, businesses, private practice, and community mental health centers

⦿ Educational psychology

Educational psychology is the study of how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching.

⦿ Psychology and law

Together, **Forensic** psychology and Legal Psychology compose the area known as Psychology and Law.

※Forensic psychology

Forensic psychology is the application of psychological principles and knowledge to various legal activities. Typical issues include child custody disputes, child abuse or neglect, assessing personal capacity to manage one's affairs, matters of competency to stand trial, criminal responsibility, personal injury, and advising judges in matters relating to sentencing regarding various mitigants and the actuarial assessment of future risk.

⦿ Health psychology

Health psychology is the application of psychological theory and research to health, illness and health care. Health psychology is concerned with the psychology of a much wider range of health-related behavior including healthy eating, the doctor-patient relationship, a patient's understanding of health information, and beliefs about illness.

⦿ Human factors psychology

Human factors psychology is the study of how cognitive and psychological processes affect our interaction with tools and objects in the environment.

⦿ Industrial and organizational psychology

Industrial and organizational psychology (I/O) is among the newest fields in psychology. Industrial Psychology focuses on improving, evaluating, and predicting job performance while Organizational Psychology focuses on how organizations impact and interact with individuals.

⦿ School psychology

School psychology is the area of discipline that is dedicated to helping young people succeed academically, socially, and emotionally. School psychologists collaborate with educators, parents, and other professionals to create safe, healthy, and supportive learning environments for all students that strengthen connections between home and school.

APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Whereas basic researchers test theories about mind and behavior, applied psychologists are motivated by a desire to solve practical human problems. Four particularly active areas of application are health, education, business, and law.

A HEALTH

Today, many psychologists work in the emerging area of health psychology, the application of psychology to the promotion of physical health and the prevention and treatment of illness. Researchers in this area have shown that human health and well-being depends on both biological and psychological factors.

Many psychologists in this area study psycho physiological disorders (also called psychosomatic disorders), conditions that are brought on or influenced by psychological states, most often stress. These disorders include high blood pressure, headaches, asthma, and ulcers (see Stress-Related Disorders). Researchers have discovered that chronic stress is associated with an increased risk of coronary heart disease. In addition, stress can compromise the body's immune system and increase susceptibility to illness.

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Many psychologists today work in the legal system. They consult with attorneys, testify in court as expert witnesses, counsel prisoners, teach in law schools, and research various justice-related issues. Sometimes referred to as forensic psychologists, those who apply psychology to the law study a range of issues, including jury selection, eyewitness testimony, confessions to police, lie-detector tests, the death penalty, criminal profiling, and the insanity defence.

Studies in forensic psychology have helped to illuminate weaknesses in the legal system. For example, based on trial-simulation experiments, researchers have found that jurors are often biased by various facts not in evidence—that is, facts the judge tells them to disregard. In studying eyewitness testimony, researchers have staged mock crimes and asked witnesses to identify the assailant or recall other details. These studies have revealed that under certain conditions eyewitnesses are highly prone to error.

Psychologists in this area often testify in court as expert witnesses. In cases involving the insanity defense, forensic clinical psychologists are often called to court to give their opinion about whether individual defendants are sane or insane. Used as a legal defense, insanity means that defendants, because of a mental disorder, cannot appreciate the wrongfulness of their conduct or control it (see Insanity). Defendants who are legally insane at the time of the offense may be absolved of criminal responsibility for their conduct and judged not guilty. Psychologists are often called to testify in court on other controversial matters as well, including the accuracy of eyewitness testimony, the mental competence (fitness) of defendants to stand trial, and the reliability of early childhood memories.

E   Other Domains of Application

Psychology has applications in many other domains of human life. Environmental psychologists focus on the relationship between people and their physical surroundings. They study how street noise, heat, architectural design, population density, and crowding affect people's behavior and mental health. In a related field, human factors psychologists work on the design of appliances, furniture, tools, and other manufactured items in order to maximize their comfort, safety, and convenience. Sports psychologists advise athletes and study the physiological, perceptual-motor, motivational, developmental, and social aspects of athletic performance.

Nature of Work Psychology

1. Branch of applied psychology

2. Scientific Study

   Work psychology is a scientific study of behaviours, emotions and thoughts of employees working in an organisation.

3. Multi disciplinary

   Work psychology encompasses various disciplines. It uses the theories and principles of various disciplines to analyse, explain, predict and control

employee behaviour. Human resource management, organisational behaviour, sociology, natural sciences are used in work psychology.

4. Applies psychological theories to analyse business problems

    Work psychology provides solutions to many business problems with the help of research done in psychology. The conclusions nad findings in the research provide optimal solutions to the routine and non routine issues in organisations.

5. Helps to improves efficiency and effectiveness of business organisations

6. Increases employee morale through psychological research

7. Improves productivity and competencies of employees

THE WORLD OF WORK AND ORGANISATIONS

Under this topic, we will study how work is carried on in organisations and how employes are explains the work culture of organisation.

A system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations. This system of shared meaning is a set of key characteristics that the organization value.

Primary Characteristics:

1. Innovation and risk taking

2. Attention to detail

3. Outcome orientation

4. People orientation

5. Team orientation

6. Aggressiveness

7. Stability

What do cultures do?

1. It has a boundary-defining role which creates distinctions between one organization and others;

2. It conveys a sense of identity for organization members;

3. Culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one's individual self-interest;

4. 4. It enhances the stability of the social system by providing appropriate standards for what employees should say and do; and

5. 5. Culture serves as a sense-making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviors of employees.

4. Creating and Sustaining Culture

The Founders – the ultimate source of an organization's culture

Selection Process – the explicit goal of identifying and hiring individuals who have the knowledge, skills and abilities to perform jobs within the organization successfully

Top Management – The actions of top management play a major role on the organization's culture by establishing norms that filter down through the organization.

Socialization – The process that adapts employees to the organization's culture

3-Stage Process of Socialization:

1. Pre arrival stage – the period of learning in the socialization process that occurs before a new employee joins the organization;

2. Encounter stage – the stage in the socialization process in which a new employee sees what the organization is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge; and

3. Metamorphosis stage – the stage in the socialization process in which a new employee changes and adjusts to the job, work group, and organization.

5. How Employees Learn Culture

1. Stories – a narrative of events about the organization's founders, rags-to-riches successes, etc. that anchor the present in the past and provide explanations and legitimacy for current practices.

2. Rituals – repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organization, which goals are most important, and which are expendable.

3. Language – organizations use language as a way to identify members of a culture or subculture who will attest to their acceptance of the culture and, in so doing, help to preserve it.

6. Creating an Ethical Organizational Culture

- Be a visible role model.

- Communicate ethical expectations.

- Provide ethical training.

- Visibly reward ethical acts and punish unethical ones.

- Provide protective mechanisms.

7. Creating a Positive Organizational Culture

A *positive organizational culture* is a culture that emphasize building on employee strengths, rewards more than it punishes, and emphasizes individual vitality and growth.

Areas for consideration:

1. Building on employee strengths;

2. Rewarding more than punishing;

3. Emphasizing vitality and growth; and

4. Limits of positive culture.

8. Global Implications

In a global context, organizational cultures are so powerful that they often transcend national boundaries. National cultures differ that explains why organizational cultures often reflect national cultures. Global cultural values (collectivism-individualism, power distance, etc.) likewise affect organizational culture.

Conclusion

As a manager, we can shape the culture of our work environment by doing our part to create an ethical, spiritual and positive organizational culture. Often, we can do as much to shape our organizational culture as the culture of the organization shape us. Changing an organization's culture is a long and difficult process wherein managers should treat their organization's culture as relatively fixed.

Emerging Issues in occupational psychology

From its inception, occupational psychology (or what was then termed indus- trial psychology) was mainly about the study of individual differences (shimmin and wallis, 1994). The emphasis was on investigating and explaining attributes that relate to performance at work, such as a person's ability, skills, traits and personality. The concept of individual difference is what underpins work in selection, assessment and vocational guidance since the individual is focused on as the main unit of analysis. Despite the fact that initial research conducted by the ihrb and the niip explored the influence that working conditions had on people at work (with such observations leading researchers to adopt more social psychological perspectives), students in the 1940s were trained to be scientists and thus approached the study of human behaviour using a positivist, classic, scientific paradigm (shimmin and wallis1994). The methodology in occupational psychology therefore emulated the natural sciences, which aimed to describe and explain various phenomena in a way that would allow generalisations to be made. this assumes well-defined problems, the ability to control variables and measurements, all with objectivity and scientific detachment. further work on individual differences was later expanded through the development and refinement of factor analytic models of personality during the 1950s.

Thus for the most part, the formulation of solutions in occupational psychology were for a while focused on the individual as the unit of analysis, based on an individual's performance, but measured in isolation from their working environment. Increasingly, from the early 1960s, the potential limitations of the view of scientific detachment and objectivity were more widely recognised. There was an influx of ideas from social psychology and interventionist approaches began to come into prominence (such as action research [lewin, 1954]). So, there has been a shift of approach in occupational psychology during the 20th century: from a focus on the individual in his or her job role where the employing organisation was taken as given, to an approach that accounts for the organisation as a whole and considers the wider social, economic and political environment in which it functions. Some of these changes are reflected in the ways in which the work environment has changed over this time.

We now turn to a brief overview of some of the key changes that have taken place in the workplace and consider some of the research and practice in occupational psychology that has taken place as a result of these changes.

1. Key changes to the work environment

There have been a number of significant changes to the work environment in the past few decades and these have significantly influenced the context in which people work. Changes such as the increasing globalisation of business, the internet revolution and the rapid pace of change have impacted the way in which individuals work (cascio and aguinis, 2008). Organisations may be increasingly relying on team working and contract workers, while rapidly changing work roles require flexibility, adaptability and innovation (herriot and anderson, 1997). The following sections outline some of the key ways in which the work environment has changed.

2.Technology

Over the preceding hundred years or so there have been significant and rapid changes in technology. Sparked by new technologies and, in particular, the internet, organisations have undergone far-reaching transformations (cascio and aguinis, 2008). This has led to considerable changes in job content, with very few roles untouched by electronic technologies (patterson, 2001). Across different industries and sectors some job roles have increased in complexity while for oth- ers the result has been a redundancy of some skills. For example, in manufacturing firms machines and robots have replaced jobs that may previously have been done by humans; this can lead to employees becoming equipment monitors rather than technical experts (patterson, 2001).

Millions of workers use computers every day along with other aspects of the digital age – email, mobile phones, the internet and so on. This is enhancing the opportunity to share vast amounts of digital information and to gain access to this information from anywhere at any time. As the use of technology has increased, so has the occurrence of telecommuting (where individuals can work from home via a computer and the internet, rather than being physically present in an office [gajendran and harrison, 2007]), or the creation of 'virtual' teams of people or offices. It has been pointed out by cascio and aguinis that the increasing use of remote access and mobile technology to work 'on-the-go' or at home means that.

3.CHANGING WORKPLACES

With the birth of new technologies there has been an increasing change in patterns of working, including the possibility of job sharing and flexible working (patterson, 2001). Along with this, there has been an erosion of the working week: many employees are expected to continuously monitor and respond to email via mobile devices, which may lead to an inability to disengage from work.

Furthermore, since the 1980s, organisations have sought to reduce employee numbers, increasingly relying on outsourcing contracts and/or relying on tempo- rary or semi- permanent staff. While this might reduce employment and staffing costs within organisations, there may be less tangible losses, such as reduced organisational commitment and job satisfaction (rousseau, 2001). The number of people in self-employment has also increased significantly, and the concept of the portfolio worker has emerged, where an individual often works for more than one company at a time on specific projects. This is known as the 'portfolio approach' (bradley et al., 2000).

Generally, working hours have increased in most occupations (sparks et al.,2001). this is often due to employer demands for greater flexibility of work schedules to cover extending opening hours. this has resulted in longer working hours for most employees and the decay of the working week. Being able to effectively manage work and non-work demands can significantly influence employees' health and performance. All these changes in the patterns of working have resulted in an increased interest in the possible physical and psychological effects of working anti-social hours and shift-working patterns. Within the last decade in particular there has been an explosion in work–life balance research (brough and o' driscoll, 2010). Indeed, research suggests that extended working hours actually have a negative effect on employees in terms of fatigue and reduced performance (poissonnet and veron, 2000).

4.**Alteration of labour force and globalisation**

The labour force today looks dramatically different to how it did just a few decades ago. There have been considerable demographic changes in the workforce, with a significant increase in the numbers of women, ethnic minority groups and older workers. These changes have resulted in research and action by psychologists relating to the implementation of equality legislation and issues faced by workers (often women) in relation to combining work

and home responsibilities. Since the economic reforms in 1991, there have been dynamic differences in the organisational working patterns and conditions.

Increasing globalisation has led to growing unification of the world's economies by reducing barriers, such as international trade tariffs and export fees. In organisations, this has generally resulted in an increase in material wealth, goods and services through international divisions of labour. As the world of work brings together many different cultures and nationalities, it has been important for occupational psychologists to examine how this might impact the work environment.

5. Changes to organisational structure

Recent years have witnessed some significant changes in organisational structures. On the one hand, there has been a focus, since the 1980s, on downsizing and de-layering in organisations, with redundancies on a large scale; while on the other hand some organisations have become much more complex due to mergers and acquisitions.

Employer 's demands have changed: they generally emphasise employee flexibility, adaptability and innovation (patterson, 2002) since those are the employees that embrace change and are more likely to flourish in today's turbulent organisations. Consideration of the employee–employer relationship, encompassing employer demands and employee choice, has generated substantial research focusing on the psychological contract. The notion of corporate commitment has to some extent been redefined to one in which maintaining the intellectual capital of an organisation, that is the knowledge, experience and ideas of employees (wilkinson et al., 2001) or 'corporate memory', relies on employee commitment and satisfaction.

UNIT II

PERSONALITY

The sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others.

Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behavior toward goal achievement

PERSONALITY -a relatively stable set of characteristics that influences an individual's behavior

> The overall profile or combination of characteristics that capture the unique nature of a person as that person reacts and interacts with others.

>> combines a set of physical and mental characteristics that reflect how a person looks, thinks, acts, and feels.

>> Predictable relationships are expected between people's personalities and their behaviors.

NATURE OF PERSONALITY

> Personality refers to the set of traits & behaviors that

characterize an individual.

> it refers to the relatively stable pattern of behavior &

consistent internal state & explains an individual's

behavioral tendencies.

> personality has both internal (thoughts, values & genetic

characteristics that is inferred from observable behaviors)

& external (observable behaviors) elements.

> personality of an individual is relatively stable in nature.

> personality is both inherited as well as it can be shaped

by the environment.

IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY

> LAW OF BEHAVIOR: "PEOPLE ARE DIFFERENT"

> TO ENSURE HIGH PERFORMING EMPLOYEES IN AN

ORGANIZATION.

➢ TO MANAGE WORKFORCE DIVERSITY.

➢ Summarizing person's behaviors & attitudes in

relation to a wide range of events.

➢ personality consists of characteristics or traits that

describe how people are likely to behave in a given

situation.

➢ Personality is useful in predicting & understanding

the general feelings, thoughts and behaviors of

individuals at the workplace.

PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS

- Heredity

- Environment

- Situation

- culture

- family and social background

HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

➢ Heredity sets the limits on the development of personality characteristics.

➢ environment determines development within these limits.

➢ about a 50-50 heredity-environment split.

➢ cultural values and norms play a substantial role in the development of personality.

> ➤ social factors include family life, religion, and many kinds of formal and informal groups.

> ➤ situational factors reflect the opportunities or constraints imposed by the operational context.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

> ➤ ENDURING CHARACTERISTICS THAT DESCRIBE AN INDIVIDUAL'S BEHAVIOR.

PERSONALITY TYPES

THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR

- EXTROVERTED VS. INTROVERTED (E OR I)

- SENSING VS. INTUITIVE (S OR N)

- THINKING VS. FEELING (T OR F)

- JUDGING VS. PERCEIVING (P OR J)

EXTROVERTED VS. INTROVERTED

Extroverted individuals are outgoing, sociable, and assertive. Introverts are quiet and shy.

 SENSITIVE VS. INTUITIVE

Sensing types are practical and prefer routine and order. They focus on details. Intuitive rely on unconscious processes and look at the "big picture".

THINKING VS. FEELING

Thinking types uses reason and logic to handle problems. Feelings types rely on their personal values and emotions.

JUDGING VS. PERCEIVING

Judging types   want control, and prefer   their world to be ordered and structured. Perceiving types are flexible and spontaneous

- MYERS-BRIGGS SIXTEEN PRIMARY TRAITS

1.	Reserved	vs.	Outgoing
2.	Less intelligent	vs.	More intelligent
3.	Affected by feelings	vs.	Emotionally stable
4.	Submissive	vs.	Dominant
5.	Serious	vs.	Happy-go-lucky
6.	Expedient	vs.	Conscientious
7.	Timid	vs.	Venturesome
8.	Tough-minded	vs.	Sensitive
9.	Trusting	vs.	Suspicious
10.	Practical	vs.	Imaginative
11.	Forthright	vs.	Shrewd
12.	Self-assured	vs.	Apprehensive
13.	Conservative	vs.	Experimenting
14.	Group dependent	vs.	Self-sufficient
15.	Uncontrolled	vs.	Controlled
16.	Relaxed	vs.	Tense

THE BIG FIVE MODEL

Extroversion: a personality dimension describing someone who is sociable, gregarious and assertive.

Agreeableness: a personality dimension that describes someone who is good natured, cooperative and trusting

Conscientiousness: a personality dimension that describes someone who is responsible, dependable, persistent and organized.

Openness to experience: a personality dimension that characterizes someone in terms of imaginativeness, artistic, sensitivity, and intellectualism.

Emotional stability: a personality dimension that characterizes someone as calm, self-confident, secure (positive) versus nervous, depressed, and insecure (negative).

TYPE A PERSONALITY

1. Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly;

2. Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place;

3. Strive to think or do two or more things at once;

4. Cannot cope with leisure time;

5. Are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how many or how much of everything they acquire.

TYPE B PERSONALITY

1. Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience;

2. Feel no need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments;

3. Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost;

4. Can relax without guilt.

INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence has been defined in many different ways such as in terms of one's capacity for logic, abstract   thought, understanding, self-awareness, communication, learning,emotional
knowledge, memory, planning, creativity and problem solving. It can also be more generally described as the ability to perceive and/or retain knowledge or information and apply it to itself or other instances of knowledge or information creating referable understanding models of any size, density, or complexity, due to any conscious or subconscious imposed will or instruction to do so.

- ☐ Psychologists hold divergent views on what intelligence is, how it develops, its relevance with human life achievement and how best to measure it.

- ☐ Binet & simon(1905):considered the essence of intelligence as; to judge well, to comprehend well and to reason well.

- ☐ Terman(1916):described intelligence as" the ability to carry out abstract thinking"

- ☐ Haggerty :believed intelligence is the ability to deal with novelty.

- ☐ Garret :thought of intelligence as capacity to utilize symbols.

- ☐ Thurstone(1938): viewed intelligence as consisting of seven primary mental abilities; verbal comprehension, verbal fluency, number, spatial visualization, memory, reasoning and perceptual speed.

- ☐ To coordinate all the views, one may rely on the definition given by david wechsler(1977);

- ☐ The global capacity to think rationally, act purposefully, and deal effectively with the environment. Its mean for wechsler intelligence is an effective, rational & goal directed behavior.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The ability to express and control our own emotions is important, but so is our ability to understand, interpret, and respond to the emotions of others. Imagine a world where you couldn't understand when a friend was feeling sad or when a co-worker was angry. Psychologists refer to this ability as emotional intelligence, and some experts even suggest that it can be more important than IQ. Learn more about exactly what emotional intelligence is, how it works, and how it is measured.

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an inborn characteristic.

Since 1990, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer have been the leading researchers on emotional intelligence. In their influential article "Emotional Intelligence," they defined emotional intelligence as, "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (1990).

The Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion and the ability to manage emotions.

1. **Perceiving Emotions:** The first step in understanding emotions is to accurately perceive them. In many cases, this might involve understanding nonverbal signals such as body language and facial expressions.

2. **Reasoning With Emotions:** The next step involves using emotions to promote thinking and cognitive activity. Emotions help prioritize what we pay attention and react to; we respond emotionally to things that garner our attention.

3. **Understanding Emotions:** The emotions that we perceive can carry a wide variety of meanings. If someone is expressing angry emotions, the observer must interpret the cause of their anger and what it might mean. For example, if your boss is acting angry, it might mean that he is dissatisfied with your work; or it could be because he got a speeding ticket on his way to work that morning or that he's been fighting with his wife.

4. **Managing Emotions:** The ability to manage emotions effectively is a key part of emotional intelligence. Regulating emotions, responding appropriately and responding to the emotions of others are all important aspect of emotional management.

Fundamentals of Emotional Intelligence

#1 Self Awareness-being with what is happening rather than being lost in it

#2 Handling Emotions-owning appropriate emotions, feeling that is proportional to circumstance, managing moods

#3 Self-motivation-putting off gratification, regulating our moods so that they facilitate rather than impede thinking, motivating ourselves to try and try again in the face of setbacks, finding ways to enter a "flow" state and so perform more effectively

#4 Empathy- the ability to sense how someone else feels (90% of an emotional message is non-verbal)

#5 Social Skills-the art of relationships - people skills (listening skills, assertion skills, conflict resolution skills, collaborative problem-solving skills) using cooperative learning structures like think/pair/share gives opportunity for active listening, conflict resolution, etc.

Self-Awareness- Know your own mood and how you feel about it

Know your own emotional strengths and weaknesses

Know words (signs) for your feelings

Know what action options you have (what you can do about your feelings)

Handling Emotions

Know how to handle upset feelings

Know how to calm yourself

Know how to control impulses

Know how to stay positive under pressure

Know how to be flexible

Motivation

Able to set your own goals and work to achieve those goals

Able to set small steps to achieve large goals

Able to continue to work despite frustration (perseverance)

Able to follow through and finish tasks (persistence)

Empathy

Able to read and understand other people's feelings

Able to read body language

Able to take another's perspective

Want to help others who are hurt or sad.

Social Skills
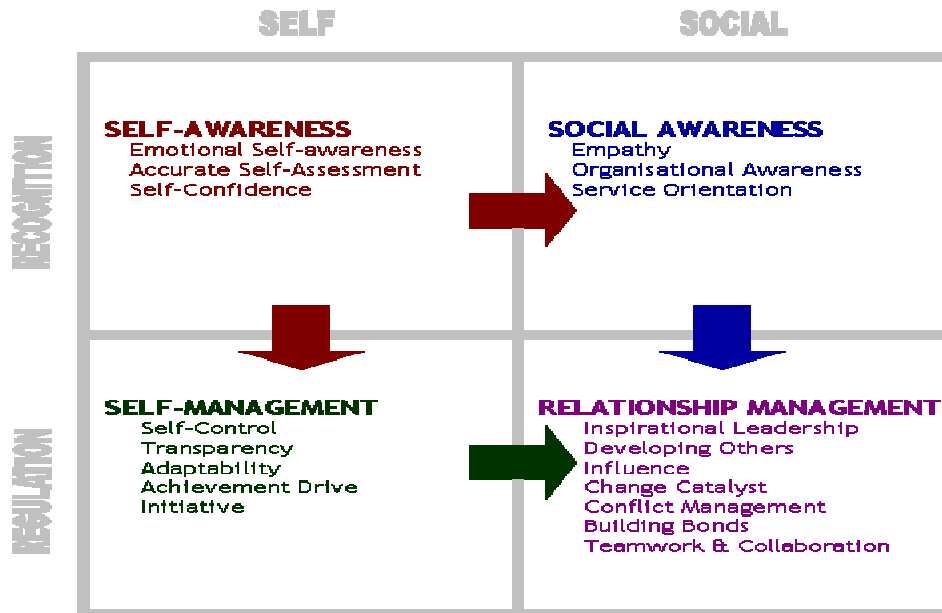
Able to get along with others

Able to work well in groups and teams

Able to make and keep friends

Able to solve problems and conflicts with others

Able to interact appropriately with different people in different situations

Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Model

CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION

CREATIVITY

➤ **Creativity** is a mental process involving the generation of new ideas or concepts, or new associations of the creative mind between existing ideas or concepts.

➤ An alternative conception of creativity is that it is simply the act of making something new.

Need of Creativity

▪ Creativity can be used when confronted with a decision making problem.

▪ People differ in their inherent creativity.

▪ To overcome from routine.

☐ Innovation is about creating value and increasing efficiency, and therefore growing your business.

"Without innovation, new products, new services, and new ways of doing business would never emerge, and most organizations would be forever stuck doing the same old things the same old way.

SOURCES OF NEW IDEAS

Distinguishing between creativity and innovation

☐ **Creativity** is typically used to refer to the [...] producing new ideas, approaches or actions.

☐ **Innovation** is the process of both [gen]erating *and apply* [...] ch creative ideas in some specific context.

☐ In the context of an or[ganizatio]n, therefore, the term *innova*[tion...] ten used to refer to the entire process by which an org[...] generates creative new ideas and converts them into [...] eful and vi[able] commercial [product]s, services, and business practices.

☐ While the term *creativity* is re[served] to apply specific[ally to] the generation of novel ideas by individuals or group[s...] ess[...] wi[thin the in]novation process.

☐ innovation "begins with creative ideas,,,

☐ "...creativity by individuals and teams *is a starting point for innovation*; the first is a necessary *but not sufficient* condition for the second.,,

☐ Alternatively, there <is no real difference between these terms, as creativity is both novel and appropriate <,,(which implies successful application).

☐ It seems that creativity is preferred in art contexts whereas innovation in business ones.
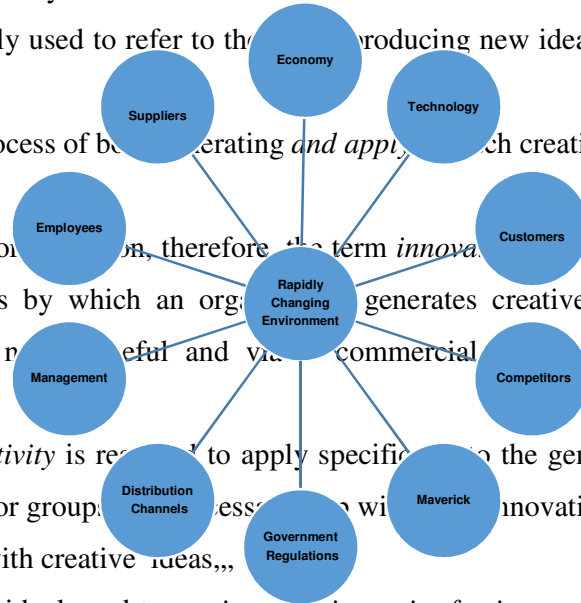
Steps to Personal Creativity

1. Believe in yourself
2. Question traditional assumptions
3. Expand your problem-solving styles
4. Practice thinking in new ways

Obstacles to Work Creativity

❑ ORGANIZATIONAL IMPEDIMENTS such as internal political problems, harsh criticism of new ideas, destructive internal competition, avoidance of risk and overemphasis on the status quo

❑ WORKLOAD PRESSURES such as extreme time pressure, unrealistic expectations, or distractions

PERCEPTION

" The study of perception is concerned with identifying the process through which we interpret and organize sensory information to

 produce our conscious experience of objects and object relationship."

" Perception is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us. It involves deciding which information to notice, how to categorize this information and how to interpret it within the framework of existing knowledge.

" A process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

The Perception Process

The perceptual process is a sequence of steps that begins with stimuli in the environment and ends with our interpretation of that stimulus. This process is typically unconscious and happens hundreds of thousands of times a day. By "unconscious processes", we mean that these things happen without our thinking about them. When you open your eyes, you do not need to tell your brain to interpret the light falling onto your retinas from the object in front of you as "computer", this has happened unconsciously. When you step out into a chilly night, your brain does not need to be told "cold", the stimuli trigger the processes and categories automatically.

Selection

The world around us is filled with an infinite number of stimuli that we might attend to. Depending on the environment, and depending on us as individuals, we might focus on something familiar or something novel. When we attend to one specific thing in our environment, whether it be a smell, a feeling, a sound or something else - it becomes the attended stimulus.

Organization

Once we have (consciously or unconsciously, though usually the latter) chosen to attend to a stimuli in the environment, it sets off a series of reactions in our brain. This neural process starts with our sensory receptors (touch, taste, smell, sight and hearing), and is transmitted to our brains, where we organize the information we receive.

Interpretation

After we have attended to a stimulus, and our brains have received and organized the information, we can then interpret it in a way that makes sense using our existing information about the world. Interpretation simply means that we take the information that we have sense and organized, and turn it into something that we can categorize. For instance, in the Rubin Vase illusion mentioned earlier, some individuals will interpret the sensory information as "vase", and some will interpret it as "faces". However, this happens unconsciously thousands of times a day. By putting different stimuli into categories, we can better understand and react to the world around us.

SOCIAL PERCEPTION

An active process (or set of processes) through which we seek to know and understand others

It is one of the most basic—and important aspects of social life

Social perception is the study of how people form impressions of and make inferences about other people. We learn about other's feelings and emotions by picking up on information we gather from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication.

- We try to understand other person's current feelings, moods and emotions—how they are feeling right now, often provided by **nonverbal cues** involving facial expressions, eye contact, body posture and movements.

We attempt to understand the more lasting causes behind others' behavior—the reasons why they have acted in certain ways—motives, intentions and traits

Elements of social perception

I. Non verbal communication
II. Attribution
III. Impression formation

Non verbal communication

Facial Expressions

- "The face is the image of the soul"
- Human feelings and emotions are often reflected in the face and can be read there in specific expressions.
- There are six different basic emotions on the human face: anger, fear, happiness, sadness, surprise, and disgust.
- Facial expressions reflect individual's underlying emotions.
- Different facial movements are accompanied by changes in physiological activities.
- Studies conducted in many different cultures suggest that human beings all over the world tend to show highly similar facial expressions.

Eye Contact

- "Windows to the soul"
- We do often learn much of about others' feelings from their eyes.
- We interpret a high level of **gazing** from another as a sign of liking or friendliness.

- **Staring**—a form of eye contact in which one person continues to gaze steadily at another regardless of what the recipient does.

Body Language

- Our current moods or emotions are often reflected in the position, posture and movement of our bodies, in which, provide us with useful information about others.
- It often reveals others' emotional states. Large numbers of movements—especially ones in which one part of the body does something to another part, suggest emotional arousal.
- Aronoffs and colleagues' research on ballet dancers: Dancers who played with dangerous, threatening characters would show more diagonal and angular postures, while dancers with warm and sympathetic characters would show rounded postures.
- *Large scale body movements or postures can sometimes provide important information about others' emotions, and even about their apparent traits.*
- Lynn and Mynier's research on body posture and movements (busy restaurants as the setting): In these settings, they arranged for waiters and waitresses, when taking drink orders from customers, either to stand upright or to squat down next to the customers.
- *Lynn and Mynier predicted that squatting down would be interpreted as a sign of friendliness, because in that position the waiter and waitresses would make more eye contact with customers and would be physically closer to them.*

Touching

- The most intimate nonverbal cues.
- Factors to consider in touching: who does the touching; the nature of physical contact; the context in which it takes place.
- Touch can suggest affection, dominance, caring, or even aggression.
- When touching is considered acceptable, positive reactions often result. If it is perceived as a status or power play, or if it is too prolonged or intimate, touching may evoke anxiety, anger, and other negative reactions.

PERCEPTION and ATTITUDE

Attitudes have three main components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The cognitive component concerns one's beliefs; the affective component involves feelings and evaluations; and the behavioral component consists of ways of acting toward the attitude object. The cognitive aspects of attitude are generally measured by surveys, interviews, and other reporting methods, while the affective components are more easily assessed by monitoring physiological signs such as heart rate. Behavior, on the other hand, may be assessed by direct observation.

Behavior does not always conform to a person's feelings and beliefs. Behavior which reflects a given attitude may be suppressed because of a competing attitude, or in deference to the views of others who disagree with it. A classic theory that addresses inconsistencies in behavior and attitudes is Leon Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance, which is based on the principle that people prefer their cognitions, or beliefs, to be consistent with each other and with their own behavior. Inconsistency, or dissonance, among their own ideas makes people uneasy enough to alter these ideas so that they will agree with each other. For example, smokers forced to deal with the opposing thoughts "I smoke" and "smoking is dangerous" are likely to alter one of them by deciding to quit smoking, discount the evidence of its dangers, or adopt the view that smoking will not harm them personally. Test subjects in hundreds of experiments have reduced cognitive dissonance by changing their attitudes. An alternative explanation of attitude change is provided by Daryl Bem's self-perception theory, which asserts that people adjust their attitudes to match their own previous behavior.

Attitudes are formed in different ways. Children acquire many of their attitudes by modeling their parents' attitudes. Classical conditioning using pleasurable stimuli is another method of attitude formation and one widely used by advertisers who pair a product with catchy music, soothing colors, or attractive people. Operant conditioning, which utilizes rewards, is a mode of attitude formation often employed by parents and teachers. Attitudes are also formed through direct experience. It is known, in fact, that the more exposure one has toward a given object, whether it is a song, clothing style, beverage, or politician, the more positive one's attitude is likely to be.

One of the most common types of communication, *persuasion,* is a discourse aimed at changing people's attitudes. Its success depends on several factors. The first of these is the source, or communicator, of a message. To be effective, a communicator must have credibility based on his or her perceived knowledge of the topic, and also be considered

trustworthy. The greater the perceived similarity between communicator and audience, the greater the communicator's effectiveness. This is the principle behind politicians' perennial attempts to portray themselves in a folksy, "down home" manner to their constituency. This practice has come to include distinguishing and distancing themselves from "Washington insiders" who are perceived by the majority of the electorate as being different from themselves.

ATTITUDE TO WORK

Have you ever noticed that the employees with the most positive attitudes in the workplace have the most friends? People want to be around those who make them feel better about themselves. Employees with positive attitudes tend to be more productive employees because they always see the accompanying opportunity with every challenge. Things are seldom as bad as you think they are: Research shows that only eight percent of the things we worry about are worth being concerned about. People with positive work attitudes know this, therefore they do not waste time worrying, and they expend their energies on more positive activities. There are several benefits to having a positive work attitude, and many ways to cultivate a positive work attitude.

Benefits of Having a Positive Work Attitude

- Better for your mental health because you are better able to cope with stressful situations at work
- Ability to inspire and motivate self and others.
- Ability to turn every challenge into an opportunity, or make less than ideal situations into better ones.
- People with positive attitudes are seen as role models and garner more respect.
- Other employees around you will also adopt a positive work attitude making it easier for everyone to get along in the workplace.
- Perceived as a leader and get more special projects to work on.

- You expect positive outcomes and results, and you usually get them, resulting in more success at work.
- Ability to stick to activities and see them through.
- Resilience – ability to bounce back from setbacks.

SOCIAL NORMS

Social Norms are unwritten rules about how to behave. They provide us with an expected idea of how to behave in a particular social group or culture. For example we expect students to arrive to lesson on time and complete their work.

The idea of norms provides a key to understanding social influence in general and conformity in particular. Social norms are the accepted standards of behavior of social groups. These groups range from friendship and work groups to nation states. behavior which fulfills these norms is called conformity, and most of the time roles and norms are powerful ways of understanding and predicting what people will do.

There are norms defining appropriate behavior for every social group. For example, students, neighbors and patients in a hospital are all aware of the norms governing behavior. And as the individual moves from one group to another, their behavior changes accordingly.

Norms provide order in society. It is difficult to see how human society could operate without social norms. Human beings need norms to guide and direct their behavior, to provide order and predictability in social relationships and to make sense of and understanding of each other's actions. These are some of the reasons why most people, most of the time, conform to social norms.

http://www.simplypsychology.org/social-roles.html

How is it that so many people started saying "Awesome!", or started wearing Uggs?

These are examples of how individuals' behavior is shaped by what people around them consider appropriate, correct or desirable. Researchers are investigating how human behavioral norms are established in groups and how they evolve over time, in hopes of learning how to exert more influence when it comes to promoting health, marketing products or reducing prejudice.

Psychologists are studying how social norms, the often-unspoken rules of a group, shape not just our behavior but also our attitudes. Social norms influence even those preferences considered private, such as what music we like or what policies we support. Interventions that take advantage of already-existing group pressures, the thinking goes, should be able to shift attitudes and change behaviors at less cost in effort and resources.

Norms serve a basic human social function, helping us distinguish who is in the group and who is an outsider. Behaving in ways the group considers appropriate is a way of demonstrating to others, and to oneself, that one belongs to the group.

But surprisingly little is known about how attitudinal norms are established in groups. Why do some people in a group become trendsetters when it comes to ideas and objects?

"The questions are among the most challenging" in the field, said H. Peyton Young, a professor at the University of Oxford in the U.K. and at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. Dr. Young studies how norms influence economic behavior. "It's definitely a big open research area where there's a certain amount of dispute."

One question is whether there is always a leader that sets or changes the norm, or whether norm change occurs organically over time, even in the absence of a strong leader.

Researchers have studied how new ideas and innovations—whether the latest fashion, electronic gadget or slang word—are introduced and spread within a group. Individuals who innovate tend to be somewhat isolated from the rest of the group, researchers say. Being too much a part of a group may constrain one's ability to think outside of convention, says Christian Crandall, a professor of social psychology at the University of Kansas, Lawrence, who studies social norms. "There's a freedom to innovate" that comes with isolation, Dr. Crandall says.

Though innovators may be isolated, the group often adopts their innovations because these new ideas or objects are an accessible way for members of the group to bond or signal solidarity. It could be a baseball cap worn backwards, or a pocket square. Each conveys a different identity.

But before others will take up the new idea, someone central to the group, with more connections than the innovator, has to recognize it.

Another major factor is whether the new idea evokes emotion. Jonah Berger, marketing professor at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School, studied what makes ideas "go viral." His team analyzed 7,000 newspaper articles in the New York Times and found the articles considered most popular on the newspaper's website were those that aroused more emotions, particularly happy emotions but also anger or anxiety.

Scientists know group pressure is a powerful influence over health behaviors, including alcohol use, smoking and exercise. By developing a deeper understanding of the dynamics of trend-setters and trend-followers, researchers may discover more behavioral options for promoting health and preventing disease.

The more public an object or behavior is, the more likely it is to spread, Dr. Berger says. The bright-colored bracelets worn to show support for cancer survivors are seen by others, making a private value visible. "Your thoughts are not public, but your behaviors are," Dr. Berger says.

Rarely does any one individual set an entirely new norm for the group. Group leaders, however, help perpetuate or shift the norm. Unlike innovators, leaders tend to be high-status "superconformists," embodying the group's most-typical characteristics or aspirations, says Deborah Prentice, a social psychologist at Princeton University. People inside and outside the group tend to infer the group's norms by examining these leaders' behaviors.

Societal attitudes toward gay Americans largely changed after high-status individuals like Elton John and Elizabeth Taylor spoke out and explicitly established a new norm of acceptance, the University of Kansas' Dr. Crandall says.

But observation of others' behavior can also result in misperceptions of the norm, which in turn can cause the actual norm to shift. Misperceptions are dangerous when it comes to risky behavior. In a series of studies, Dr. Prentice and her team asked student participants, who filled out questionnaires, how much alcohol they drank, and how much they thought a typical student at their college drank. The researchers found students often overestimated how much others drank. The amount students reported drinking was closely related to their beliefs about how much others drank: Students who thought others drank more tended to report drinking more.

Many colleges have tried, with varying success, to correct misperceived drinking norms, for example by using posters to publicize real drinking rates. Similar norms-based approaches have been tried for influencing smoking and eating disorders within groups.

Occasionally, a misperception of societal norms can have a positive effect. Individuals who hold negative opinions about other ethnic groups, for example, may suppress these views if they think the attitudes won't be accepted within their own group. "Suppression becomes reality over time," Dr. Crandall says.

And recent evidence suggests happenstance plays a role in popularizing concepts. Matt Salganik, a Princeton sociologist, wondered why the Harry Potter novels became so popular, considering the original manuscript had been widely rejected before being published. His team created an artificial online market to examine the influences on individual preferences.

In a study published in Science in 2006, participants went to a website and listened to songs, rating and downloading the ones they liked. The 14,000 participants were randomly assigned to different "worlds." Individuals in the "independent" world simply rated and downloaded songs without any input about what others were doing. In the other seven dependent worlds, raters saw which songs other participants downloaded and how they rated them.

The researchers figured if ratings were based solely on each participant's taste, then the best songs would rise to the top and all the worlds would mirror the independent world. But if, as they suspected, participants were influenced by others' ratings, then different songs would be rated highest in each world.

The researchers found vast variation in rankings between different worlds. Often, which song was rated highly simply depended on who the first raters happened to be. In some circumstances, "if you rewound the world and played it again, you could see a potentially different outcome," says Dr. Salganik.

SOCIALISATION

Socialization is the process by which children and adults learn from others. We begin learning from others during the early days of life; and most people continue their social learning all through life (unless some mental or physical disability slows or stops the learning

process). Sometimes the learning is fun, as when we learn a new sport, art or musical technique from a friend we like. At other times, social learning is painful, as when we learn not to drive too fast by receiving a large fine for speeding.

Socialization (also spelled socialisation) is a term used by sociologists, social psychologists, anthropologists, political scientists and educationalists to refer to the lifelong process of inheriting and disseminating norms, customs and ideologies, providing an individual with the skills and habits necessary for participating within his or her own society. Socialization is thus 'the means by which social and cultural continuity are attained'.

Socialization describes a process which may lead to desirable, or 'moral', outcomes in the opinion of said society. Individual views on certain issues, such as race or economics, are influenced by the view of the society at large and become a "normal," and acceptable outlook or value to have within a society

Sociologists generally divide a person's life into five stages: childhood, adolescence, adulthood, old age, and dying. These stages are socially constructed, which means that different societies apply different definitions and assumptions to each stage. For example, in the United States, childhood is a relatively carefree time during which young people expect to have time to play and to receive care from adults. In other societies, income generated by the work children do is very important to the family, and childhood, like other life stages, is a time of work and struggle.

Types

Primary socialization for a child is very important because it sets the ground work for all future socialization. Primary Socialization occurs when a child learns the attitudes, values, and actions appropriate to individuals as members of a particular culture. It is mainly influenced by the immediate family and friends. For example if a child saw his/her mother expressing a discriminatory opinion about a minority group, then that child may think this behavior is acceptable and could continue to have this opinion about minority groups.

Secondary socialization Secondary socialization refers to the process of learning what is the appropriate behavior as a member of a smaller group within the larger society. Basically, it is the behavioral patterns reinforced by socializing agents of society. Secondary socialization takes place outside the home. It is where children and adults learn how to act in a way that is appropriate for the situations they are in. Schools require very different behavior from the

home, and Children must act according to new rules. New teachers have to act in a way that is different from pupils and learn the new rules from people around them. Secondary Socialization is usually associated with teenagers and adults, and involves smaller changes than those occurring in primary socialization. Such examples of Secondary Socialization are entering a new profession or relocating to a new environment or society.

Anticipatory socialization Anticipatory socialization refers to the processes of socialization in which a person "rehearses" for future positions, occupations, and social relationships. For example, a couple might move in together before getting married in order to try out, or anticipate, what living together will be like. Research by Kenneth J. Levine and Cynthia A. Hoffner suggests that parents are the main source of anticipatory socialization in regards to jobs and careers.

Re-socialization Re-socialization refers to the process of discarding former behavior patterns and reflexes, accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle. Re-socialization can be an intense experience, with the individual experiencing a sharp break with his or her past, as well as a need to learn and be exposed to radically different norms and values. One common example involves re-socialization through a total institution, or "a setting in which people are isolated from the rest of society and manipulated by an administrative staff". Re-socialization via total institutions involves a two step process: 1) the staff work to root out a new inmate's individual identity & 2) the staff attempt to create for the inmate a new identity. Other examples of this are the experience of a young man or woman leaving home to join the military, or a religious convert internalizing the beliefs and rituals of a new faith. An extreme example would be the process by which a transsexual learns to function socially in a dramatically altered gender role.

Organizational socialization

Organizational socialization is the process whereby an employee learns the knowledge and skills necessary to assume his or her organizational role. As newcomers become socialized, they learn about the organization and its history, values, jargon, culture, and procedures. This acquired knowledge about new employees' future work environment affects the way they are able to apply their skills and abilities to their jobs. How actively engaged the employees are in pursuing knowledge affects their socialization process. They also learn about their work group, the specific people they work with on a daily basis, their own role in the organization, the skills needed to do their job, and both formal procedures and informal norms.

Socialization functions as a control system in that newcomers learn to internalize and obey organizational values and practices.

Group socialization Group socialization is the theory that an individual's peer groups, rather than parental figures, influences his or her personality and behavior in adulthood. Adolescents spend more time with peers than with parents. Therefore, peer groups have stronger correlations with personality development than parental figures do. For example, twin brothers, whose genetic makeup are identical, will differ in personality because they have different groups of friends, not necessarily because their parents raised them differently.

Entering high school is a crucial moment in many adolescent's lifespan involving the branching off from the restraints of their parents. When dealing with new life challenges, adolescents take comfort in discussing these issues within their peer groups instead of their parents. Peter Grier, staff writer of the Christian Science Monitor describes this occurrence as,"Call it the benign side of peer pressure. Today's high-schoolars operate in groups that play the role of nag and nanny-in ways that are both beneficial and isolating."

Gender socialization Henslin (1999:76) contends that "an important part of socialization is the learning of culturally defined gender roles." Gender socialization refers to the learning of behavior and attitudes considered appropriate for a given sex. Boys learn to be boys and girls learn to be girls. This "learning" happens by way of many different agents of socialization. The family is certainly important in reinforcing gender roles, but so are one's friends, school, work and the mass media. Gender roles are reinforced through "countless subtle and not so subtle ways" (1999:76).

As parents are present in a child's life from the beginning, their influence in a child's early socialization is very important, especially in regards to gender roles. Sociologists have identified four ways in which parents socialize gender roles in their children: Shaping gender related attributes through toys and activities, differing their interaction with children based on the sex of the child, serving as primary gender models, and communicating gender ideals and expectations.

Racial socialization Racial socialization has been defined as "the developmental processes by which children acquire the behaviors, perceptions, values, and attitudes of an ethnic group, and come to see themselves and others as members of the group". The existing literature conceptualizes racial socialization as having multiple dimensions. Researchers have identified five dimensions that commonly appear in the racial socialization literature: cultural

socialization, preparation for bias, promotion of mistrust, egalitarianism, and other. Cultural socialization refers to parenting practices that teach children about their racial history or heritage and is sometimes referred to as pride development. Preparation for bias refers to parenting practices focused on preparing children to be aware of, and cope with, discrimination. Promotion of mistrust refers to the parenting practices of socializing children to be wary of people from other races. Egalitarianism refers to socializing children with the belief that all people are equal and should be treated with a common humanity.

Planned socialization Planned socialization occurs when other people take actions designed to teach or train others—from infancy on.

Natural Socialization Natural socialization occurs when infants and youngsters explore, play and discover the social world around them. Natural socialization is easily seen when looking at the young of almost any mammalian species (and some birds). Planned socialization is mostly a human phenomenon; and all through history, people have been making plans for teaching or training others. Both natural and planned socialization can have good and bad features: It is wise to learn the best features of both natural and planned socialization and weave them into our lives.

Positive socialization Positive socialization is the type of social learning that is based on pleasurable and exciting experiences. We tend to like the people who fill our social learning processes with positive motivation, loving care, and rewarding opportunities.

Negative socialization Negative socialization occurs when others use punishment, harsh criticisms or anger to try to "teach us a lesson;" and often we come to dislike both negative socialization and the people who impose it on us. There are all types of mixes of positive and negative socialization; and the more positive social learning experiences we have, the happier we tend to be—especially if we learn useful information that helps us cope well with the challenges of life. A high ratio of negative to positive socialization can make a person unhappy, defeated or pessimistic about life.

Agents of Socialisation

Agents of socialization are the persons, groups, or institutions that teach us what we need to know in order to participate in society. These are the most pervasive agents of socialization in childhood.

A. FAMILY

✳ The family is the most important agent of socialization in all societies.

    ✳ Functionalists emphasize that families are the primary locus of procreation and socialization of children, as well as the primary source of emotional support

    ✳ To a large extent the family is where we acquire our specific social positions in society

    ✳ Conflict theorist stress that socialization reproduces class structure in the next generation

    B. SCHOOLS

- Schools have played an increasingly important role in the socialization process as the amount of specialized technical and scientific knowledge has expanded rapidly

        Schools teach specific knowledge and skills and they also have a profound effect on a child's self-image, beliefs and values

  C. PEER GROUP

✳   A peer group is a group of people who are linked by common interests, equal social positions, and (usually) a similar age

    ✳ Peer groups function as agents of socialization by contributing to our sense of belonging and our feelings of self-worth

    ✳ Individuals must earn their acceptance with their peers by meeting the group's demands for high level of conformity to its own norms, attitudes, speech, and dress codes

D. MASS MEDIA

The mass media function as socialization agents for children and adults in several ways:

    ✳ They inform us about events

    ✳ They introduce us to a wide variety of people

    ✳ They provide an array of viewpoints on current issues

    ✳ They make us aware of products and services that if we purchase them, supposedly will help us to be accepted by others

✹ They entertain us by providing the opportunity to live vicariously

E. Gender, Race, and Ethnicity Socialization

Gender socialization is the aspect of socialization that contains specific messages and practices concerning the nature of being   female of male in a specific group or society

✹ Families, Schools, and sports tend to reinforce traditional gender roles

CONFORMITY

- **Conformity**--a change in behavior or belief as a result of real or "imagined" group pressure.

- It is not simply acting like others, but also being effected by how they act.

- You "consciously" act differently from the way you would act alone.

Types of Conformity

- 1. **<u>Compliance</u>** - involves publicly acting in accord with social pressure while privately disagreeing.

- Why do we do this?

- We comply to receive a reward or to avoid a punishment.

- 2. **<u>Acceptance</u>** - involves both acting and believing in accord with social pressure.

- E.g., We may decide not to drink alcohol because our society adopts a strong moral view against drinking.

Why do we conform?

- We conform to avoid rejection & to stay in others' good graces.

- **Normative influence-** "When in Rome, do as the Romans would do."

COOPERATION

Cooperation is the process of two or more people working or acting together. Cooperation enables social reality by laying the groundwork for social institutions, organizations, and the entire social system. Without cooperation, no institution beyond the individual would develop; any group behavior is an example of cooperation. Cooperation derives from an overlap in desires and is more likely if there is a relationship between the parties. This means that if two people know that they are going to encounter one another in the future or if they have memories of past cooperation, they are more likely to cooperate in the present.

There are three main types of cooperation: coerced, voluntary, and unintentional. Coerced cooperation is when cooperation between individuals is forced. An example of coerced cooperation is the draft. Individuals are forced to enlist in the military and cooperate with one another and the government, regardless of whether they wish to. Voluntary cooperation is cooperation to which all parties consent. An example of voluntary cooperation would be individuals opting to complete a group project for school when given the option of a group project or an individual project. Unintentional cooperation is a form of cooperation in which individuals do not necessarily intend to cooperate but end up doing so because of aligning interests. The free hand of a capitalist economy is an example of unintentional cooperation, where individuals will take actions based on their own interests resulting sometimes in unintentional cooperation.

Communication plays an essential role in cooperation. Communication enables simple acts of cooperation by facilitating parties' recognition that they have mutual interests and large acts of cooperation by organizing the masses. Without communication, individuals would not be able to organize themselves to cope.

How Can a Lack of Cooperation Affect the Productivity in a Workplace?

Building effective and productive teams is a priority for most managers. Researchers and business leaders from almost every industry have published thousands of articles and books about the importance of teams, proving that cooperative relationships make for more productive and successful businesses. While suggestions for improving cooperation vary, the conclusions are all the same: a lack of cooperation negatively affects your employees' productivity

Cooperation and Competition

Cooperation in the workplace is perhaps one of the most important influences on productivity, especially in a team-based environment. When each person relies on input or task completion from others, things go smoothly; when one person is uncooperative, the entire process slows down. Moreover, competition, even so-called "friendly" competition, can cause negativity and strained relationships in some environments. Whether the lack of cooperation is due to competition, or limited time, skills or resources, the outcome is the same: productivity drops. In fact, in 1986, Dean Tjosvold, a professor at Simon Fraser University in Canada, found that cooperation, instead of competition, leads to more satisfied employees and skyrocketing productivity.

Shared Goals

In 2002, leadership at Revenue Technology Services, a Texas-based software company, realized that the company's three divisions were not working well together. As a result, productivity was declining, affecting the company's earning potential. To solve the problem, each division received three to five quarterly goals, each related to working with the other departments. In less than a year, productivity skyrocketed, with software installation time decreasing. Overall, morale improved as well. To increase the productivity in your business, set goals that require cooperation and discourage competition. Tie everyone's performance evaluations and bonuses to these cooperative goals.

Interpersonal Conflict

Another reason that lack of cooperation slows productivity is that in some cases, instead of leading employees in completing tasks, managers have to spend time handling interpersonal conflicts. Staff management is a key part of any manager's job description, but the fewer employee conflicts he has to deal with, the more he can focus on other aspects of the business. In addition, when a manager consistently addresses the uncooperative behavior of one particular employee, it can lead to an antagonistic relationship between the manager and

that employee. As time goes on, that employee may become less productive overall, as she fulfills her manager's perceptions. Encourage cooperation to avoid these types of conflicts.

Redundancy and Duplication

Cooperation also improves productivity by reducing redundancy and duplicated functions. If each division has its own independent sales and marketing office, for example, not only is the company message disjointed, but the divisions waste time and resources doing the same functions. When departments or divisions pool their resources instead, and streamline processes, the company saves time and money. Encouraging this type of cooperation also increases creativity; a streamlined process encourages employees to work together to develop new ideas and processes, and improve the overall workflow.

Cooperation in the workplace can make the difference between success and failure for many businesses. In a cooperation-rich workplace, individuals voluntarily engage in open communication. Management and lower-level employees work together and try to keep arguments to a minimum. Workers are proactive in the sense that they try to prevent problems before they have a chance to occur. Cooperation is not always an easy thing to achieve in the workplace, but it is worth the effort because it leads to a more harmonious and productive operation.

Increased Productivity

When everyone is working together, things can get done more quickly and efficiently. Cooperation saves time because workers and management don't have to dedicate valuable time to bickering or resolving conflicts. Because workers can dedicate more time to their duties in a cooperative workplace, they are more productive.

Improved Job Satisfaction

When arguments and bickering prevail, workplaces are not enjoyable places to be. By increasing cooperation among employees, managers can make their workplaces more welcoming and inviting, which increases workers' enjoyment of time spent on the job. Working to foster cooperation can also help managers reduce peripheral problems, such as arguments and conflict, that leave employees dissatisfied or eager to leave the job.

Employee Buy-in

As they toil away day-after-day, it is easy for workers to feel like cogs in a big machine, doing a job but having no real impact. In cooperative workplaces, employees feel less like drones and more like valuable components in a well-oiled machine. Management commonly reaches out to lower-level employees in cooperative workplaces, seeking input as to what should be done or how a task should be completed. Because employees are afforded the opportunity to provide this input, they feel they have a voice in the organization and a stake in its success.

Reduction in Misunderstandings

In workplaces that lack cooperation, workers commonly divide themselves into factions. When a workplace is divided in this fashion, misunderstandings prevail. If management actively promotes workplace cooperation and prevents workers from placing barriers between themselves and their colleagues, they foster understanding and communication.

Synergy

Synergy is a process in which the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Synergy is a central factor of effective teamwork. The combined efforts of a team that works well together accomplish more than the total efforts of all the members would have accomplished if they were each working alone. This is because many of the functions of business are improved by the creative interaction of people cooperating together. Individuals can learn from each other, consult with each other about problems and come to agreements about the best ways to reach goals.

Efficiency

Teamwork and cooperation greatly increase the efficiency of an organization. If employees are working separately and unaware of each other's activities, they could be unwittingly duplicating their efforts to no great advantage. By delegating tasks based on abilities and having each member of a team focus on accomplishing certain aspects of a project, a cooperative team can achieve goals using far less time and energy than if each of the team members was working alone.

Communication

Communication skills are critical to the success of any group endeavor. When coworkers share information, it helps them all to remain aware of who is doing what and of where they stand in relation to their final goal. Cooperation and teamwork facilitate communication by fostering an atmosphere of mutual support in which each member of the team feels supported by the others. This communication between team members increases feelings of solidarity as everyone begins to develop similar ideas about where their team is headed

Support

Some personalities enjoy working alone, while others prefer to be part of a team. For people in the latter category, cooperating as part of a team provides an important sense of support and morale in the process of completing a job. Working alone or, worse, competing with others in a negative way, drains people's motivation to complete a task. When working as part of a team, a sense of responsibility to one's coworkers maintains energy levels and determination to do high-quality work
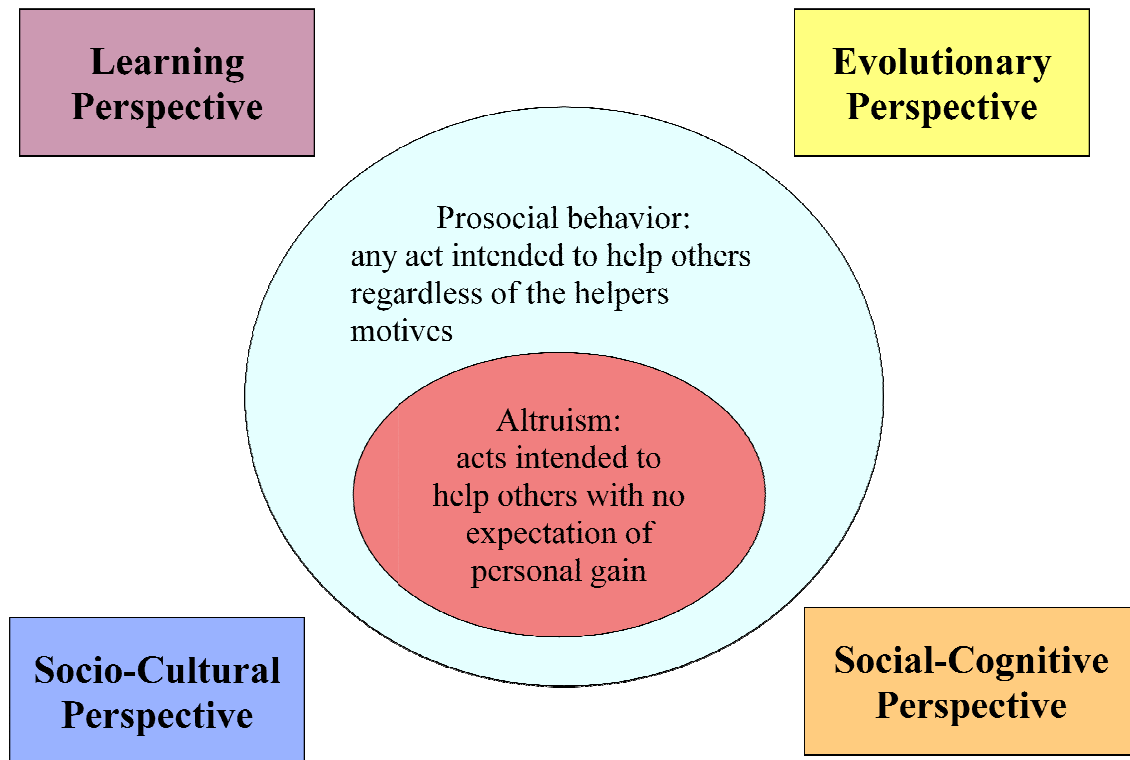
ALTRUISM and PRO SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Define PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOR:

- Action intended to benefit another
- Positive, Constructive, Helpful behavior. The opposite of antisocial behavior.
- Behaviors that are carried out with the goal of helping other people

Define ALTRUISM:

- Action intended solely to benefit another and thus not to gain external or internal reward
- Unselfish regard for the welfare of others
- Pro-social behaviors a person carries out without considering his or her own safety or interests.

Learning Perspective

Evolutionary Perspective

Prosocial behavior:
any act intended to help others
regardless of the helpers
motives

Altruism:
acts intended to
help others with no
expectation of
personal gain

Socio-Cultural Perspective

Social-Cognitive Perspective

Prosocial behavior, or "voluntary behavior intended to benefit another", is a social behavior that "benefit[s] other people or society as a whole," "such as helping, sharing, donating, co-operating, and volunteering." These actions may be motivated by empathy and by concern about the welfare and rights of others, as well as for egoistic or practical concerns. Evidence suggests that prosociality is central to the well-being of social groups across a range of scales. Empathy is a strong motive in eliciting prosocial behavior, and has deep evolutionary roots.

Prosocial behavior fosters positive traits that are beneficial for children and society. It may be motivated both by altruism and by self-interest, for reasons of immediate benefit or future reciprocity. Evolutionary psychologists use theories such as kin-selection theory and inclusive fitness as an explanation for why prosocial behavioral tendencies are passed down generationally, according to the evolutionary fitness displayed by those who engaged in prosocial acts. Encouraging prosocial behavior may also require decreasing or eliminating undesirable social behaviors.

Although the term "prosocial behavior" is often associated with developing desirable traits in children, the literature on the topic has grown since the late 1980s to include adult behaviors as well.

Prosocial behaviors are those intended to help other people. Prosocial behavior is characterized by a concern about the rights, feelings and welfare of other people. Behaviors that can be described as prosocial include feeling empathy and concern for others and behaving in ways to help or benefit other people.

Situational and individual factors relating to prosocial behavior

Prosocial behavior is mediated by both situational and individual factors.

Situational factors

One of the most common situation factors is the occurrence of the bystander effect. The bystander effect is the phenomenon that an individual's likelihood of helping decreases when passive bystanders are present in a critical situation. For example, when someone drops a stack of papers on a crowded sidewalk, most people are likely to continue passing him/her by. This example can be extended to even more urgent situations, such as a car crash or natural disaster.

The decision model of bystander intervention noted that whether or not an individual gives aid in a situation depends upon their analysis of the situation. An individual will consider whether or not the situation requires their assistance, if the assistance is the responsibility of the individual, and how to help.

This model, proposed by, describes five things that must occur in order for a person to intervene:

1.   Notice the situation

2.   Construe it as an emergency.

3.   Develop feelings of responsibility.

4.   Believe they have skills to succeed.

5.   Reach a conscious decision to help.

The number of individuals present in the situation requiring help is also a mediating factor in one's decision to give aid, where the more individuals are present, the less likely it is for one particular individual to give aid due to a reduction in perceived personal responsibility. This is known as diffusion of responsibility, where the responsibility one feels for the person(s) in need is divided by the number of bystanders. Another factor that comes into play is evaluation apprehension, which simply refers to the fear of being judged by other bystanders. Finally, pluralistic ignorance may also lead to someone not intervening. This refers to relying on the reaction of others, before reacting yourself.

Additionally, Piliavin et al., (1981) noted that individuals are likely to maximize their rewards and minimize their costs when determining whether or not to give aid in a situation – that is, that people are rationally self-motivated. Prosocial behavior is more likely to occur if the cost of helping is low (i.e. minimal time, or minimal effort), if helping would actually benefit the individual providing the help in some way, and if the rewards of providing the help are large. If it is in an individual's interest to help, they will most likely do so, especially if the cost of not providing the help is great.

People are also more likely to help those in their social group, or their "in group". With a sense of shared identity with the individual requiring assistance, the altruist is more likely to provide help, on the basis that one allocates more time and energy towards helping behavior within individuals of their own group. The labeling of another individual as a member of one's "in-group" leads to greater feelings of closeness, emotional arousal, and a heightened sense of personal responsibility for the other's welfare, all of which increase the motivation to act prosocially.

Researchers have also found that social exclusion decreases the likelihood of prosocial behavior occurring. In a series of seven experiments conducted by Twenge et al., (2007) researchers manipulated social inclusion or exclusion by telling research participants that other participants had purposefully excluded them, or that they would probably end up alone later in life. They found that this preliminary social exclusion caused prosocial behavior to drop significantly, noting that,"Socially excluded people donated less money to a student fund, were unwilling to volunteer for further lab experiments, were less helpful after a mishap, and cooperated less in a mixed-motive game with another student." This effect is

thought to be due to the fact that prosocial behavior, again, is motivated by a sense of responsibility in caring for and sharing resources with members of one's own group.

Individual factors

Individuals can be compelled to act prosocially based on learning and socialization during childhood. Operant conditioning and social learning positively reinforces discrete instances of prosocial behaviors. Helping skills and a habitual motivation to help others is therefore socialized, and reinforced as children understand why helping skills should be used to help others around them.

Social and individual standards and ideals also motivate individuals to engage in prosocial behavior. Social responsibility norms, and social reciprocity norms reinforce those who act prosocially. As an example, consider the child who is positively reinforced for "sharing" during their early childhood years. When acting prosocially, individuals reinforce and maintain their positive self-images or personal ideals, as well as help to fulfill their own personal needs. Another important psychological determinant of pro-social behavior is someone's personal or moral norm. For example, in a study on charitable giving, van der Linden (2011) found that (in contrast to social norms), moral norms were the single most important predictor of intentions to donate to charity. The author argues that pro-social behaviors such as charitable giving are often driven by personal feelings of what the 'right thing' to do is in a given situation (in this view, pro-social behavior is believed to be determined by intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivations). A possible explanation is that when pro-social behaviors such as donating take place in a private setting (in the absence of any exogenous social pressure), the behavior is more likely to be guided by internal moral considerations. It should be noted however that social and moral norms are closely related: because social groups deliver standards for what is viewed as right or wrong, it is over time, when social norms have been internalized that they become a personal moral norm - operating independently of any immediate social context.

Emotional arousal is an additional important motivator for prosocial behavior in general. Batson's (1987) empathy-altruism model examines the emotional and motivational component of prosocial behavior. Feeling empathy towards the individual needing aid increases the likelihood that the aid will be given. This empathy is called "empathetic

concern" for the other individual, and is characterized by feelings of tenderness, compassion, and sympathy.

Agreeableness is thought to be the personality trait most associated with inherent prosocial motivation. Prosocial thoughts and feelings may be defined as a sense of responsibility for other individuals, and a higher likelihood of experiencing empathy ("other-oriented empathy") both affectively (emotionally) and cognitively. These prosocial thoughts and feelings correlate with dispositional empathy and dispositional agreeableness.

Other Factors Associated with Prosocial Behavior

In addition to situational and individualistic factors, there are some categorical characteristics that can impact prosocial behavior. Several studies have indicated a positive relationship between prosocial behavior and religion. In addition, there may be sex differences in prosocial behavior, particularly as youths move into adolescence. Research suggests that while women and men both engage in prosocial behaviors, women tend to engage in more communal and relational prosocial behaviors whereas men tend to engage in more agentic prosocial behaviors.[31] A recent study examining workplace charitable giving looked at the role of both sex and ethnicity. Results showed that women gave significantly more than men, and Caucasians gave significantly more than minority groups. However, the percent of minority individuals in the workplace was positively associated with workplace charitable giving by minorities. Culture, gender and religion are important factors to consider in understanding prosocial behavior on an individual and group level.

AGGRESSION

In psychology, the term aggression refers to a range of behaviors that can result in both physical and psychological harm to oneself, other or objects in the environment. The expression of aggression can occur in a number of ways, including verbally, mentally and physically.

Forms of Aggression

Aggression can take a variety of forms, including:

- Physical

- Verbal

- Mental

- Emotional

Purposes of Aggression

Aggression can also serve a number of different purposes:

- To express anger or hostility

- To assert dominance

- To intimidate or threaten

- To achieve a goal

- To express possession

- A response to fear

- A reaction to pain

- To compete with others

researchers have suggested that individual who engage in affective aggression, defined as aggression that is unplanned and uncontrolled, tend to have lower IQs than people who display predatory aggression. Predatory aggression is defined as aggression that is controlled, planned and goal-oriented.

CHANGING OTHERS BEHAVIOR

Changing others behaviour

How do you get leaders, employees, customers — and even yourself — to change behaviors? Executives can change strategy, products and processes until they're blue in the face, but real change doesn't take hold until people actually change what they do.

I spent the summer reviewing research on this topic. Here is my list of 10 approaches that seem to work.

1. Embrace the power of one. One company I worked with posted 8 values and 12 competencies they wanted employees to practice. The result: Nothing changed. When you have 20 priorities, you have none. Research on multi-tasking reveals that we're not good at it. Focus on one behavior to change at a time. Sequence the change of more than one behavior.

2. Make it sticky. Goal theory has taught us that for goals to be effective, they need to be concrete and measurable. So with behaviors. "Listen actively" is vague and not measurable. "Paraphrase what others said and check for accuracy" is concrete and measurable.

3. Paint a vivid picture. When celebrity chef Jamie Oliver wanted to change the eating habits of kids at a U.S. school, he got their attention with a single, disgusting image: A truckload of pure animal fat (see photo). When Oliver taught an obese kid to cook, he showed how cooking can be "cool" — walking with head up, shoulders back, and a swagger while preparing food. This gave the boy a positive image he could relate to. As Herminia Ibarra outlines in her book Working Identity, imagining new selves can be a powerful force for change. Use stories, metaphors, pictures, and physical objects to paint an ugly image of "where we are now" and a better vision of a glorious new state. This taps into people's emotions, a forceful lever for (or against) change.

4. Activate peer pressure. As social comparison theory shows, we look to others in our immediate circle for guidance for what are acceptable behaviors. Peers can set expectations, shame us or provide role models. When a banker was told by his boss that he needed to show more "we" and less "me" behaviors, team members observed and called out missteps, such as inappropriate "I" statements. The peer pressure worked. This is also the case for online groups. Ask peers to set expectations and put pressure on one another. Sign up friends on facebook to check in on your behaviors (or use a company network tool).

5. Mobilize the crowd. In this video, would you be the second, the middle or the last person to join the dance? Most people would join somewhere in the middle, at the tipping point. Embracing a new behavior typically follows a diffusion curve — early adopters, safe followers, late-comers. Diffusion theory holds, however, that this is not a random process: Key influencers make it tip. They are often not managers with senior titles but those with the most informal connections and those to whom others look for directions (see ch. 6 in my book *Collaboration* for these "bridges" in a company network). Get a few early adopters to adopt a behavior, then find and convince the influencers, and then sit back and watch as it goes viral (hopefully).

6. Tweak the situation. How do you get employees to eat healthier food in the company cafeteria? You could educate them about healthy food. Or you could alter the physical flow. Google did just that. Using the cue that people tend to grab what they see first, they stationed the salad bar in front of the room. This and similar techniques are based on the red hot area of behavioral decision theory, which holds that behavioral change can come about by tweaking the situation around the person. You nudge people, not by telling them directly (eat salad!), but indirectly, by shaping their choices. Use different default settings, frame things as losses (not gains), commit in advance and so on.

7. Subtract, not just add. In *The Power of Habits*, Charles Duhigg tells a great story about a U.S. Army Major stationed in a small town in Iraq. Every so often crowds would gather in the plaza and by the evening rioting would ensue. What to do? Add more troops when the crowd swells? No. Next time the Major had the food stalls removed. When the crowd grew hungry in the evening, there was nothing to eat and the crowd dispersed before a riot could take hold. Change behaviors by removing enablers, triggers and barriers. Managers are so obsessed with what new things to add that they forget the obvious: Subtracting.

8. Dare to link to carrots and sticks (and follow through). This list would not be complete without the traditional HR lever, incentives, in the form of pay, bonus and promotion. In a famous HBS case, a banker at Morgan Stanley is up for promotion. His numbers are great, but he comes up short on the 360-degree review that assessed his behaviors. Tie incentives to both performance and desired behaviors. But, as Dan Pink highlights in *Drive*, such extrinsic rewards and punishments only work for non-creative behaviors and much less for, say, "innovate outside the box"

9. Teach and coach well. Many behaviors have a skill dimension: I may not know how to prioritize work, even though I am motivated to do so. Be a good teacher or coach (or, be a good learner if you're trying to change your own behaviors). This involves practicing the behavior, like a muscle, which is difficult especially for behaviors with a high tacit component (e.g., how to listen well).

10. Hire and fire based on behaviors. The list so far is about changing the person. But there is also selection: Change the composition of the team. Get people who embody the desired behaviors and get rid of those that clearly do not. This is based on theories of role fit: Match strengths (including your current behaviors) to what the job requires. This also goes for you: Fire yourself and find a better job if need be.

UNIT III

OPTIMISM and POSITIVE THINKING

Optimism is a mental attitude or world view that interprets situations and events as being best (optimized). The concept is extended to include the hope that future conditions will unfold as optimal.

Optimism is a form of positive thinking that includes the belief that you are responsible for your own happiness, and that more good things will continue to happen to you in the future. Optimists believe that bad or negative events are rare occurrences, and that it is not their fault when something bad happens, but is due to something external.

What is **POSITIVE** Thinking?
- Our innate capability to produce desired outcomes with positive thoughts.
- It is a mental attitude that expects good and favorable result.
- Having a belief in possibilities even when the facts seem to indicate otherwise
- Involves making creative choices
- Its a mental attitude that admits into the mind thoughts, words and images that are conductive to growth, expansion and success

TRAITS OF A POSITIVE/OPTIMISTIC THINKER

- Belief
- Confidence
- Courage
- Calmness
- Determination
- Enthusiasm
- Focus
- Integrity
- Optimism
- Patience

SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence, or IQ, is largely what you are born with. Genetics play a large part. Social intelligence (SI), on the other hand, is mostly learned. SI develops from experience with people and learning from success and failures in social settings. It is more commonly referred to as "tact," "common sense," or "street smarts."

What are the key elements of social intelligence?

1. Verbal Fluency and Conversational Skills. You can easily spot someone with lots of SI at a party or social gathering because he or she knows how to "work the room." The highly socially intelligent person can carry on conversations with a wide variety of people, and is tactful and appropriate in what is said. Combined, these represent what are called "social expressiveness skills."

2. Knowledge of Social Roles, Rules, and Scripts. Socially intelligent individuals learn how to play various social roles. They are also well versed in the informal rules, or "norms," that govern social interaction. In other words, they "know how to play the game" of social interaction. As a result, they come off as socially sophisticated and wise.

3. Effective Listening Skills. Socially intelligent persons are great listeners. As a result, others come away from an interaction with an SI person feeling as if they had a good "connection" with him or her.

4. Understanding What Makes Other People Tick. Great people watchers, individuals high in social intelligence attune themselves to what others are saying, and how they are behaving, in order to try to "read" what the other person is thinking or feeling. Understanding emotions is part of Emotional Intelligence, and Social Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence are correlated – people who are especially skilled are high on both.

5. Role Playing and Social Self-Efficacy. The socially intelligent person knows how to play different social roles – allowing him or her to feel comfortable with all types of people. As a result, the SI individual feels socially self-confident and effective – what psychologists call "social self-efficacy."

6. Impression Management Skills. Persons with SI are concerned with the impression they are making on others. They engage in what I call the "Dangerous Art of Impression Management," which is a delicate balance between managing and controlling the image you portray to others and being reasonably "authentic" and letting others see the true self. This is perhaps the most complex element of social intelligence.

How can you develop social intelligence?

It takes effort and hard work. Begin by paying more attention to the social world around you. Work on becoming a better speaker or conversationalist. Networking organizations, or speaking groups, such as Toastmasters, are good at helping develop basic communication skills. Work on becoming a more effective listener, through what is called "active listening" where you reflect back what you believe the speaker said in order to ensure clear understanding. Most importantly, study social situations and your own behavior. Learn from your social successes and failures. I'll give some more specific SI exercises in a future post.

SELF EFFICACY

What Is Self-Efficacy?

According to Albert Bandura, self-efficacy is "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations." In other words, self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (1994).

Since Bandura published his seminal 1977 paper, "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change," the subject has become one of the most studied topics in psychology. Why has self-efficacy become such an important topic among psychologists and educators? As Bandura and other researchers have demonstrated, self-efficacy can have an impact on everything from psychological states to behavior to motivation.

SELF EFFICACY

- Refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task.
- Beliefs and expectations about one's ability to accomplish a specific task effectively

SELF WORTH

It consists of:

A. SELF EFFICACY

Our ability in what we can do.

Confidence that we can complete the task before us.

B. SELF RESPECT

The sense of value we place on ourselves.

Our ability to assert our wants and needs in life.

People with low self efficacy:

- are more likely to lessen their effort or give up altogether
- Question whether or not they can complete a task

People with high self efficacy:

- Will try harder when faced with a challenge
- Will respond better to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation

Factors that affect self –efficacy, according to Albert Bandura

- Experience – "Mastery experience" success fosters success. Prior experiences-prior successes
- Modeling – Observing success, becoming more confident because you see someone else doing the task
- Verbal persuasion- becoming more confident because someone convinces you that you have the skills necessary to be successful. (motivational speakers, friends etc.)
- Psychological response –Our own responses and emotional reactions to situations .

Advantage

- Self-constructs seem to be positively associated with other desirable qualities, such as better quality of live, higher academic performance, character development and personal growth.

Disadvantage

- Simply boosting self-esteem without boosting personal skill creates more serious problems arising from the self-deception

The Role of Self-Efficacy

Virtually all people can identify goals they want to accomplish, things they would like to change, and things they would like to achieve. However, most people also realize that putting these plans into action is not quite so simple. Bandura and others have found that an individual's self-efficacy plays a major role in how goals, tasks, and challenges are approached.

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy:

- View challenging problems as tasks to be mastered

- Develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate

- Form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities

- Recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments

People with a weak sense of self-efficacy:

- Avoid challenging tasks

- Believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities

- Focus on personal failings and negative outcomes

- Quickly lose confidence in personal abilities

Sources of Self-Efficacy

How does self-efficacy develop? These beliefs begin to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. However, the growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth, but continues to evolve throughout life as people acquire new skills, experiences, and understanding.

According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy.

1. Mastery Experiences

"The most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences," Bandura explained. Performing a task successfully strengthens our sense of self-efficacy. However, failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy.

2. Social Modeling

Witnessing other people successfully completing a task is another important source of self-efficacy. According to Bandura, "Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities master comparable activities to succeed."

3. Social Persuasion

Bandura also asserted that people could be persuaded to believe that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.

4. Psychological Responses

Our own responses and emotional reactions to situations also play an important role in self-efficacy. Moods, emotional states, physical reactions, and stress levels can all impact how a person feels about their personal abilities in a particular situation. A person who becomes extremely nervous before speaking in public may develop a weak sense of self-efficacy in these situations.

However, Bandura also notes "it is not the sheer intensity of emotional and physical reactions that is important but rather how they are perceived and interpreted." By learning how to minimize stress and elevate mood when facing difficult or challenging tasks, people can improve their sense of self-efficacy.

WORK LIFE BALANCE

- **Work–life balance** is a concept including proper prioritizing between "work" (career and ambition) and "lifestyle"(Health, pleasure, leisure, family and spiritual development/meditation).
- Recent research says that more than 60% respondents are not able to find a balance between their personal and professional life.
- Traditional thinking leading to more stress and lack of concentration in work , hence leading to greater absenteeism and increase in attrition rate.
- Activities and social spaces are becoming ambiguous.

Reasons for Imbalance

- Global Economy

- Longer working hours
- International business
- Competition
- Individual career ambition

SOLUTIONS

- Don't overbook
- Prioritize ruthlessly
- Learn how to say no
- Organize

- Use technology
- Know it won't always
- be perfect

SOLUTIONS FROM CORPORATES

❑   WORK NEAR HOME

"Try to cut down the commuting time." says Pushkar Singh Kataria, 38,VP,group HR, Vedanta Resources. At lunch hour he heads home-10 minutes from his office.

❑   ONLINE SOCIAL NETWORKING CAN WAIT

Curb checking your Facebook profile or professional network account to set a time during the day or week. "You can save time and spend it on yourself," says Anita Belani, country head, Russel Reynolds**.**

❑ PAMPER YOURSELF

Indulge yourself**.** Spend a couple of hours in the garden, play with children, or cook. Get 7 to 8 hours of sleep every night. "Pamper yourself a little more every day and you'll see a big payoff at work and home." says Gurmeet Singh, area director, India Maldives, Mariott Hotels.

HR solutions for Work-life Balance

1. **On the job training**

- Surveys of employee work /life issues
- Set priorities for all work
- Train line managers to recognize signs of overwork
- Seminars on work life balance

2. **Make work more flexible**

- Flexi time
- Job sharing

- Sponsoring employees' family oriented activities

    3. **Allow for time off from work**

- A formal leave policy
- Paid childbirth or adoption leave
- Allow employees to take leave for community service
- Feel more rested and organized
- Working more productively and get more accomplished, leading to greater career success
- More fulfillment from work
- Improving relationship with family and friend

BENEFITS

TO ORGANIZATION

- Measured increase in productivity, accountability

    and commitment.

- Better team work and communication.
- Improved morale.
- Less negative organizational stress

TO INDIVIDUAL

- More value and balance in daily life.
- Better understanding of work life balance
- Increased productivity.
- Improved on-the-job and off-the-job relationship.
- Reduced stress.
- Better physical and mental health
- Making choice about one's priorities rather than sacrificing any
- More leisure time to spend with loved ones or for oneself
- Feel more rested and organized

- Working more productively and get more accomplished, leading to greater career success
- More fulfillment from work
- Improving relationship with family and friend

CONCLUSION

- A balanced life style boosts the sense of responsibility and ownership.
- Build better relationship with management.
- Builds confidence.

SPIRITUAL QUOTIENT

Spiritual quotient (SQ) is described as a measure that looks at a person's spiritual intelligence in the same way as intelligence quotient (IQ) looks at cognitive intelligence.

We have all heard about the importance of Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and Emotional Quotient (EQ). However, The concept of Spiritual Quotient (SQ) is fast emerging as the next big thing.

Human beings have six senses. Spirituality is the ability to recognize that there is intelligence beyond six senses. And this intelligence creates and governs everything within and beyond the worlds we know. We can surrender to this supreme intelligence through: awareness (also known as mindfulness), contemplation (self enquiry), and prayer (dedication).

Given below are just three of the many aspects that setting ourselves on a spiritual course entails.

1. Responsibility : What all in this world are we responsible for? Ourselves? Family? Society? Country? Earth? Universe? Can answer to any of these questions be 'no'?

Implication : Answer to this question helps define the personal vision of each individual. It helps one to intertwine one's personal vision with the larger good of humanity.

2. Humility : We are just a speck in this existence. Consider this. There are over 7 billion inhabitants on earth, and I am just one of them. Earth is just one of the innumerable heavenly bodies in the universe. The universe in itself is billions of years old. The 70 odd years that I will spend on earth is minuscule in this scheme of things. So, how significant is my existence?

Implication : We, human beings, carry big egos, and want to feel all important. We tend to demand, and not command respect. Have we realised if we, after all, are that important? Will our arrogance or our humility make us a better leader?

3. Happiness : Human race has progressed on the back of innovation. The level of comfort enjoyed by the current generation is probably the highest ever. But can we say that we are the happiest generation that ever lived on the planet? There has been a conscious and mammoth effort to set right the outside world. But how much time have we given for our inner well being?

Implication : A long and healthy life is important for any individual. Ill-health can either halt one's progress or, even if one succeeds, result in the 'gifts' of a heart disease, blood pressure or diabetes. A happy individual also builds a happy family and society.

Spiritual Quotient therefore is the ability of an individual to see his personal vision and the ensuing endeavour to achieve the same through the prism of the larger good to the society, bringing good health and happiness to himself and the world at large.

SQ (Spiritual Quotient): the ability to discern, perceive and judge the spiritual dimensions that are at work in and around you, and manage this realm towards a positive outcome.

1) The Gift of Discernment

The ability to accurately perceive the spiritual entities that are influencing people, organizations and geographic locations as it applies to their motivations, attitudes, inclinations and mindsets.

The ability to apprise the level of spiritual favor and the strength of the *human* spirit that is present in the triune being of each individual.

2) The Gift of Knowledge

The ability to receive facts and pertinent information about the visible dimension/world by communicating with the Spirit world.

3) The Gift of Wisdom

Wisdom is the ability to rightly apply knowledge in a way that builds for the future that which was envisioned by the Creator so that we develop a divine ecosystem that yields life.

4) The Gift of Prophecy

The ability to foresee the future before it happens.

The ability to understand a person, organization or geographic location's divine purpose and call.

5) The Mind of God

The ability to process all aspects of life from an eternal, timeless and multidimensional perspective.

The ability to think supernaturally and perceive the natural world through infinite probabilities and limitless resources that transcends the laws of physics and the restrictions of physical realities.

Job Satisfaction and its causes

Job satisfaction, a worker's sense of achievement and success.   **Job satisfaction** describes how content (satisfy) an individual is with his or her job.

   The happier people are within their job, the more satisfied they are said to be.

    There are many ways of satisfying a job.

Job satisfaction is the extent of positive feelings or attitudes that individuals have towards their jobs.

According to Andrew Brin: " Job satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment associated with a job. If you like your job intensely, you will experience high job satisfaction. If you dislike your job intensely, you will experience job dissatisfaction."

According to Field Man & Arnold: " Job satisfaction will be defined as the amount of overall positive affect or feelings that individuals have towards their jobs"

It is generally said that " Happy employee is a productive employee."

Creating JOB SATISFACTION by:
- Flexible work arrangements, possibly including telecommuting

- Training
- Interesting work
- "put his or her signature" on the finished product
- To use one's talents and to be creative
- Responsibility
- A stable, secure work environment
- Positive work Environment
- Timely feedback

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- To use one's talents and to be creative
- Responsibility
- A stable, secure work environment
- Positive work Environment
- Timely feedback
- Flexible benefits, such as child-care and exercise facilities
- Up-to-date technology
- Competitive salary and opportunities for promotion

Important dimensions to job satisfaction

- ✓ Job satisfaction cannot be seen ,it can only be inferred or incidental. It relates to one's feelings towards one's job.
- ✓ Job satisfaction is often determined by how will outcome meet the expectations or exceed the expectations.
- ✓ Job satisfaction & job attitudes are typically used inter changeably. Positive attitudes towards the jobs are equivalent to job satisfaction and negative attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction.

JOB DISSATISFACTION

It is an employee's response to their job that can range from feelings of apathy, to depression and despair, to anger, frustration and resentment. It all means a desire to quit and move on to something better and many employees are there right now.

Not everyone can be satisfied with their job. As a matter of fact, in a 2012 survey conducted by Right Management, 65% of individuals that were surveyed were either somewhat or totally unsatisfied with their jobs. Now, you might be thinking that this is a problem here in the U.S., but it is a worldwide problem. In a Mercer study of 30,000 workers worldwide, between 28% and 56% of workers around the globe wanted to leave their jobs.

With all these unhappy people, one would think there have to be causes that drive these high percentages. Additionally, one has to think about the reactions or responses from employees that do not have job satisfaction and how they act (or act out) on the job. When we are younger, we act out by pouting or stomping our feet - maybe even holding our breath - but it is important we understand how employees respond when they are not satisfied with their jobs. Understanding the responses helps companies to identify that discontent and hopefully address it before it goes too far.

Causes of Job Dissatisfaction

There are a number of specific causes for job dissatisfaction, but it is understood there are four main areas that reside in this issue. These areas are:

Being underpaid: Not being paid what you are worth is called being underpaid. This one issue is the most challenging one to work with because it can be driven by interpretation or perspective that is very personal or individually focused. If a person does not think they are being paid enough to do their job, then they perceive themselves to be underpaid - even if the wages they make are in line with that position. If they research the wages for that job (either on the Internet or by talking to others) and find they are indeed being underpaid, then their dissatisfaction is warranted.

In addition, they could see someone who does the same job they are doing driving a better car or living in a better house - and thus, perceive that person to be making more money. And so, once again, they believe they are underpaid. You see, unless you know what others are making or research the wages that are appropriate for a specific job function, then the dissatisfaction that comes from being underpaid is totally based on perception. From a company's perspective, it is a valuable and important perspective because individuals who are dissatisfied with the money they are making, for the job they do, will most likely leave the organization.
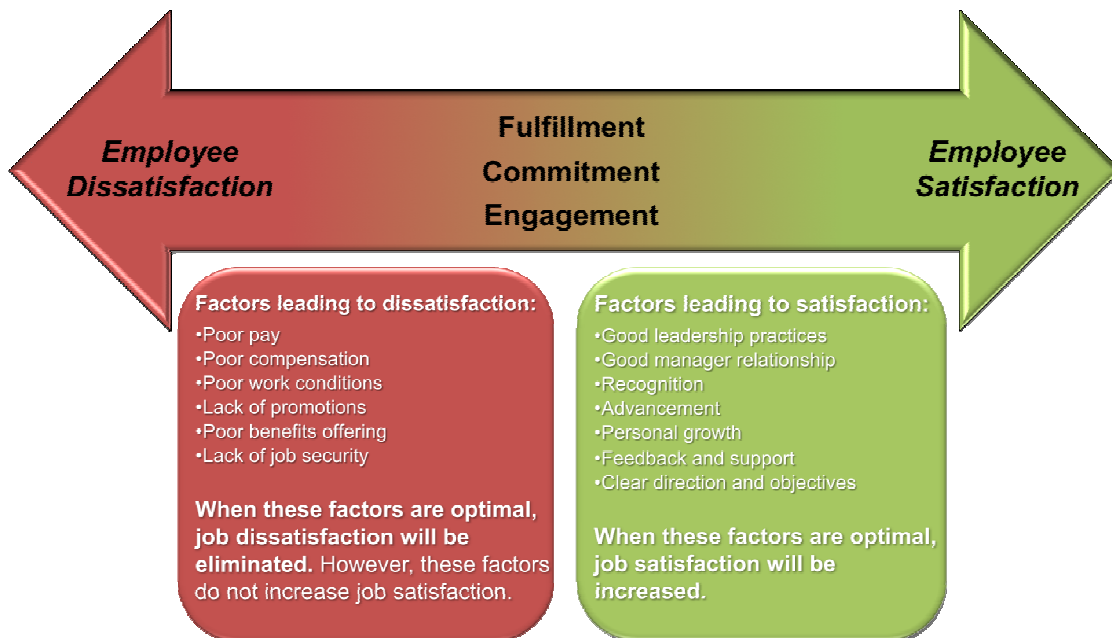
Limited career growth: Not having the opportunity to climb the ladder and grow your career is another area that can foster dissatisfaction with a position. For this aspect, it is important to understand that not everyone wants to move up the ladder. However, for those who do, if the company does not afford them the opportunity of growth, they will become disenchanted and become dissatisfied with their job. This could mean that the employee will potentially leave for another position that might have better career growth opportunities.

Lack of interest: A lack of interest is having a position that does not interest you. This is a very straightforward concept, but you might be wondering why anyone would take a job they were not interested in. Well, the first answer to that is typically money. People need to work and need jobs, so they might indeed take a position that does not interest them so they can pay the bills.

Another answer could be that sometimes what a person is told a job is in the interview process does not materialize. The old joke is the company and the prospective employee are all Brad Pitt and Angelina Jolie during the interview process, but once the hiring is done, we can at times see the ugly side of a company or position and not want to stay.

Poor management: Not having the leadership required is another reason for dissatisfaction. People want to be led. They want to work with people who inspire them and have a vision.

Without those people, an employee can feel as if the company is just drifting through space, waiting to run into something. If an employee is a structured and focused type of person, not having leadership is a killer and will certainly make them believe the company is not very serious. For this reason, an employee may grow dissatisfied with the company, if not the position.

Fulfillment
Commitment
Engagement

Employee
Dissatisfaction

Employee
Satisfaction

Factors leading to dissatisfaction:
•Poor pay
•Poor compensation
•Poor work conditions
•Lack of promotions
•Poor benefits offering
•Lack of job security

When these factors are optimal, job dissatisfaction will be eliminated. However, these factors do not increase job satisfaction.

Factors leading to satisfaction:
•Good leadership practices
•Good manager relationship
•Recognition
•Advancement
•Personal growth
•Feedback and support
•Clear direction and objectives

When these factors are optimal, job satisfaction will be increased.

Determinants of job dissatisfaction

1. Organizational Factors
   A. Salaries and Wages
   B. Promotion Chances

C. Equitable Rewards

2. Personal Factors
  A. Age
  B. Level of Education

3.Work Environmental Factors
  A. Supervisions
  B. Work Groups
  C. Working conditions

WORK MOTIVATION

MEANING OF MOTIVATION:

Motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere' which means 'to move' or 'to energize' or 'to activate'.

Motivation refers to the process by which a person's efforts are energized directed and sustained towards attaining a goal. Motivation is the process of arousing the action, sustaining the activity in process and regulating the pattern of activity.

- YOUNG

   Motivation refers to the states within a person or animal that drives behavior toward some goals.

- MORGAN AND KING

NATURE OF MOTIVATION:

  ❖ Based on motives
  ❖ Affected by motivating
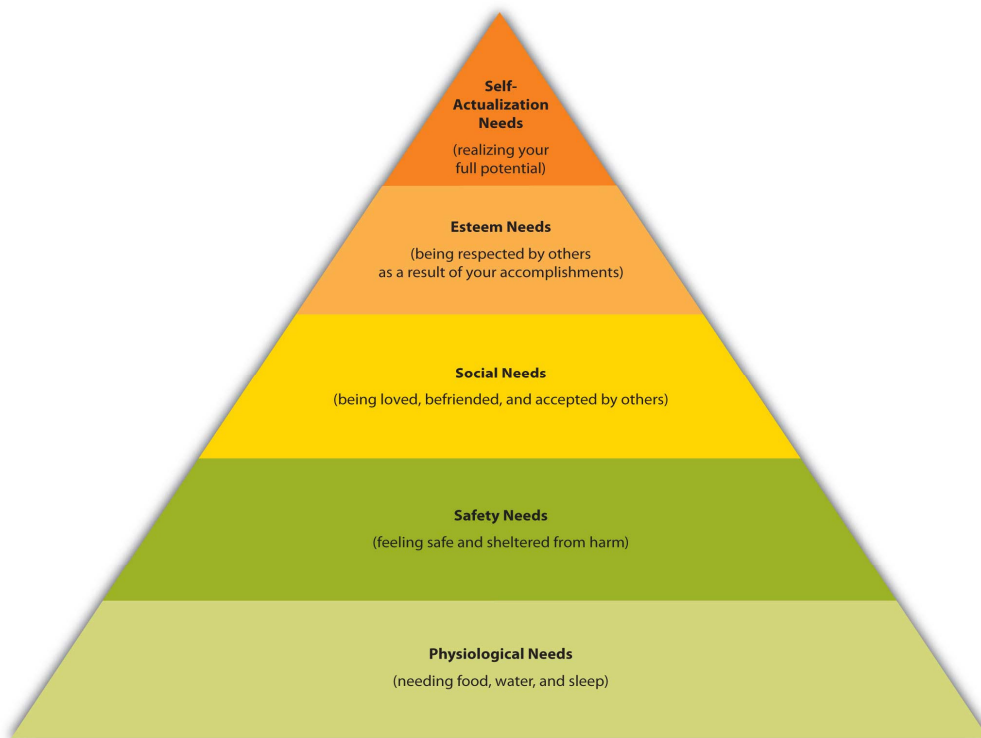 ❖ Goal directed behavior
  ❖ Related to satisfaction

❖ Person is motivated in totality

❖ Complex process

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

◉ Maslow's Hierarchy Of Needs Theory

◉ McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

◉ Herzberg's Two-Fact Theory

◉ McClelland's Three-Needs Theory

Maslow's Hierarchy Of Needs Theory

◉ Maslow Argues that each levels in needs hierarchy must be substantially satisfied before the next need becomes dominant.

◉ An individual moves up the needs hierarchy from one level to the next.

◉ He considered psychological and safety needs(lower order needs)

◉ He considered social, esteem, self actualization needs (higher order needs)

◉ Lower order needs are predominantly satisfied externally

◉ Higher order needs are satisfied internally

Self-Actualization Needs
(realizing your full potential)

Esteem Needs
(being respected by others as a result of your accomplishments)

Social Needs
(being loved, befriended, and accepted by others)

Safety Needs
(feeling safe and sheltered from harm)

Physiological Needs
(needing food, water, and sleep)

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

⦿ Douglas McGregor is best known about two assumption of human nature. Theory X and Theory Y

⦿ Theory X is a negative view of people

⦿ Theory Y is a positive view of people

⦿ Theory Y assumption should guide management practice and proposed that participation and decision making responsible and challenging jobs and good group relations would maximize employee motivation.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

⦿ Also Called motivation hygiene theory

⦿ Have two factors

i.   Intrinsic factors: job satisfaction

ii.   Extrinsic factors: job dissatisfaction

Motivator	Hygiene
Achievement	Salary
Recognition	Potential for growth
The work itself	Interpersonal relations
Responsibility	Status and working conditions
Advancements	Technical supervision
	Company policy and administration
	Job security

McClelland's Three-Needs Theory

- ◉ David McClelland and his associates proposed the three needs theory which says there are three acquired(not innate{not in born}) needs that are major motivators in work

- ◉ Three needs are:

i. Need for achievement

ii. Need for power

iii. Need for Affiliation

The following are essential strategies to create a motivating climate for employees.

- ❖ Have a clear expectation for workers, and communicate these expectations effectively.

- ❖ Be fair and consistent when dealing with all employees.

- ❖ Be a firm decision maker using an appropriate decision making style.

- ❖ Develop the concept of teamwork. Develop group goals and projects that will build team spirit.

- ❖ Integrate the staff's needs and wants with the organizations interest and purpose.

- ❖ Know the uniqueness of each employee. Let each know that you understand his or her uniqueness.

- ❖ Remove traditional blocks between the employee and the work to be done.

- ❖ Provide experience that challenge or stretch the employee, and allow opportunity for growth.

- ❖ When appropriate, request participation and input from all subordinates in decision making.

- ❖ Whenever possible, give subordinates recognition and credit.

- ❖ Be certain that employees understand the reason behind decision and actions.

- ❖ Reward desirable behavior; be consistent in how we handle undesirable behavior.

- ❖ Let employees exercise individual judgement as much as possible.

- ❖ Create a trustful and helping relationship with employees.

- ❖ Let employees exercise as much control as possible over their work environment.

- ❖ Be a role model for employees.

UNIT IV

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

 "Industrial Psychology is simply the application or extension of psychological facts and principles to the problems concerning human relations in Business and Industry."

- ⦿ Father of Industrial Psychology – Hugo Munsterberg

- ⦿ Emphasis on how to use human resources to increase efficiency and productivity
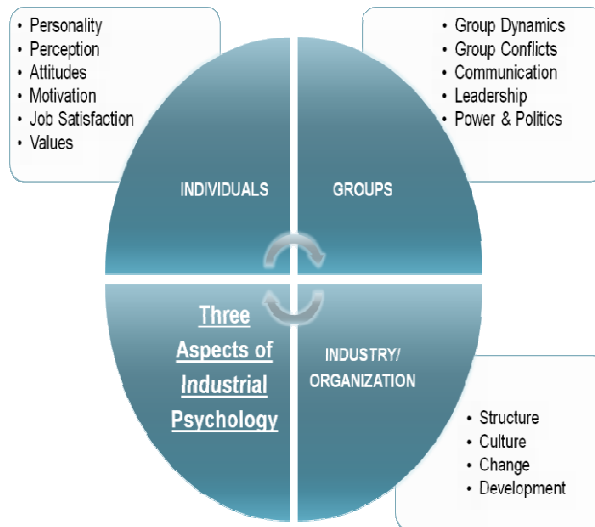
Guion (1965) - "The scientific study of the relationship between man and the world at work: the study of the adjustment people make to the places they go, the people they meet, and the things they do in the process of making a living."

Blum & Naylor (1968) - "The application or extension of Psychological principles to the problems concerning human beings operating within the context of business and industry."

NATURE OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

- ❑ The study of people at work in industry or in business.

- ❑ The application of the knowledge of psychology to the industrial situations.

- ❑ Study of principles & practices that affect the behavior of human beings.

- ❑ Concerned with the entire spectrum of human behavior.

❑ In the words of **BLUM M.L**,

Scope of Industrial Psychology

- **Personnel Psychology** – selection, training, and assessment of employees

- **Organizational Behavior** – social & group influences, communication, org structure/hierarchy, leadership, motivation issues

- **Ergonomics/Human Factors** – human-machine interaction, job design, optimizing human abilities

- **Vocational/Career Counseling** – career path, retirement prep, Employee Assistance Programs

- **Organizational Development** – diagnosing org problems, plan, implement, and assess change

- **Industrial Relations** - labor issues, management -union liaison to resolve conflict

- Talent management,

- coaching,

- assessment,

- selection,

- training,

- Organizational development,

- performance,

- work-life balance.

CHANGING WORKPLACES

In today's world, the structure, content, and process of work have changed. Work is now:

- More cognitively complex
- More team-based and collaborative

- More dependent on social skills
- More dependent on technological competence
- More time pressured
- More mobile and less dependent on geography.

In today's world, you will also be working for an organization that is likely to be very different due to competitive pressures and technological breakthroughs. Organizations today are:

- Leaner and more agile
- More focused on identifying value from the customer perspective
- More tuned to dynamic competitive requirements and strategy
- Less hierarchical in structure and decision authority
- Less likely to provide lifelong careers and job security
- Continually reorganizing to maintain or gain competitive advantage.
- Improved quality of work life and attraction of new workers
- Reduced costs/more efficient space use
- Greater use of dispersed work groups—often global
- More Women in the workforce
- Continual reorganization and restructuring
- Technology

WORKER INVOLVEMENT

Worker's participation is a system where workers and management share important information with each other and participate in decision taking.

WPM encompasses the following:-

- It provides scope for employees in decision-making of the organization.
- The participation may be at the shop level, departmental level or at the top level.

- The participation includes the willingness to share the responsibility of the organization by the workers.

- It is conducted through the mechanism of forums which provide for association of workers representatives.

- It is done to improve self discipline & control among workers & for the smooth running of management.

- A system of communication and consultation, either formal or informal, by which employees of an organization are kept informed about the affairs of the undertaking and through which they express their opinion and contribute to the management decisions.

- Participation refers to the mental and emotional involvement of a person in a group situation which encourages him to contribute to group goals and share the responsibility of achievement.

- - Keith Davis

Participation in Management gives the worker a sense of importance, pride and accomplishment; it gives him the freedom of opportunity for self-expression; a feeling of belongingness with the place of work and a sense of workmanship and creativity.

- Walpole

OBJECTIVE

- To elevate worker's status in industry.

- To promote democratic practice.

- Increase productivity with joint efforts.

- Promote cordial relations.

- Prevent exploitation of worker's.

- Create good communication system.

- To build the most dynamic Human Resources.

IMPORTANCE

- Mutual understanding

- Higher productivity

- Industrial harmony

- Industrial democracy

- Less resistance to change

- Creativity & Innovation

FORMS OF PARTICIPATION

- Consultative participation

- Informative participation

- Administrative participation

- Associative participation

- Decision / Decisive participation

- Ownership participation

CONULATATIVE

- Involves a high degree of sharing of views of the members and giving them an opportunity to express their feelings.

- Members are consulted on matters such as:-

    - Welfare amenities (work, health)

    - Adoption of New Technology

    - The problems emanating from it Safety measures.

- Final decision always rests with the top-level management, as employees' views are only advisory in nature.

INFORMATION

- It ensures that employees are able to receive information and express their views pertaining to the matters of:-

- General economic situation.

- The state of market, production & sales programmes.

- Organisation & general running of the undertaking.

- The annual balance sheet & profit & loss account statement & connected documents with explanations.

- Methods of manufacture & work.

- Long term plan for expansion etc.

ADMINISTRATIVE

- Involves a greater degree of sharing of authority and responsibility of the management functions.

- It ensures greater share of workers' participation in discharge of managerial functions.

- Employees take part in decisions, which were already taken by the management, thereupon employees have to select the best from those decisions for the purpose of implementation.

- Members are given little for autonomy in the exercise of administrative and supervisory powers with regard to –

  - Welfare measures

  - Supervision of safety measure

  - Operation of vocational training & apprenticeship schemes

  - Preparation of schedules of working hours, breaks, holidays

- Payment of rewards for valuable suggestions

DECISION

- Highest form of participation.

- Maximum delegation of authority and responsibility of managerial function.

- Decisions mutually taken.

- Matters concerned are

– Economic,

– Production

– Welfare

– Financial and

– Administrative policies

ASSOCIATIVE

- Extension of consultative participation

- Management here is under the moral obligation to accept and implement the unanimous(agreed) decisions of the employees.

- Under this method the managers and workers jointly take decisions.

LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION

1. Collective Bargaining

2. Works Committees

3. Shop / Department Council

4. Joint Councils

5. Board Representations

6. Workers Ownership of Enterprise

7. Quality Circles

8. Kaizen

Collective Bargaining

"Collective bargaining as, negotiation about working conditions and terms of employment between an employer and a group of employees or one or more employee, organization with a view to reaching an agreement wherein the terms serve as a code of defining the rights and obligations of each party in their employment/industrial relations with one another".

1. Collective :-because both the employer and the employee act as a group rather than as individuals.

2. Bargaining :- because the method of reaching an agreement involves proposals and counter proposals, offers and counter offers and other negotiations.

3. It is a technique adopted by two parties to reach an understanding acceptable to both.

WORK COMMITTEES

- Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, every establishment employing 100 or more workers is required to constitute a works committee

- It consists of equal number of representatives from the employer and the employees.

- The main purpose of this committee is to provide measures for securing and preserving amity and good relations between the employer and the employees.

- Purpose is to promote good industrial relations.

- Representatives of employees will be selected by secret ballot. \

Shop / Department Council

- Government of India on the 30th of October 1975 announced a new scheme in WPM.

- In every Industrial establishment employing 500 or more workmen, the employer shall constitute a shop council.

- Shop council represents each department or a shop in a unit.

- Each shop council consists of an equal number of representatives from both employer and employees.

- The employers' representatives will be nominated by the management and must consist of persons within the establishment.

- The workers' representatives will be from among the workers of the department or shop concerned.

- The total number of employees may not exceed 12.

- All decisions taken will be implemented within one month.

- Duration of Shop council is two months.

- Shop council has to meet at least once in a month.

BOARD REPRESENTATION

- This would be the highest form of industrial democracy.

- The workers' representative on the Board can play a useful role in safeguarding the interests of workers.

- The worker can serve as a guide and a control element.

- The worker can prevail top management not to take measures that would be unpopular with the employees.

The worker can guide the Board members on matters of investment in employee benefit schemes like housing, and so forth.

1. Workers Ownership of Enterprise

This involves making the workers' shareholders of the company by inducing them to buy equity shares.

- In many cases, advances and financial assistance in the form of easy repayment options are extended to enable employees to buy equity shares.

Examples of this method are available in the manufacturing as well as the service sector.

- **Advantage**: Makes the workers committed to the job and to the organization.

- **Drawback**: Effect on participation is limited because ownership and management are two different things.

Quality Circles

It consists of seven to ten people from the same work area who meet regularly to define, analyze, and solve quality and related problems in their area.

- These circles require a lot of time and commitment on the part of members for regular meetings, analysis, brainstorming etc

- Most QCs have a definite life cycle – one to three years. Few circles survive beyond this limit either because they loose steam or they face simple problems.

- QCs can be an excellent bridge between participative and non-participative approaches.

- QCs are said to provide quick , concrete, and impressive results when correctly implemented

KAIZEN

- It is also called as "Continuous Improvement"

- It is a policy of constantly introducing small incremental changes in a business in order to improve quality and/or efficiency.

- This approach assumes that employees are the best people to identify room for improvement, since they see the processes in action all the time.

- A firm that uses this approach therefore has to have a culture that encourages and rewards employees for their contribution to the process.

Pre-requisites for successful participation:-

- Strong & Democratic union.

- Mutually agreed objectives which should be clearly defined & complementary.

- Feeling of participation at all levels.

- Favourable attitude of all.

- Training of participants is essential.

- Prompt action & feedback.

- Free flow of communication and information.

- Participation of outside trade union leaders to be avoided

- Strong and effective trade unionism.

- Workers' education and training.

- Lack of positive attitude.

- Trade unions and government needs to work in this area.

- Trust between both the parties.

- Employees cannot spend all their time in participation to the exclusion of all other work

How can WPM be more effective?

- Employer should adopt a progressive outlook. They should consider the industry as a jointendeavour in which workers have an equal say. Workers should be provided and enlightened about the benefits of their participation in the management.

- Employers and workers should agree on the objectives of the industry. They should recognize and respect the rights of each other.

- Workers and their representatives should be provided education and training in the philosophy and process of participative management. Workers should be made aware of the benefits of participative management.

- There should be effective communication between workers and management and effective consultation of workers by the management in decisions that have an impact on them.

- Participation should be a continuous process. To begin with, participation should start at the operating level of management.

- A mutual co-operation and commitment to participation must be developed by both management and labor.

Modern scholars are of the mind that the old adage "a worker is a worker, a manager is a manager; never the twain shall meet" should be replaced by "managers and workers are partners in the progress of business".

ERGONOMICS

Ergonomics (or human factors) is the scientific discipline concerned with the understanding of interactions among humans and other elements of a system, and the profession that applies theory, principles, data and methods to design in order to optimize human well-being and overall system performance.

Ergonomics is defined as the science related to man and his work, embodying the anatomic, physiologic, and mechanical principles affecting the efficient use of human energy.

- The science of fitting worksites to people. It focuses on designing workstations, tools and tasks with an eye toward safety, efficiency and comfort. Effective ergonomic design promotes comfort, reduces workplace injuries and increases job satisfaction and productivity.

Early Development

- Early man used tools like sharpened stones to make tasks easier

- Work related injuries are dated back to the 16th century

Later Development

- During World War I, plane cockpits were so ergonomically inefficient, it was causing accidents. This had a huge push for ergonomic advancements into today.

Ergonomic Factors

- Floor Plan

  Factor empty space in front of filing cabinets to fully extend drawers, plus at least 18 additional inches if the drawers will be accessed by a person standing in front of them.

  Allow at least 36 inches for walkway

- Colour

  Colours should be chosen based on lighting conditions, temperature fluctuations and working atmosphere.

  Warm colours such as yellow, gold, peach, copper or beige assist in providing the sensation that the atmosphere is warmer.

- Lighting

  poor lighting conditions in offices, can cause eyestrain, eye irritation, blurred vision, headaches or even stiff necks and aches in the shoulders, as workers adjust work areas to avoid glare.

Lamps & anti-glare screens should be used to control lighting and glare.

- Acoustics

  The scientific study of sound, especially of its generation, transmission, and reception which includes the qualities or properties of an enclosed space in transmitting sound.

  Noise that is offensive to the office professional should be controlled as it diminishes efficiency and decreases productivity (Fulton-Calkins & Hanks, 2004) as it distorts communication, affects concentration, and increases irritability and fatigue.

- The most common sources of irritating noise within an office are conversations, telephones and other office equipment; such as computers, air-conditioned units, fax machines and lighting fixtures.

- **To control noise:**

  - Purchase silent equipment or install rubber pads or isolation damping devices under noisy equipment (to reduce vibrations and transmission to furniture and floors)

  - Place equipment in a separate room/enclosure or further away from the general area of work.

  - Install acoustical panels, carpeting, draperies and acoustical ceilings.

  - Provide conference rooms for small to large group meetings.

- Ventilation

  A comfortable environment should be provided with respect to humidity and temperature as extremes in humidification levels can influence how comfortable a worker will be .

  High humidity makes people wet, clammy and irritable.

  Low humidity dries out the nasal and respiratory passages.

- Furniture & Equipment

  Office furnishings should have adjustable components that enable the user to modify the workstation to accommodate different physical dimensions and the requirements of the job.

  Should eliminate static or awkward posture, repetitive motion, poor access or inadequate clearance and excessive reach, displays that are difficult to read and understand, and controls that are confusing to operate or require too much force.

Benefits of ergonomics

- Some benefits for the employee may include:

  - An increase in comfort and job satisfaction.

  - Decrease in physical stress.

  - Can save time leaving more hours to do other work.

- Some benefits for the employer may include:

  - Improvement in morale at the work place

  - Improvement in productivity

LOSS OF WORK

Loss of work occurs in an organisation when a company's work suffers due to human and non human sources in the environment:

The reasons for loss of work in a company are as follows:

I. Absenteeism

Absenteeism means being absent from work. Employees may take a leave or not report to work for a variety of reasons. Some of these may be uncontrollable factors like sickness, emergency, accidents etc.

However, employees may also take leave when they are capable to attend work. This may result out of low motivation levels and dissatisfaction with one's work. Unscheduled leaves hurt a company the most. Absenteeism presents a huge cost to the company and thus should be monitored closely.

It is the responsibility of the Human Resource Department to communicate the attendance policy clearly to the employees. At the same time, it has to develop HR policies to raise the motivation levels of employees and decrease absenteeism due to culpable reasons. The company should take steps to engage the employees so that they enjoy their work and are absent only for genuine reasons.

Absenteeism can be measured as:

$$\text{Absenteeism (in a month)} = \frac{\text{No of absent days in a month}}{\text{Average headcount of employees} * \text{no of working days in a month}}$$

10

Causes of the absenteeism

The rate of the absenteeism in Indian industries is very high and cannot be dismissed. A Statistical study of absenteeism of Indian Labour observed that, the basic cause of absenteeism in India is that industrial worker is still part-time peasant. Thus the workers go to find jobs at cities after the harvesting their crops. It means that when the transplanting season. These workers consider to the modern industrialism is insecure. Thus, cause to high rate of the absenteeism in the industrial sector.

According to the Labour Investigation Committee (1946), there were many reasons that caused the absenteeism of the industrial workers. The Commission pointed out many factors which caused the absenteeism in Indian industries. These factors are:

1. Sickness and low vitality: The committee pointed out that sickness is most important responsible for absenteeism in almost of the in Industrial sector. Epidemics like

cholera, small-pox and malaria always break out in severe from in most industrial areas. The low vitality of the Indian workers makes them easy prey to such epidemics and bad housing and unsanitary conditions of living aggravate the trouble. However, the Commission has been noticed that the rate of absenteeism among the female workers is higher than their male counterparts.

2. Means of Transport: The Commission also stated that the transport facilities also play very important to contribute the absenteeism of the worker in the industries. It has been pointed out that, the rate of absenteeism is higher in those factories where transport facilities are not easily available as compared to those where such facilities are easily available or provided by the factory itself.

3. Hours of work: The long hours of work also affect the workers' efficiency and consequently their sickness rate and absenteeism rate are increased.

4. Nightshift: It has also been pointed out that there is a greater percentage of absenteeism during the nightshifts than in the dayshifts, owing to the greater discomforts of work during the night-time.

5. Rural exodus: The committee also pointed out that probably the most predominant cause of absenteeism is the frequent urge of rural exodus. It has been noticed that the workers go back to their villages at the time of harvesting and sowing the crops. It increases the rate of absenteeism in factories.

6. Accident: Industrial accident depends upon the nature of work to be performed by the worker and his ability for doing that work. In case of hazardous nature of job, the accidents occur more frequently which lead to higher rate of absenteeism.

7. Social and religious Function: it has been noticed that workers become absent form their duty on occasions of social and religious functions. Since the workers like to join their families on such occasions, they go back to their villages for like to join short periods.

8. Drinking and amusement: the Labour Investigation committee pointed out that drinking and amusements are also responsible for absenteeism. Since drinking and amusements in the late hours of night make it difficult for the workers to reach in time on their duties. They like to become absent rather than late since they know that badli workers will be substituted for them, if they are late.

9.After Pay-Day: the Labour Investigation committee also noted the level of absenteeism is comparatively high immediately after the pay-day because they get their wages, they feel like having a good time or return to their villages to make purchases for the family and to meet them, so the absenteeism is high after they got paid.

10. Nature of work: the absenteeism rate is also affected by the nature of work. According to Prof. William pointed out that absenteeism prevails because workers are not accustomed to the factory life and factory discipline. In other words, absenteeism prevails because the nature of work in factories is different from that for which the worker is accustomed. So when they come to work in the factory, they feel strange, this new situation make them uncomfortable, so lead to high rate of absenteeism of the industrial workers.

11. Other causes : The above factor which are caused the absenteeism in the Industrial which are pointed out briefly by the Labour Commission. However, there can be tow other factors which caused the absenteeism in industrial sector. These factors are: a) personal Factors and b) workplace factors**.**

A. Personal factor: The personal factor also divided into other sub-factors, these are:

*i. Personal Attitude***:** there are different attitude of employees. The Employees with strong workplace ethics will respect their work and appreciate the contribution they make to their companies. Such employees will not engage themselves in taking unscheduled off. On the other hand, employees with very low or no work ethics are indiscipline and have lot of integrity and behavioural issues. Since, they feel no obligation towards the company, absenteeism comes easily to them.

*ii. Age***:** The younger employees are often restless. They want to spend time with their friends and have fun, rather than being tied down with work responsibility. This lack of ownership often leads them to take unauthorized time off. With age, people gain experience and maturity, which makes them focused and responsible. Their approach is rather professional and they prefer to stick to their chairs to get the work done. If ever they are found absent, then it could be due to sickness.

*iii .Seniority***:** Employees, who have been with the company for a long time are well-adjusted with the working culture and the job, therefore, they find no reason to be absent without permission. On the other hand, new hires are more prone to taking ad hoc breaks to unwind themselves.

*iv. Gender***:** Women generally do a balancing act by shuffling their time between home and work. Family, being their foremost priority, they don't think twice before taking a step towards absenteeism.

C. **Workplace Factors**

D. *i. Stress***:** The pressure at work sometimes takes a toll on the employees. This results in increased levels of stress. The employees then resort to excuses that can help them stay away from work.

E. *ii. Work Routine***:** Doing the same job over a period of time can get monotonous. The employees find the job functions boring. They rather choose time off to do something interesting than come to work.

F. *iii. Job Satisfaction***:** If employees do not find their job challenging, dissatisfaction creeps in. That leads to more absenteeism in the workplace.

The rate of absenteeism can be reduced by making provisions for:

- a) Improving the working condition in the factory
- b) Providing adequate wages,
- c) Protection from accident and sickness
- d) Providing facilities for obtaining leave for rest
- e) Suitable housing facilities
- f) Creating a sense of responsibility in workers towards industry
- g) Workers participation in the management of industry,
- h) Introducing incentive wage scheme and linking wages and bonus with production
- i) And adequate transport facilities
- j) Besides, an affectionate and mild behaviour of the employer will be helpful in reducing the rate of absenteeism.
- The employers should consider the above provisions for the workers , if the above provision are provided to employees, the absenteeism of the workers will be decreased and in return the standard of living of the workers is increased and in return the productivity efficiency of the workers also increase , in contrast the cost of the production is decreased . so the employers can earn maximum profits and the industrial peace and industrial harmony take place in the industry.

II. Death of an employee

Death of an employee is an unfortunate event in any organisation. It also causes loss of work in the organisation. Due to its unforeseen nature, there is no apparent solution to this issue.

III. Expulsion of an employee

Expulsion of employees generally takes place when an employee is found in some unlawful activities which is against the corporation or he is failed to discharge his duties and is expelled on following grounds:

➢ If he is a persistent defaulter

➢ If he willfully deceives the society by false statement (s)

➢ If he intentionally does any act likely to injure the credit of the society.

➢ If he fails to pay his monthly dues for three successive months

EMPLOYMENT

An organisation performs the function of employment in various ways. There are three major ways in which employment function is performed by an organisation. They are as follows:

I.MANPOWER PLANNING

Manpower Planning which is also called as Human Resource Planning consists of putting right number of people, right kind of people at the right place, right time, doing the right things for which they are suited for the achievement of goals of the organization. Human Resource Planning has got an important place in the arena of industrialization. Human Resource Planning has to be a systems approach and is carried out in a set procedure. The procedure is as follows:

Steps in Manpower Planning

1. Analysing the current manpower inventory- Before a manager makes forecast of future manpower, the current manpower status has to be analysed. For this the following things have to be noted-
   - Type of organization
   - Number of departments
   - Number and quantity of such departments
   - Employees in these work units

   Once these factors are registered by a manager, he goes for the future forecasting.

2. Making future manpower forecasts- Once the factors affecting the future manpower forecasts are known, planning can be done for the future manpower requirements in several work units.

   The Manpower forecasting techniques commonly employed by the organizations are as follows:

   i.   Expert Forecasts: This includes informal decisions, formal expert surveys and Delphi technique.
   ii. Trend Analysis: Manpower needs can be projected through extrapolation (projecting past trends), indexation (using base year as basis), and statistical analysis (central tendency measure).
   iii. Work Load Analysis: It is dependent upon the nature of work load in a department, in a branch or in a division.
   iv. Work Force Analysis: Whenever production and time period has to be analysed, due allowances have to be made for getting net manpower requirements.
   v.   Other methods: Several Mathematical models, with the aid of computers are used to forecast manpower needs, like budget and planning analysis, regression, new venture analysis.

3. Developing employment programmes- Once the current inventory is compared with future forecasts, the employment programmes can be framed and developed

accordingly, which will include recruitment, selection procedures and placement plans.

4. Design training programmes- These will be based upon extent of diversification, expansion plans, development programmes,etc. Training programmes depend upon the extent of improvement in technology and advancement to take place. It is also done to improve upon the skills, capabilities, knowledge of the workers.

Importance of Manpower Planning

1. Key to managerial functions- The four managerial functions, i.e., planning, organizing, directing and controlling are based upon the manpower. Human resources help in the implementation of all these managerial activities. Therefore, staffing becomes a key to all managerial functions.

2. Efficient utilization- Efficient management of personnels becomes an important function in the industrialization world of today. Seting of large scale enterprises require management of large scale manpower. It can be effectively done through staffing function.

3. Motivation- Staffing function not only includes putting right men on right job, but it also comprises of motivational programmes, i.e., incentive plans to be framed for further participation and employment of employees in a concern. Therefore, all types of incentive plans becomes an integral part of staffing function.

4. Better human relations- A concern can stabilize itself if human relations develop and are strong. Human relations become strong trough effective control, clear communication, effective supervision and leadership in a concern. Staffing function also looks after training and development of the work force which leads to co-operation and better human relations.

5. Higher productivity- Productivity level increases when resources are utilized in best possible manner. higher productivity is a result of minimum wastage of time, money, efforts and energies. This is possible through the staffing and it's related activities (Performance appraisal, training and development, remuneration)

Need of Manpower Planning

Manpower Planning is a two-phased process because manpower planning not only analyses the current human resources but also makes manpower forecasts and thereby draw employment programmes. Manpower Planning is advantageous to firm in following manner:
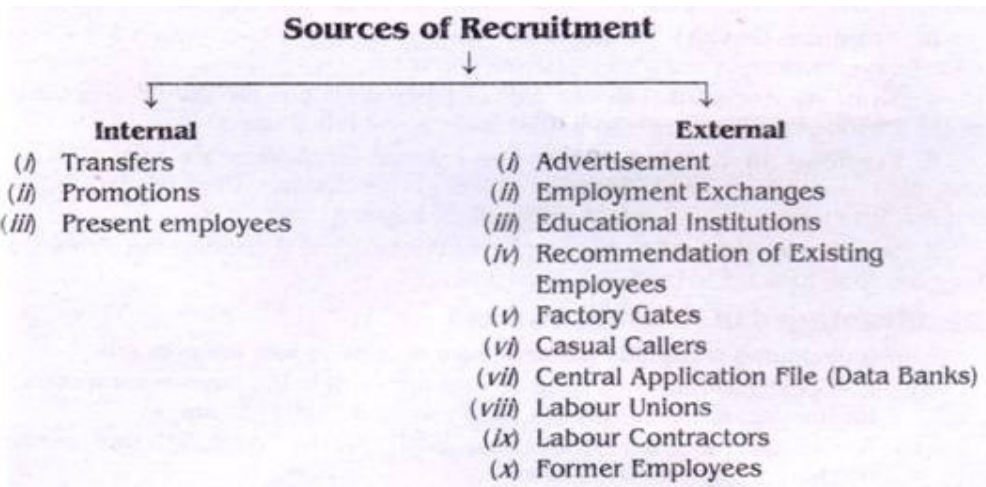
1. Shortages and surpluses can be identified so that quick action can be taken wherever required.
2. All the recruitment and selection programmes are based on manpower planning.
3. It also helps to reduce the labour cost as excess staff can be identified and thereby overstaffing can be avoided.
4. It also helps to identify the available talents in a concern and accordingly training programmes can be chalked out to develop those talents.
5. It helps in growth and diversification of business. Through manpower planning, human resources can be readily available and they can be utilized in best manner.
6. It helps the organization to realize the importance of manpower management which ultimately helps in the stability of a concern.

II.RECRUITMENT

Recruitment refers to the overall process of attracting, selecting and appointing suitable candidates for jobs within an organization, either permanent or temporary. Recruitment can also refer to processes involved in choosing individuals for unpaid positions, such as voluntary roles or training programmes

The searching of suitable candidates and informing them about the openings in the enterprise is the most important aspect of recruitment process.

The candidates may be available inside or outside the organisation. Basically, there are two sources of recruitment i.e., internal and external sources.

Sources of Recruitment

Internal	External
(i) Transfers	(i) Advertisement
(ii) Promotions	(ii) Employment Exchanges
(iii) Present employees	(iii) Educational Institutions
	(iv) Recommendation of Existing Employees
	(v) Factory Gates
	(vi) Casual Callers
	(vii) Central Application File (Data Banks)
	(viii) Labour Unions
	(ix) Labour Contractors
	(x) Former Employees

(A) Internal Sources:

Best employees can be found within the organisation… When a vacancy arises in the organisation, it may be given to an employee who is already on the pay-roll. Internal sources include promotion, transfer and in certain cases demotion. When a higher post is given to a deserving employee, it motivates all other employees of the organisation to work hard. The employees can be informed of such a vacancy by internal advertisement.

Methods of Internal Sources:

The Internal Sources Are Given Below:

1. Transfers:

Transfer involves shifting of persons from present jobs to other similar jobs. These do not involve any change in rank, responsibility or prestige. The numbers of persons do not increase with transfers.

2. Promotions:

Promotions refer to shifting of persons to positions carrying better prestige, higher responsibilities and more pay. The higher positions falling vacant may be filled up from within the organisation. A promotion does not increase the number of persons in the organisation.

A person going to get a higher position will vacate his present position. Promotion will motivate employees to improve their performance so that they can also get promotion.

3. Present Employees:

The present employees of a concern are informed about likely vacant positions. The employees recommend their relations or persons intimately known to them. Management is relieved of looking out prospective candidates.

The persons recommended by the employees may be generally suitable for the jobs because they know the requirements of various positions. The existing employees take full responsibility of those recommended by them and also ensure of their proper behaviour and performance.

<div align="center">Advantages of Internal Sources:</div>

The Following are The Advantages of Internal Sources:

1. Improves morale:

When an employee from inside the organisation is given the higher post, it helps in increasing the morale of all employees. Generally every employee expects promotion to a higher post carrying more status and pay (if he fulfills the other requirements).

2. No Error in Selection:

When an employee is selected from inside, there is a least possibility of errors in selection since every company maintains complete record of its employees and can judge them in a better manner.

3. Promotes Loyalty:

It promotes loyalty among the employees as they feel secured on account of chances of advancement.

4. No Hasty Decision:

The chances of hasty decisions are completely eliminated as the existing employees are well tried and can be relied upon.

5. Economy in Training Costs:

The existing employees are fully aware of the operating procedures and policies of the organisation. The existing employees require little training and it brings economy in training costs.

6. Self-Development:

It encourages self-development among the employees as they can look forward to occupy higher posts.

Disadvantages of Internal Sources:

(i) It discourages capable persons from outside to join the concern.

(ii) It is possible that the requisite number of persons possessing qualifications for the vacant posts may not be available in the organisation.

(iii) For posts requiring innovations and creative thinking, this method of recruitment cannot be followed.

(iv) If only seniority is the criterion for promotion, then the person filling the vacant post may not be really capable.

Inspite of the disadvantages, it is frequently used as a source of recruitment for lower positions. It may lead to nepotism and favouritism. The employees may be employed on the basis of their recommendation and not suitability.

(B) External Sources:

All organisations have to use external sources for recruitment to higher positions when existing employees are not suitable. More persons are needed when expansions are undertaken.

The external sources are discussed below:

Methods of External Sources:

1. Advertisement:

It is a method of recruitment frequently used for skilled workers, clerical and higher staff. Advertisement can be given in newspapers and professional journals. These advertisements attract applicants in large number of highly variable quality.

Preparing good advertisement is a specialised task. If a company wants to conceal its name, a 'blind advertisement' may be given asking the applicants to apply to Post Bag or Box Number or to some advertising agency.

2. Employment Exchanges:

Employment exchanges in India are run by the Government. For unskilled, semi-skilled, skilled, clerical posts etc., it is often used as a source of recruitment. In certain cases it has been made obligatory for the business concerns to notify their vacancies to the employment exchange. In the past, employers used to turn to these agencies only as a last resort. The job-seekers and job-givers are brought into contact by the employment exchanges.

3. Schools, Colleges and Universities:

Direct recruitment from educational institutions for certain jobs (i.e. placement) which require technical or professional qualification has become a common practice. A close liaison between the company and educational institutions helps in getting suitable candidates. The students are spotted during the course of their studies. Junior level executives or managerial trainees may be recruited in this way.

4. Recommendation of Existing Employees:

The present employees know both the company and the candidate being recommended. Hence some companies encourage their existing employees to assist them in getting applications from persons who are known to them.

In certain cases rewards may also be given if candidates recommended by them are actually selected by the company. If recommendation leads to favouritism, it will impair the morale of employees.

5. Factory Gates:

Certain workers present themselves at the factory gate every day for employment. This method of recruitment is very popular in India for unskilled or semi-skilled labour. The desirable candidates are selected by the first line supervisors. The major disadvantage of this system is that the person selected may not be suitable for the vacancy.

6. Casual Callers:

Those personnel who casually come to the company for employment may also be considered for the vacant post. It is most economical method of recruitment. In the advanced countries, this method of recruitment is very popular.

7. Central Application File:

A file of past applicants who were not selected earlier may be maintained. In order to keep the file alive, applications in the files must be checked at periodical intervals.

8. Labour Unions:

In certain occupations like construction, hotels, maritime industry etc., (i.e., industries where there is instability of employment) all recruits usually come from unions. It is advantageous from the management point of view because it saves expenses of recruitment. However, in other industries, unions may be asked to recommend candidates either as a goodwill gesture or as a courtesy towards the union.

9. Labour Contractors:

This method of recruitment is still prevalent in India for hiring unskilled and semi-skilled workers in brick klin industry. The contractors keep themselves in touch with the labour and bring the workers at the places where they are required. They get commission for the number of persons supplied by them.

10. Former Employees:

In case employees have been laid off or have left the factory at their own, they may be taken back if they are interested in joining the concern (provided their record is good).

11. Other Sources:

Apart from these major sources of external recruitment, there are certain other sources which are exploited by companies from time to time. These include special lectures delivered by recruiter in different institutions, though apparently these lectures do not pertain to recruitment directly.

Then there are video films which are sent to various concerns and institutions so as to show the history and development of the company. These films present the story of company to various audiences, thus creating interest in them.

Various firms organise trade shows which attract many prospective employees. Many a time advertisements may be made for a special class of work force (say married ladies) who worked prior to their marriage.

These ladies can also prove to be very good source of work force. Similarly there is the labour market consisting of physically handicapped. Visits to other companies also help in finding new sources of recruitment.

Merits of External Sources:

1. Availability of Suitable Persons:

Internal sources, sometimes, may not be able to supply suitable persons from within. External sources do give a wide choice to the management. A large number of applicants may be willing to join the organisation. They will also be suitable as per the requirements of skill, training and education.

2. Brings New Ideas:

The selection of persons from outside sources will have the benefit of new ideas. The persons having experience in other concerns will be able to suggest new things and methods. This will keep the organisation in a competitive position.

3. Economical:

This method of recruitment can prove to be economical because new employees are already trained and experienced and do not require much training for the jobs.

Demerits of External Sources:

1. Demoralisation:

When new persons from outside join the organisation then present employees feel demoralised because these positions should have gone to them. There can be a heart burning among old employees. Some employees may even leave the enterprise and go for better avenues in other concerns.

2. Lack of Co-Operation:

The old staff may not co-operate with the new employees because they feel that their right has been snatched away by them. This problem will be acute especially when persons for higher positions are recruited from outside.

3. Expensive:

The process of recruiting from outside is very expensive. It starts with inserting costly advertisements in the media and then arranging written tests and conducting interviews. In spite of all this if suitable persons are not available, then the whole process will have to be repeated.

4. Problem of Maladjustment:

There may be a possibility that the new entrants have not been able to adjust in the new environment. They may not temperamentally adjust with the new persons. In such cases either the persons may leave themselves or management may have to replace them. These things have adverse effect on the working of the organisation.

<div align="center">Suitability of External Sources of Recruitment:</div>

External Sources of Recruitment are Suitable for The Following Reasons:

(i) The required qualities such as will, skill, talent, knowledge etc., are available from external sources.

(ii) It can help in bringing new ideas, better techniques and improved methods to the organisation.

(iii) The selection of candidates will be without preconceived notions or reservations.

(iv) The cost of employees will be minimum because candidates selected in this method will be placed in the minimum pay scale.

(v) The entry of new persons with varied experience and talent will help in human resource mix.

(vi) The existing employees will also broaden their personality.

(vii) The entry of qualitative persons from outside will be in the long-run interest of the organisation.

III.SELECTION

The process of interviewing and evaluating candidates for a specific job and selecting an individual for employment based on certain criteria. Employee selection can range from a very simple process to a very complicated process depending on the firm hiring and the position.

PROCESS / STEPS IN SELECTION

1. **Preliminary Interview:** The purpose of preliminary interviews is basically to eliminate unqualified applications based on information supplied in application forms. The basic objective is to reject misfits. On the other hands preliminary interviews is often called a courtesy interview and is a good public relations exercise.

2. **Selection Tests:** Jobseekers who past the preliminary interviews are called for tests. There are various types of tests conducted depending upon the jobs and the company. These tests can be Aptitude Tests, Personality Tests, and Ability Tests and are conducted to judge how well an individual can perform tasks related to the job. Besides this there are some other tests also like Interest Tests (activity preferences), Graphology Test (Handwriting), Medical Tests, Psychometric Tests etc.

3. **Employment Interview:** The next step in selection is employment interview. Here interview is a formal and in-depth conversation between applicant's acceptability. It is considered to be an excellent selection device. Interviews can be One-to-One, Panel Interview, or Sequential Interviews. Besides there can be Structured and Unstructured interviews, Behavioral Interviews, Stress Interviews.

4. **Reference & Background Checks:** Reference checks and background checks are conducted to verify the information provided by the candidates. Reference checks can be through formal letters, telephone conversations. However it is merely a formality and selections decisions are seldom affected by it.

5. **Selection Decision:** After obtaining all the information, the most critical step is the selection decision is to be made. The final decision has to be made out of applicants who have passed preliminary interviews, tests, final interviews and reference checks. The views of line managers are considered generally because it is the line manager who is responsible for the performance of the new employee.

6. **Physical Examination:** After the selection decision is made, the candidate is required to undergo a physical fitness test. A job offer is often contingent upon the candidate passing the physical examination.

7. **Job Offer:** The next step in selection process is job offer to those applicants who have crossed all the previous hurdles. It is made by way of letter of appointment.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment (or **joblessness**) occurs when people are without work and actively seeking work

An organisation causes unemployment in the following cases:

1.Expulsion of an employee

2. Retirement of employee

3. Seasonal nature of company's product

4. Death of an employee

5. Lay offs

Redundancy

Redundancy occurs when the organisation you work for no longer needs you to continue doing your job, and your employment ceases. There could be several reasons why this might occur :

The organisation itself may no longer exist, for example if a company goes into bankruptcy or a particular site or department closes down.

The organisation may need to save money by trimming its wage bill.

Changes in the organisation's work practices make the work you do no longer necessary. This might happen, for example, when new technology is adopted, the organisation decides to cease involvement in certain kinds of activities, or it may result from the merger of two previously separate organisations.

The definition of redundancy is important because redundancy has a special status within the law. Workers have specific protections enshrined in legislation which mean that the redundancy process is carefully regulated. When making workers redundant, employers must do it in a certain way. If they fail to do it in the correct way, there is scope for the former employees to bring claims for compensation against them.

In addition, the complex of rules and regulations surrounding employment is such that an unscrupulous employer may sometimes try to get around them by disguising redundancy as something else, or something else as redundancy, whichever may be most advantageous from their point of view.

For example, an employer may decide he doesn't like you because you have dark skin or because you're a wiccan. He wants to get rid of you. But sacking a worker because of race or religion amounts to illegal discrimination, which can give rise to expensive claims. Claiming that the worker is being made redundant because of business conditions may allow the employer to get round the law.

Conversely, making a worker redundant is sometimes an expensive process. The law provides for statutory minimum redundancy payments and sometimes employment contracts specify even more generous treatment. These payments increase in value based on the length of service, so if a worker has been with the firm for a long time, they might amount to a sizeable sum. To avoid having to make these payments, the employer might try to harass the worker into deciding to quit their job.

Managing redundancy - adopting a 7-step approach

Outplacement is a valuable and effective tool in redundancy management. Corporations who choose to provide outplacement services to employees are seen to value and respect the contribution made by individuals during the course of their employment. There are 7 key stages to good redundancy management.

Stage 1 - strategy:

There are many factors that influence an organisation and result in a review of process and people with the aim of reducing costs to improve effectiveness, productivity and competitiveness, often as a result of market downturn; falling profits; funding or cash flow crisis; outsourcing; company merger; or loss of a major contract.

Involving senior hr professionals in the earliest stages of the downsizing process is an important part of the planning phase. All the organisation's leaders should be trained both to manage the process and to deal with their own emotional reactions to change.

When redundancy is under consideration, whether one employee or several, having a clear strategy for consultation, implementation and communication is crucial. Developing strategies to support those employees who are leaving, but equally those who remain is considered best practice, and has a number of benefits.

Stage 2 - minimising redundancies:

Having developed a plan, in consultation with all key stakeholders, the next phase is to carefully examine all avenues for minimising job cuts and the damaging effects of redundancy. With this objective in mind, the following methods have all been used successfully by a variety of organisations:

• building flexibility by re-evaluating working hours.

• redeployment into other areas of the business.

• flexible work practices such as job sharing schemes and part-time working arrangements.

• early retirement, natural wastage and voluntary retrenchments.

• voluntary pay cuts.

An approach which is honest, and as open as possible, not only reduces the devastating effect on the staff, but also benefits the management and the success of the plans for recovery, streamlining or downsizing. Organisations need a clear strategy to retain key staff long term and retain others until the organisation is ready to let them go. Financial incentives often in the form of long-stay or retention bonuses, communication and good management are among the most successful methods used.

Stage 3 – selection:

Having worked through stages 1 & 2 above, care and attention needs to be given to selecting the positions and people. Key actions include:

• establishing the criteria to determine which positions should be selected.

• giving individual consideration to each position. Consider whether this position will be needed again in the near future, how the work will be managed or dispersed, and the impact on staff in a similar position.

Stage 4 – notification:

one of a senior manager's most unpleasant duties is to announce their restructure and redundancy decision, taken with the organisation's best interests at heart that results in a valued colleague being forced to look for new employment. Consider the manner in which you would wish to be treated and how you would respond to a threat to your livelihood - care and empathy is essential. All the organisation's leaders should be trained both to manage this highly sensitive event and to deal with their own emotional reactions the change represents. Redundancy can be one of the most stressful life experiences. Even when generous redundancy packages are involved this can still be a devastating blow. As a manager:

• look into each individual's personal situation beforehand so that you have some understanding of the problems they may face.
• aim to provide appropriate support, either via an outplacement service or directly. Explain the process and procedure carefully and follow this up in writing.

• remember, the affected individuals are likely to be ill equipped for positioning themselves in the job market and often feel confused, isolated, angry and afraid. Finding another position is a full time occupation.

Stage 5 selecting an outplacement provider:

A good organisation will endeavour to provide support and assistance to cushion the blow and help their people to make the transition. An appropriate outplacement service is a big advantage. Studies show that an external outplacement service is better received and far more effective than in-house measures.

If required, outplacement consultants will work with the organisation through the entire process, at certain stages of the process or in the identification and provision of an appropriate outplacement program. The outplacement consultant can also be available on site at the time of the announcement.

Stage 6 - stabilisation:

Having provided support and assistance to those directly affected, you need to turn your attention to those indirectly affected; in varying degrees this includes all members of the workforce on whom the future of the organisation depends. Their emotional reaction to the change needs to be considered and promptly addressed. A complex, emotional response is often displayed by those left behind, shock and relief, but also anger and anxiety. By implementing redundancies you will have sown the seeds of doubt about the security of their position. Those remaining need to feel confident that the crisis is over and the company is

doing all it can to avoid any further redundancies.

Good communication during this period of uncertainty is crucial and goes hand in glove with management presence and visibility. In your initial planning, ensure that you have included measures to cover this period of transition. Ensure the organisation's actions support the reasons for the upheaval. Do not suddenly burden remaining staff with a departing colleague's workload.

Open all lines of communication both formal and informal so that any grievances or concerns can be expressed and dealt with; check individual understanding of the reasons for redundancy and establish how staff feel about the manner in which the situation has been managed.

Stage 7 - evaluation:

Managing redundancy is never easy. However the adverse effects can be substantially reduced through adopting this 7-step approach to managing retrenchment. Essential to the process is good communication; careful analysis and planning; effective consultation; sensitivity in approach; and the provision of appropriate support, assistance, and good on-going support.

Evaluate the process and delivery with remaining staff and develop a clear policy for the organisation going forward.

Managing redundancy

When the position held by a member of staff, on a tenurable/tenured, ongoing or fixed-term contract, ceases to exist or becomes surplus to requirements, the job is declared redundant. This results in a range of alternative career options for affected staff and requires a review and assessment of existing structures and responsibilities within the affected area.

The university of Western Australia is committed to ensuring that all staff without a position as a result of redundancy and, therefore, facing career change, will be provided with assistance to re-establish themselves.

The immediate day-to-day management for individual cases is the direct responsibility of the relevant head of school or supervisor.

It is the responsibility of affected staff, to take advantage of the range of support mechanisms available to help them evaluate the options they may have.

In general this requires that they:

- Identify their skills and career preferences

- Gather information about available options

- Develop and implement an action plan to effect the preferred option

RETIREMENT

Retirement is the point in time when an employee chooses to leave his or her employment permanently. Retirement is the point where a person stops employment completely. Different organisations have different age limits to define retirement. For example the government of India has set the retirement age as 60 years. When a government employee gets 60 years old, he is entitled to retirement. Spometimes employees also decide to go for a retirement.
An employee may choose retirement for reasons other than the wish to stop working.
Employees may suffer ill health or debilitating physical problems that require retirement.
Family problems and responsibilities may require retirement.

An employer may require employees to take early retirement in order to cut costs and preserve the business. Whatever the reason, retirement from employment marks the start of the next chapter of an employee's life.
Employees choose diverse methods of retirement. They may leave employment completely or start a second career or part-time work while retired. They may semi-retire or pursue phased retirement during which they gradually decrease the number of hours worked.
Some employees retire and then return to work for their same employer in a part time, temporary, or consulting role.

So, in the corporate world the following reasons lead to retirement of an employee-

1. On completion of service (superannuation):
Every employee shall superannuate from the services of the corporation on attaining the age of 60 years. No extension of service would be there beyond the age of 60 except in cases where disciplinary action is pending or contemplated, as already provided. The employee shall be presumed to be aware of the date of retirement of the service until and unless written is provided or information is provided by the personnel department. A letter of appreciation and a sort of notice of superannuation is issued by the authority along with the handout of various benefits that would be made. This is done by his/her departmental head beforethree months of his superannuation.

2.On voluntary retirement:
The voluntary retirement is one of the types of retirement from the service which generally take place before the completion of 60years of service or normal retirement or superannuated employees in case of iocl(aod). The voluntary retirement scheme has been instituted which get effective for a particular period of time according to the direction or the rules set by the indian oil corporation (aod).

3.**Expulsion:**

Expulsion of employees generally takes place when an employee is found in some unlawful activities which is against the corporation or he is failed to discharge his duties and is expelled on following grounds:

> ➢ If he is a persistent defaulter

> ➢ If he willfully deceives the society by false statement (s)

> ➢ If he intentionally does any act likely to injure the credit of the society.

> ➢ If he fails to pay his monthly dues for three successive months

Psychological health in workplace

Organisations rely on having a healthy and productive workforce, and it makes no sense for employers to ignore the wellbeing of their staff. Mental health problems like anxiety, depression and unmanageable stress affect a large number of workers every year. Yet mental health is still a taboo subject, with employers and employees feeling scared and confused about confronting the issue.

Psychological health can be maintained in an organisation which takes care of the following issues:

2. Psychological and Social Support

Refers to the degree of social and emotional integration and trust among co-workers and supervisors. Considers the level of help and assistance provided by others when performing tasks.

Employees perceive their organization:

• Values their contributions

• Are committed to ensuring their psychological well-being and\

• Provides meaningful supports if this well-being is compromised

Coworkers and supervisors

• Are supportive of employees' psychological and mental health

concerns and

•Respond appropriately as needed

3. Clear Leadership and Expectations

There is support that helps employees know:

• What they need to do

• How their work contributes to the organization

Leaders are transformational:

• Change agents who motivate to do more than what is expected

• Concerned with long-term objectives

• Transmit a sense of mission, vision and purpose

• Have charisma

• Give individualized consideration to their employees

• Stimulate intellectual capabilities in others, and inspire

4. Civility and Respect

Employees are respectful and considerate in their interactions with one another, as well as with customers, clients and the public

Show esteem, care and consideration for others, and acknowledge their dignity

5. Psychological Demands

Psychological demands are documented and assessed in conjunction with the physical demands of the job.

Assessments consider time stressors, breaks, incentive systems, job

monotony and repetition and type of work

Employees possess:

• Technical skills and knowledge for their position and

•Psychological skills and emotional intelligence to do the job

6. Growth and Development

Employees receive

•Encouragement and support in the development of their interpersonal, emotional and job skills

• Internal and external opportunities to build competencies

– That will help with current jobs, and

–Also prepare them for possible future positions

7. Recognition and Reward

Acknowledgement and appreciation of employees' efforts provided in a

fair and timely manner:

– Appropriate and regular feedback

–Team celebrations, recognition of years served, and/or milestones reached

8. Involvement and Influence

•Employees included in discussions about how their work is done and how important decisions are made

• Opportunities for involvement may include:

– Worker's specific job design or function

– Team or department activities

–Organizational issues

9. Workload Management

•A work environment where assigned tasks and responsibilities can be accomplished successfully with the time available

• Ensure there is enough work but not too much to do

•Ensure adequate resources, equipment, support to do the work

10. Engagement

Work engagement can be physical, emotional and/or cognitive, examples include:

• Physical exertion put into the job, and energizing

• Emotional engagement exhibits positive job outlook and passionate

•Cognitive engagement includes absorption and attention to work

Employees feel:

• Connected to their work

• Feel motivated to do their job well

•Committed to the overall success and mission of their company

11. Balance

Balance at work is the acceptance of the need for harmony between the demands of work, family,

and personal life

•Everyone has multiple roles: e.g., worker, parent, partner, soccer coach

• Allows fulfillment of individual strengths and responsibilities

• Risk of conflicting responsibilities leading to conflict

or overload

12. Psychological Protection

Work environment ensures that worker psychological safety is ensured and actively promotes emotional well being as well as minimizing threats to worker mental health

Workers feel able to:

- Ask questions

- Seek feedback

- Report mistakes and problems

- Propose a new idea

•Without fearing negative consequences to themselves, their job or their career

13. Protection of Physical Safety

Physical safety is protected from hazards and risks related to the workers physical work environment.

Workers have a sense that:

Organization cares about the physical work environmental impact on mental health

Workers feel safe

Rest and schedule of work pace is reasonable

Health and safety concerns are taken seriously

Training is provided

Psychological demands of the job and environment

are conducted

Organisational responsibility for psychological health

Work can contribute to health and well-being or it can be a source of psychological distress and ill health. Workers in B.C. are also parents, spouses, friends, caregivers of elderly relatives and volunteers in their communities. Stress - a combination of high demands and low control over work demands - can result in health problems. Taking care of your own physical and mental health and achieving balance with competing priorities can be difficult. Organizational wellness initiatives focus on the working environment by changing or improving factors such as leadership style, management practices, the way in which work is organized, employee autonomy and control, and social support. These factors have been shown to have a dramatic impact on employee health outcomes.

Workplaces that promote organizational wellness support both employee health and a strong bottom line, with reduced absenteeism, turnover, health and compensation costs.

Mental health or mental fitness and resilience are resources for everyday living and have the added benefit of helping productivity and retention.

In today's knowledge economy, our brains are doing the 'heavy lifting' and many people face mental health problems during their working years. Mental health issues are a growing concern in our communities and at work.

Workplaces can play a role in promoting positive mental health as well as preventing and managing depression and substance dependence. Too often, mental health problems lead to absent employees or employees who are present, but not fully functioning.

Workplaces can help prevent or respond quickly to problems such as anxiety and depression for workers who experience difficulty. Recognizing the signs and helping people get early treatment is critical. To promote mental health in the workplace, businesses need to target both "coping capacity" of employees and the work environment. Leading workplaces provide employee assistance programs, flexible disability programs, rehabilitation programs and reasonable accommodations for workers with mental health problems. Workplaces need to engage in initiatives aimed at increasing awareness and promoting conversations to reduce the stigma around mental health and mental illness

What employers can do

• Provide information on positive mental health as well as issues such as stress, depression and anxiety.

• Communicate management's commitment to achieving a healthy psychological work environment where employees are able to balance their work, personal and family responsibilities.

• Ensure managers are aware of mental health issues in the workplace and the business costs of not dealing with them. They need to recognize the signs of mental health problems and help people get early treatment.

• Offer workshops, lunch & learn sessions and training to raise awareness and help managers and employees address workplace stress and reduce the stigma of mental health.

• Provide opportunities for employees to discuss and have input on workload, goals and deadlines to help prevent stress and work-life conflict.

• Implement and enforce policies to prevent harassment, bullying and discrimination.

• Support mutual respect as the basis for all workplace relationships.

• Train supervisors and managers so they can support employees to achieve work-life balance.

• Provide employees with flexible schedules and work hours.

• Monitor and discourage unpaid overtime.

• Encourage employees to take all their holiday and vacation time.

• Get employees' input on wellness, mental health and work-life balance through discussions and surveys.

• impartial and supportive supervision structures

• widely publicised and available supervision and support policies

• encouragement and promotion of mental disclosure within the workforce – employees need to feel confident that they can be open about health issues and that they will be taken seriously

• clear guidelines around mental health issues for managers

• detailed records on sickness absence used to analyse causes for absence

• promoted and accessible policies and guidance to challenge inappropriate behaviour such as racism, sexism and bullying.

What employees can do

Achieving good mental health requires a holistic approach. Mental well-being can be affected by relationships with family, friends and coworkers, anger, sleep, financial issues, eating habits and physical activity – and many other factors in your work and other areas of life. Successful action on one requires an understanding of how these factors are inter-connected.

• Understand and try to reduce your main sources of stress both on and off the job.

• In addition to developing coping skills and strategies, also try to reduce or eliminate causes of your stress.

• Try not to "do it all" and try to say "no" to rising work demands.

• Assess your workload to find ways you can control it (such as priority-setting, scheduling, limiting e-mail use).

• Take your allotted holidays and vacation days and plan your workload and schedule accordingly.

• Work with your direct supervisor to find solutions to psychologically unhealthy situations and work overload, and to help you balance work requirements with family and personal responsibilities.

• When you are feeling depressed, anxious, confused or unable to cope, talking to supportive friends, family members, or joining a support group may help. But if that isn't enough, you should consider seeking professional counselling

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