

Chapter 3



Values, attitudes and emotions

Learning Outcomes

When you finish studying the material in this chapter, you should be able to:

- ✓ define values and explain their sources
- ✓ identify and describe Rokeach's instrumental and terminal values
- ✓ explain Schwartz's basic human values model and his related work values model
- ✓ explain how attitudes influence behaviour in terms of the model of planned behaviour
- ✓ describe three key work-related attitudes: organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction
- ✓ discuss the determinants and consequences of job satisfaction
- ✓ distinguish between positive and negative emotions and explain how they can be judged
- ✓ define what emotional intelligence is and which components it implies
- ✓ focus on emotional contagion in the workplace
- ✓ describe what flow is and how it influences organisational behaviour

Opening Case Study: Why insensitivity is a vital managerial trait

When British venture capitalist Jon Moulton was asked in an interview about his three strongest character traits, he replied: ‘Determination, curiosity and insensitivity.’ While the first two are likely to reach the top 10 of leadership traits, we do not often hear the last trait heralded as a personal strength.

But his argument is fairly straightforward: while sensitivity and emotional intelligence have been praised in the last decade as essential management traits, there is still very little (or conflicting) evidence that they are actually positive traits – especially for top managers.

Perhaps insensitivity is essential to survival in business? According to Moulton, insensitivity ‘lets you sleep when others can’t’. Any leader will have to take decisions that will hurt individual people – for the best of the company and the rest of the employees, so being insensitive might help you take that necessary decision without losing sleep over it and postponing the inevitable.

Insensitive leaders have got a bad reputation because their behaviour is seen as arrogant or bullying, but at least, they are a lot simpler to understand and their actions will typically seem more rational.

Of course, there are times when sensitivity and emotional intelligence are called for, but good top managers know this and outsource the touchy-feely stuff to others in the management team to take care of while they make the hard decisions.

For discussion

Do you agree that insensitivity (to some degree) is a necessary leadership trait?

Source: Based on L. Kellaway, ‘Why Insensitivity is a Vital Managerial Trait’, 15 February 2010, *The Irish Times*.

As can be seen in this opening case study, people’s feelings and emotions influence how they behave and perform in an organisation. Professionals who are aware of the importance of people’s internal states can use this information to manage effectively the work environment and increase employee’s job satisfaction.

The concepts of values, attitudes and emotions (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.1) are different from the concepts presented in the previous chapter. Research on values, attitudes and emotions is more recent and is not characterised by the same research traditions as research on personality, abilities and styles. First, we focus on personal and work values and their impact on organisational behaviour and performance. Second, we define attitudes and take a closer look at some key work-related attitudes: organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction. Finally, we elaborate on emotions, which is a rather recent stream of research that broadens the focus of traditional abilities research. It also balances some of the weaknesses of the other concepts. Research on emotions and emotional intelligence became important in the study of individual differences and organisational behaviour only a few decades ago.

3.1 Values

In our modern society, characterised by individualisation and globalisation, a person’s values are of relevance for organisational behaviour. Individualisation is the process by which individuals increasingly become a point of reference in the shaping of values and attitudes.¹ In premodern times, values were based upon, and legitimised by, tradition and religion. In contemporary society, however, values are



an object of personal autonomy and characterised by an ethic of personal fulfilment. Nevertheless, modern society is not only individualised, but also differentiated. This means that the different life areas became 'self-referential in terms of values'.² In contrast, premodern, traditional societies are described as integrated and non-differentiated. All life domains and their values were strongly connected, mainly by religion and the extended family. As a consequence of the decreasing influence of religion and kinship, individuals are now freer to choose their values. 'Modernity confronts the individual with a diversity of choices and at the same time offers little help as to which options should be selected.'³

Furthermore, individuals presently live in a 'global village'.⁴ Information about different cultures is disseminated rapidly throughout the world, thereby confronting individuals with more alternatives. Accordingly, the likelihood that people select similar values is reduced. In addition, people are also increasingly influenced by foreign events, resulting in value fragmentation (i.e. increased diversity of individual value systems).

We first focus on what values are and then elaborate on two different value models. We also look at work values. We conclude this section with research findings and practical implications. Organisational values are elaborated more thoroughly in the chapter on organisational culture (see Chapter 12). We confine our discussion here by focusing only on personal and work values (and not, for instance, on cultural or social values) and their relevance for organisational behaviour.

Several different definitions of and views on values exist. Researchers, for instance, have likened values to beliefs, needs, goals, criteria for choosing goals and attitudes. Some authors tried to distinguish values from other constructs, while others did not. So, what are values then? Despite the abundance of definitions, most authors agree that **values** are standards or criteria for choosing goals or guiding actions, and that they are relatively enduring and stable over time.⁵ Even though values are relatively enduring and stable, they can change during our lifetime. Rokeach, the most cited author concerning values, states it as follows: 'If values were completely stable, individual and social change would be impossible. If values were completely unstable, continuity of human personality and society would be impossible.'⁶

We can make a distinction between content and an intensity aspect of values. People do not only vary in what values they find important (content aspect), they also differ in how important several values are (intensity aspect). An individual's values are not single entities; they can be ranked according to their intensity. In other words, values are integrated within a **value system**, which is 'an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or endstates of existence along a continuum of relative importance'.⁷

Most researchers on values also propose, explicitly or implicitly, that values develop through the influence of personality, society and culture.⁸ People are not born with an internal set of values (although a study⁹ with twins reared apart concluded that 40 per cent of variance in work values can be attributed to genetic factors). Values are acquired throughout our life from diverse sources (parents, teachers, peers, work environment, national culture etc.), through what is referred to as a process of socialisation (see Chapter 12 for organisational socialisation). The enduring nature of our values refers back to the way we acquire them initially.¹⁰

Values are taught and learned initially in isolation from other values in an absolute, all-or-none manner. We are taught that it is always desirable to be honest and to strive for peace. We are not taught that it is desirable to be just a little bit honest or to strive for peace sometimes and not at other times. This absolute learning of values more or less guarantees their endurance and stability. As we grow older, we are exposed to several values from diverse sources that sometimes might be in conflict with each other. Gradually, we learn through a process of maturation and experience to integrate the isolated, absolute values we acquired in different contexts into a hierarchically organised system wherein each value is ordered in importance relative to other values. This does not mean that values cannot change during our life. Certainly in the adolescence phase, values are questioned.

This questioning process might lead to the conclusion that our values are no longer adequate. More often, however, this questioning leads to reinforcing the values we have.

HR Instrumental and terminal values

Milton Rokeach developed a model that distinguishes between instrumental and terminal values.¹¹ **Instrumental values** refer to desirable ways or modes of conduct to reach some kind of desirable goal. Conversely, **terminal values** refer to the desirable goals a person wants to reach during his or her life. Instrumental and terminal values are connected with each other and work together to help people reach their desirable goals through desirable ways of conduct. There is not necessarily a one-on-one correspondence between an instrumental and a terminal value. One way of conduct, for instance, may be instrumental in reaching several terminal goals or several modes of conduct may be instrumental in reaching one terminal value.

Rokeach developed the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) to measure instrumental and terminal values. The RVS contains two sets of values (instrumental and terminal). Each set has 18 individual value items that were composed after several years of research (see Table 3.1). Respondents are instructed to arrange the instrumental and terminal values in order of importance, as guiding principles in their life.

Table 3.1 Rokeach's Instrumental and Terminal Values

Instrumental values		Terminal values	
AMBITIOUS	Hard-working, aspiring	A COMFORTABLE LIFE	A prosperous life
BROADMINDED	Open-minded	AN EXCITING LIFE	A stimulating, active life
CAPABLE	Competent, effective	A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT	Lasting contribution
CHEERFUL	Light-hearted, joyful	A WORLD AT PEACE	Free of war and conflict
CLEAN	Neat, tidy	A WORLD OF BEAUTY	Beauty of nature and the arts
COURAGEOUS	Standing up for your beliefs	EQUALITY	Brotherhood, equal opportunity for all
FORGIVING	Willing to pardon others	FAMILY SECURITY	Taking care of loved ones
HELPFUL	Working for the welfare of others	FREEDOM	Independence, free choice
HONEST	Sincere, truthful	HAPPINESS	Contentedness
IMAGINATIVE	Daring, creative	INNER HARMONY	Freedom from inner conflict
INDEPENDENT	Self-reliant, self-sufficient	MATURE LOVE	Sexual and spiritual intimacy
INTELLECTUAL	Intelligent, reflective	NATIONAL SECURITY	Protection from attack
LOGICAL	Consistent, rational	PLEASURE	An enjoyable, leisurely life
LOVING	Affectionate, tender	SALVATION	Saved, eternal life
OBEDIENT	Dutiful, respectful	SELF-RESPECT	Self-esteem
POLITE	Courteous, well-mannered	SOCIAL RECOGNITION	Respect, admiration
RESPONSIBLE	Dependable, reliable	TRUE FRIENDSHIP	Close companionship
SELF-CONTROLLED	Restrained, self-disciplined	WISDOM	A mature understanding of life

Source: Based on Table 2.1 in M. Rokeach, *The Nature of Human Values* (New York: The Free Press, 1973), p. 28.



Rokeach distinguishes between two kinds of instrumental values and two kinds of terminal values. Terminal values can be divided into personal and social ones. This means, terminal values may be self-centred, intrapersonal (e.g. inner harmony) or society-centred, interpersonal (e.g. a world at peace). Instrumental values are divided into moral and competence values. Moral values refer to those kinds of instrumental values that have an interpersonal focus and that lead to feelings of guilt and wrongdoing when violated. Competence or self-actualisation values refer to intrapersonal instrumental values, which lead to feelings of shame and personal inadequacy when violated. For instance, when behaving honestly or responsibly, you will feel that you behave morally, while behaving logically, intelligently or imaginatively, you will feel that you behave competently. People differ in the extent to which they value personal or social values, as well as moral or competence values.

The basic human values model

Shalom Schwartz, another expert on value research, elaborated the model of Rokeach further and proposed a theory on basic human values based on two components.¹² First, he distinguished 10 types of values that are recognised by members of most societies. Second, he shows how these values are connected dynamically with each other by specifying which values are compatible and mutually supportive, and which values are conflicting and opposed.

The 10 value types of Schwartz are distinguished according to the type of motivational goal they express (see Table 3.2). They were developed by using the idea that values represent, in the form

Table 3.2 Schwartz's Motivational Types of Values

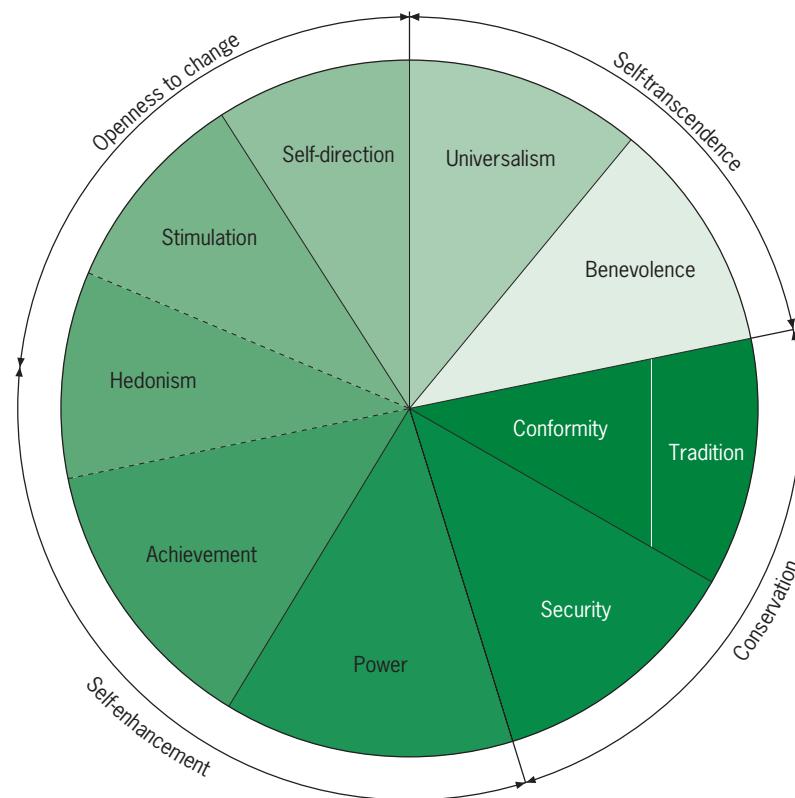
Value type	Definition	Values
POWER	Social status and prestige, control and dominance over people and resources	Social power – Authority – Wealth
ACHIEVEMENT	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards	Successful – Capable – Ambitious – Influential
HEDONISM	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself	Pleasure – Enjoying life
STIMULATION	Excitement, novelty and challenge in life	Daring – A varied life – An exciting life
SELF-DIRECTION	Independent thought and action, seeking, creating, experimenting and exploring	Creativity – Freedom – Independent – Curious – Choosing own goals
UNIVERSALISM	Equality, tolerance and justice for all, and respect for nature	Broadminded – Wisdom – Social justice – Equality – A world at peace – A world of beauty – Unity with nature – Protecting the environment
BENEVOLENCE	Welfare for all, forgiveness, honesty, loyalty and responsibility	Helpful – Honest – Forgiving – Loyal – Responsible
TRADITION	Respect for traditional culture	Accepting one's portion in life – Humble – Devout – Respect for tradition – Moderate
CONFORMITY	Restraint for actions, inclinations and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate societal expectations and norms	Self-discipline – Obedient – Politeness – Honouring parents and elders
SECURITY	Safety, security and stability in a stable society	Family security – National security – Social order – Clean – Reciprocation of favours

Source: Based on Table 1 in S. H. Schwartz and G. Sagie, 'Value Consensus and Importance: A Cross-National Study', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, July 2000, p. 468.

of conscious goals, three universal requirements of human existence to which all individuals and societies have to be responsive: the needs of individuals as biological organisms, the requirements for co-ordinated social interaction, and the survival and welfare needs of groups. In order to cope with reality in a social context, groups and individuals represent these requirements cognitively as specific values about which they can communicate. Schwartz started from and extended Rokeach's list of 36 values to determine his own basic human values model.

Schwartz also investigated the relationships between these value types. His value structure is based on the idea that every action to reach a value has psychological, practical and social consequences that can be in conflict or compatible with the pursuit of other values. It is, for instance, difficult to strive for achievement and for benevolence at the same time.¹³ The dynamics between Schwartz's values can be situated on two underlying dimensions: self-transcendence versus self-enhancement and openness to change versus conservation (see Figure 3.1). The first dimension represents the tension between acceptance of others as equal and concern for their welfare (universalism and benevolence) versus the dominance over others and pursuit of own success (power and achievement). The second dimension opposes values that emphasise independent thought and action and readiness for change (self-direction and stimulation) to values of preserving traditional practices, protection of stability and submissive self-restriction (security, conformity and tradition).

Figure 3.1 Schwartz's Basic Human Values Model



Source: S. H. Schwartz, 'Are There Universals in the Structure and Contents of Human Values?', *Journal of Social Issues*, Winter 1994, p. 24.



Work values

An important objective of research on values has been to study the link between individuals' value priorities and other aspects, such as social experiences and roles. Schwartz also adapted his basic values model to a work context, and he defines **work values** as expressions of basic values in the work setting. Like basic values, work values are ordered by their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives. Work values refer to what a person wants out of work in general, rather than to narrowly defined outcomes of particular jobs.

Parallel to the basic values model, Schwartz tried to identify general types of work values. Most researchers on work values identify the same two or three types of work values (i.e. intrinsic or self-actualisation values; extrinsic, security or material values; and social or relational values).¹⁴ According to Schwartz, however, there should be four general types of work values, related to the four poles of his two-dimensional basic human values model.

The four types of work values that Schwartz identifies are intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige values. Intrinsic values express openness to change values (e.g. the pursuit of autonomy, interest, growth and creativity in work). Extrinsic values refer to conservation values (e.g. job security, income). Social or interpersonal work values express self-transcendence values (e.g. work as a vehicle for positive social relations or contribution to society). The prestige or power values, a type added to the work values research by Schwartz, imply values related to the self-enhancement values (e.g. authority, influence and achievement in work).

Schwartz developed the Work Value Survey (WVS) to measure people's work values. The following activity is based on the WVS. Which of the four work value types do you value most: intrinsic, extrinsic, social or prestige values?

Activity



Which work values are most important to you?

Indicate for each of the following work values how important it is for you.

	Not at all important			Very important	
1 Good salary and work conditions	1	2	3	4	5
2 Job security (permanent job, pension)	1	2	3	4	5
3 Interesting and varied work	1	2	3	4	5
4 Work with people	1	2	3	4	5
5 Prestigious, highly valued work	1	2	3	4	5
6 Work in which you are your own boss	1	2	3	4	5
7 Contributing to people and society	1	2	3	4	5
8 Authority to make decisions over people	1	2	3	4	5
9 Social contact with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
10 Opportunities for occupational advancement	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring key

Total your score:

Add questions 1 and 2 for the importance of extrinsic work values.

Add questions 3 and 6 for the importance of intrinsic work values.

Add questions 4, 7 and 9 for the importance of social work values.

Add questions 5 and 8 for the importance of prestige work values.

Scoring norms

Comparative norms for extrinsic, intrinsic and prestige work values:

2 – 4 = Low importance

5 – 7 = Moderate importance

8 and above = High importance

Comparative norms for social work values:

3 – 6 = Low importance

7 – 11 = Moderate importance

12 and above = High importance

Source: Excerpted and adapted from M. Ros, S. H. Schwartz and S. Surkiss, 'Basic Individual Values, Work Values and the Meaning of Work', *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, January 1999, pp. 58–9.

Evidence about values

A great deal of research on values exists, although the research field is very diverse. Some research investigates a single country or organisation, while other studies focus on a broader area. Many value studies distinguish different values according to life domains. However, a lot of these studies focus on only one life domain (e.g. work) and do not look at the interrelations between the values of several life domains (e.g. leisure time, private life, politics, family). We summarise some relevant research findings for organisational behaviour.

Both Rokeach and Schwartz studied relationships between their values model and other individual differences, such as voting behaviour, readiness for outgroup social contact, interpersonal cooperation. Schwartz, for instance, concluded from a study with 90 participants (a mixed-motive experimental game) that power, achievement and hedonism were strong predictors for non-co-operation, while people who attach importance to value types like benevolence, universalism and conformity were more likely to co-operate.¹⁵

Many studies focus on the relationship between work values and several aspects of organisational behaviour (e.g. organisational commitment, motivation, performance, etc.). One aspect of this research is, for instance, value congruence, which means the fit between people's work values and the job/organisation. Several studies found that people choose a job in accordance with their work values rather than the other way around.¹⁶ Possible reasons for this finding are the fact that values have a relatively enduring and stable character and that many values are acquired very early in life.

Application of values

Individuals' values can explain a great deal regarding their interests and priorities, the choices they make and the goals for which they strive. Values are central to an individual because they serve as



mechanisms that guide his or her life within society. The pervasive influence of values in all our life domains makes them an issue of utmost importance for organisations to take into account. Values influence employees' perception, motivation and performance and play a role in decision-making, ethics and evaluations. Differences in values can also cause conflicts and misunderstandings in organisations. Knowing, respecting and taking into account each other's values can be a good starting point for better co-operation and a nicer working sphere.



Critical thinking

In which situations might personal values conflict with work values or work requirements?

3.2 Attitudes and behaviour

Hardly a day goes by without the popular media reporting the results of another attitude survey. The idea is to take the pulse of public opinion. What do we think about euthanasia, the euro, refugees, legalisation of soft drugs or abortion? Meanwhile, organisations conduct attitude surveys to monitor such things as job and pay satisfaction. All this attention to attitudes is based on the assumption that attitudes somehow influence behaviour, such as voting for someone, working hard or quitting one's job. In this section, we examine the connection between attitudes and behaviour. We also look at job satisfaction as an important attitude that influences organisational behaviour.

An **attitude** is defined as a 'learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object'.¹⁷ In other words, attitudes are beliefs and feelings people have about specific ideas, situations and people, which influence their behaviour. Attitudes are often confused with values, because both are social abstractions. Attitudes, however, affect behaviour at a different level from values. While values represent global beliefs that influence behaviour across all situations, attitudes relate only to behaviour directed towards specific objects, persons or situations.¹⁸ Attitudes are more directed towards specific goals or situations, while values are more abstract. Individuals usually have more attitudes than values. Values and attitudes are generally, though not always, in harmony. An employee who strongly values helpful behaviour may have a negative attitude towards helping an unethical co-worker. The difference between attitudes and values can be clarified further with a description of the three components of attitudes: a cognitive (cognition), affective (affect) and behavioural (intention) one.¹⁹

The **cognitive component of an attitude** refers to the beliefs, opinions, cognitions or knowledge someone has about a certain object, situation or person. For example, what is your opinion on bullying at work? Do you believe this behaviour is completely unacceptable or do you think it is not your problem?

The **affective component of an attitude** refers to the feelings, moods and emotions a person has about something or someone. Applied to the same example, how do you feel about someone who nags another colleague in the organisation? If you feel angry or frustrated about it, you will express negative feelings towards people who pester other people. If you feel indifferent about mobbing, the affective component of your attitude is neutral.

The **behavioural component of an attitude** refers to how a person intends or expects to act towards something or someone. For example, how do you intend to react to someone who pesters

another colleague? Will you say or do something? Will you defend the victim? Attitude theory states that your ultimate behaviour in a certain situation is a function of all three attitudinal components. You will defend a victim of bullying at work if you feel angry about it (affective), if you believe bullying is completely unacceptable (cognitive) and when you have an intention of doing something about it (behavioural).

Stability of attitudes

In one landmark study researchers found the job attitudes of 5000 middle-aged male employees to be very stable over a five-year period. Positive job attitudes remained positive; negative ones remained negative. Even those who changed jobs or occupations tended to maintain their prior job attitudes.²⁰ More recent research suggests the foregoing study may have overstated the stability of attitudes because it was restricted to a middle-aged sample. This time, researchers asked: 'What happens to attitudes over the entire span of adulthood?' General attitudes were found to be more susceptible to change during early and late adulthood than during middle adulthood. Three factors accounted for middle-age attitude stability: (1) greater personal certainty; (2) perceived abundance of knowledge; and (3) a need for strong attitudes. Thus, the conventional notion that general attitudes become less likely to change as the person ages was rejected. Elderly people, along with young adults, can and do change their general attitudes because they are more open and less self-assured.²¹

Like values, attitudes are acquired and formed during our life from diverse sources (family, peer group, work environment, etc.) and from our own experiences and personality through a socialisation process. Although attitudes are relatively stable, they can change. Gaining new information, for instance, can lead people to change their attitudes. When you hear a certain car has been recalled for defective brakes, your beliefs about the quality of that car may change, possibly even when it is a Toyota. Attitudes can also change because the object of the attitude becomes less important or relevant to the person. You may, for instance, have a negative attitude towards your organisation's pension plans. When your private bank offers you a good pension plan, the attitude towards your organisation will be less negative because you no longer need to worry about it.

Another factor that might indicate that attitudinal change is necessary is cognitive dissonance.²² **Cognitive dissonance** refers to situations where different attitudes are in conflict with each other or where people behave, for whatever reason, in a way inconsistent with their attitudes. In these situations, people will feel tension and discomfort and accordingly try to reduce these feelings (called 'dissonance reduction'). People like consistency between their attitudes and behaviour or among their attitudes. Possible ways to solve situations of dissonance are changing your attitudes, altering your behaviour or perceptually viewing the situation differently (this means developing a rationalisation for the inconsistency) (also see equity theory in Chapter 6).

Truthfulness can be a deep-seated value, yet some people decide to either bend the truth or be vague or economical about it. Some people even get away with it, telling 'lies' without blinking, feeling or showing the slightest discomfort.

HR Attitudes affect behaviour via intentions

Many have studied the relationship between attitudes and behaviour.²³ Early research assumed a causal relationship between attitudes and behaviour, implying that your attitudes determine what you do (often referred to as the A-B relationship). However, gradually, this relationship was criticised. Research found little or no relationship between attitudes and behaviour or that other aspects needed to be taken into account to explain the relationship between attitudes and behaviour.



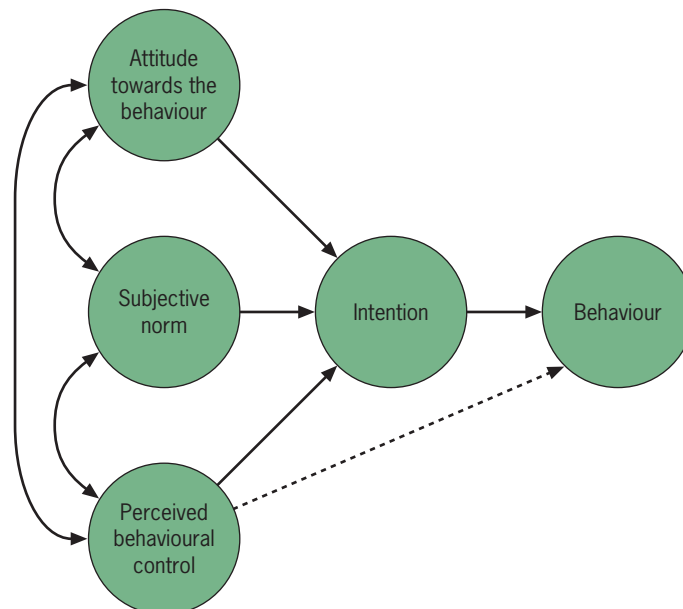
Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen developed a comprehensive model of behavioural intentions used widely to explain attitude–behaviour relationships.²⁴ Over the years, they developed and refined this model that focuses on intentions as the key link between attitudes and actual behaviour.²⁵

As shown in Figure 3.2, an individual’s intention to engage in a given behaviour is the best predictor of that behaviour. Intentions are indicators of how hard people are willing to try and of how much effort they are planning to exert to use a certain type of behaviour. For example, the quickest and possibly most accurate way of determining whether an individual will quit his or her job is to have an objective third party ask if he or she intends to quit. A meta-analysis of 34 studies of employee turnover, involving more than 83 000 employees, validated this direct approach. The researchers found stated behavioural intentions to be a better predictor of employee turnover than job satisfaction, satisfaction with the work itself or organisational commitment.²⁶

Although asking about intentions enables one to predict who will leave a job, it does not help explain why an individual would want to quit. Thus, to understand better why employees exhibit certain behaviours, such as quitting their jobs, one needs to consider their relevant attitudes and other related aspects. Three separate but interrelated determinants influence one’s intention (planned behaviour) to do something (actual behaviour). As shown in Figure 3.2, behavioural intentions are influenced by one’s attitude towards the behaviour, by perceived norms about exhibiting that behaviour and by perceived behavioural control.

The attitude towards the behaviour refers to the degree to which someone has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal towards the behaviour in question. A person will have positive attitudes towards engaging in a given behaviour when he or she believes that it is associated with positive outcomes. An individual is more likely to leave a job when he or she believes it will result in a better position or in stress reduction. In contrast, negative attitudes towards quitting will

Figure 3.2 Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour



Source: Based on Figure 1 in I. Ajzen, 'The Theory of Planned Behaviour,' *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, December 1991, p. 182.



be formed when a person believes quitting leads to negative outcomes, such as the loss of money and status.

The **subjective norm** refers to the perceived social pressure of whether or not to engage in the behaviour. Subjective norms can exert a powerful influence on the behavioural intentions of those who are sensitive to the opinions of respected role models. This effect was observed in a laboratory study of students' intentions to apply for a job at companies that reportedly tested employees for drugs. The students generally had a negative attitude about companies that tested for drugs. However, positive statements from influential persons about the need for drug testing tended to strengthen intentions to apply to companies engaged in drug testing.²⁷

The perceived behavioural control refers to the perceived ease or difficulty in performing the behaviour. It is assumed that the degree of perceived behavioural control reflects past experiences as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles (such as lacking the necessary resources, unavailable opportunities, etc.). Perceived behavioural control varies across situations and actions. The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of Fishbein and Ajzen's model of reasoned action, made necessary by the limitations of the original model in dealing with behaviours over which people have incomplete volitional control.

As a general rule, Ajzen and Fishbein state that the more favourable the attitude and subjective norm and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger an individual's intention will be to perform certain behaviour. The relative importance of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in the prediction of intention is, however, expected to vary across situations and actions. For instance, sometimes, only attitudes have a significant impact on intentions, while in another situation, two or all three determinants make independent contributions.

Evidence about attitudes

Research has demonstrated that Fishbein and Ajzen's model accurately predicted intentions to buy consumer products, have children and choose a career versus becoming a homemaker. Weight loss intentions and behaviour, voting for political candidates and attending on-the-job training sessions have also been predicted successfully by the model.²⁸ According to Ajzen, applying the theory of planned behaviour provides a lot of information that can be useful in understanding all kinds of behaviour or in implementing interventions to change those behaviours effectively.²⁹

Three particular attitudes are mostly studied in relation to organisational behaviour. Those key work-related attitudes are organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction.

Organisational commitment reflects the extent to which one identifies oneself with an organisation and is committed to its goals. It is an important work attitude because committed people are expected to display a willingness to work harder to achieve organisational goals and a greater desire to stay in an organisation. Research distinguishes between three different facets of organisational commitment: affective commitment (i.e. people's emotional attachment to, involvement in and identification with the organisation), continuance commitment (i.e. people's consideration of the benefits of organisational membership and the perceived costs of leaving) and normative commitment (i.e. people's commitment based on a sense of obligation to the organisation).³⁰ A meta-analysis of 68 studies and 35 282 individuals uncovered a significant and strong relationship between organisational commitment and satisfaction.³¹ Organisations are advised to increase job satisfaction in order to elicit higher levels of commitment. In turn, higher organisational commitment can facilitate higher productivity.³² Organisational commitment is also negatively related to absenteeism

and turnover.³³ However, more commitment is not always better. For instance, very high commitment can lead to situations where people do not report unethical practices or, even worse, commit unethical and illegal acts themselves. Also, if low performers have very high organisational commitment, they will not easily leave the organisation.

Job involvement represents the extent to which an individual is personally involved with his or her work role. While organisational commitment refers to identification with one's organisation, job involvement refers to the extent one identifies with its specific job. A meta-analysis involving 27 925 individuals from 87 different studies demonstrated that job involvement was moderately related to job satisfaction.³⁴ High levels of job involvement also lead to lower absenteeism and turnover rates.³⁵ Another study also found a positive relationship between job involvement and performance.³⁶ Organisations are thus encouraged to foster satisfying work environments in order to fuel employees' job involvement. However, overly high levels of job involvement may not always be desirable. Workaholics neglect their family and private lives and may suffer from health problems.

We end this section on attitudes by elaborating further on job satisfaction as it is an important organisational variable and one of the most frequently studied attitudes by OB researchers. **Job satisfaction** is an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one's job and refers to the degree of fulfilment and pleasure one finds in one's job. In other words, job satisfaction is the general attitude one has towards one's job. Several factors may enhance job satisfaction (like need fulfilment, value attainment or met expectations). Job satisfaction in turn influences several aspects of organisational life (e.g. performance, motivation, organisational citizenship behaviour).

Application of attitudes

From an organisational point of view, the behavioural intention model we have just reviewed has important implications. First, organisations need to appreciate the dynamic relationships between beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived control and behavioural intentions when attempting to foster productive behaviour. Although attitudes are often resistant to change, they can be influenced indirectly through education and training experiences that change underlying beliefs. A case in point is a study documenting how men's beliefs about gender differences can be reduced by taking a women's studies course.³⁷ Another tactic involves redirecting subjective norms through clear and credible communication, organisational culture values and role models. Finally, regular employee-attitude surveys can let managers know whether their ideas and changes go with or against the grain of popular sentiment.

3.3 Job satisfaction

A person can be relatively satisfied with one aspect of his or her job and dissatisfied with another. Different people are also satisfied or dissatisfied with different aspects of their jobs. It seems that there is no general, comprehensive theory that explains job satisfaction so far.

It is also difficult to measure job satisfaction objectively. Researchers do not agree whether job satisfaction contains one single dimension or several. Researchers at Cornell University in the USA developed the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), the best-known scale to assess one's satisfaction, with the following job dimensions: work, pay, promotions, co-workers and supervision.³⁸ Researchers at the US University of Minnesota developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and concluded that there are 20 different dimensions underlying job satisfaction.³⁹ Other researchers



use a single global rating to measure people's job satisfaction, like: 'all elements included, how satisfied are you with your job?' People are asked to indicate a number between one and five, ranging from 'very dissatisfied' to 'very satisfied'. Research indicates that both a questionnaire measuring several facets and one overall measure of job satisfaction seem to be valid and accurate.⁴⁰

Job satisfaction is influenced by several individual, social, organisational and cultural variables. Five predominant models of job satisfaction specify its causes. The first four models support a situational perspective, which means they see job satisfaction largely as a function of environmental influences. The last model adheres to a dispositional perspective and sees job satisfaction as a function of individual factors. A brief review of these models will provide insight into the complexity of this seemingly simple concept:⁴¹

- *Need fulfilment.* These models propose that satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the characteristics of a job allow an individual to fulfil his or her needs (also see sources of motivation in Chapter 5). For example, a survey of 30 law firms revealed that 35–50 per cent of law-firm associates left their employers within three years of starting because the firms did not accommodate family needs. This example illustrates that unmet needs can affect both satisfaction and turnover.⁴² Although these models generated a great degree of controversy, it is generally accepted that need fulfilment is correlated with job satisfaction.⁴³
- *Discrepancies.* These models propose that satisfaction is a result of met expectations. Met expectations represent the difference between what an individual expects to receive from a job, such as good pay and promotional opportunities, and what he or she actually receives. When expectations are greater than what is received, a person will be dissatisfied. In contrast, this model predicts the individual will be satisfied when he or she attains outcomes above and beyond expectations. A meta-analysis of 31 studies, which included 17 241 people, demonstrated that met expectations were significantly related to job satisfaction.⁴⁴ Many companies use employee attitude or opinion surveys to assess employees' expectations and concerns.
- *Value attainment.* The idea underlying value attainment is that satisfaction results from the perception that a job allows for fulfilment of an individual's important work values.⁴⁵ In general, research consistently supports the prediction that value attainment is positively related to job satisfaction.⁴⁶ Organisations can thus enhance employee satisfaction by structuring the work environment and its associated rewards and recognition to reinforce employees' values.
- *Equity.* In this model, satisfaction is a function of how 'fairly' an individual is treated at work. Satisfaction results from one's perception that work outcomes, relative to inputs, compare favourably to those of a significant other. A meta-analysis involving 190 studies and 64 757 people supported this model. Employees' perceptions of being treated fairly at work related strongly to overall job satisfaction.⁴⁷ Chapter 6 explores this promising model in more detail (equity theory).
- *Dispositional/genetic components.* Have you ever noticed that some of your co-workers or friends appear to be satisfied across a variety of job circumstances, whereas others always seem dissatisfied? This model of satisfaction attempts to explain this pattern.⁴⁸ Specifically, the dispositional/genetic model is based on the belief that job satisfaction is partly a function both of personal traits and genetic factors. It suggests that stable individual differences are just as important in explaining job satisfaction as characteristics of the work environment. Although only a few studies have tested these propositions, results support a positive, significant relationship between personal traits and job satisfaction over time periods ranging from 2–50 years.⁴⁹ Genetic factors were also found to be significant in predicting life satisfaction, well-being and general job satisfaction.⁵⁰ Overall, researchers estimate that 30 per cent of an individual's job satisfaction is associated with dispositional and genetic components.⁵¹

Table 3.3 Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Variables related to job satisfaction	Direction of relationship	Strength of relationship
Motivation	Positive	Moderate
Organisational citizenship behaviour	Positive	Moderate
Absenteeism	Negative	Weak
Tardiness	Negative	Weak
Withdrawal cognitions	Negative	Strong
Turnover	Negative	Moderate
Heart disease	Negative	Moderate
Perceived stress	Negative	Strong
Pro-union voting	Negative	Moderate
Job performance	Positive	Moderate
Life satisfaction	Positive	Moderate
Mental health	Positive	Moderate

Job satisfaction has significant practical implications because thousands of studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and other organisational variables. It is impossible, however, to present them all, so we will consider a subset of the more important variables from the standpoint of practical relevance.

Table 3.3 summarises the pattern of results. The relationship between job satisfaction and these other variables is either positive or negative. The strength of the relationship ranges from weak to strong. Strong relationships imply that organisations can significantly influence that particular variable by increasing job satisfaction. Because of the complexity and broadness of the concept of job satisfaction, there is no one universal remedy for organisations to improve the job satisfaction of their employees. Rather, it is advised to make use of aspects in several chapters of this book to enhance facets of people's satisfaction (like feedback, reward systems, participation, coaching, etc.).

Let us now consider some of the key correlates of job satisfaction. Throughout the book, more research on job satisfaction will deal with:

- *Motivation.* A meta-analysis of nine studies and 2237 workers revealed a significant positive relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. Because satisfaction with supervision was also significantly correlated with motivation, supervisors are advised to consider how their behaviour affects employee satisfaction.⁵²
- *Absenteeism.* Absenteeism is costly and organisations are constantly on the lookout for ways to reduce it. One recommendation has been to increase job satisfaction. If this is a valid recommendation, there should be a strong negative relationship (or negative correlation) between satisfaction and absenteeism. In other words, as satisfaction increases, absenteeism should decrease. A researcher investigated this prediction by synthesising three separate meta-analyses containing a total of 74 studies. Results revealed a weak negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism.⁵³ This result indicates that other factors also play an important role in explaining the relationship between absenteeism and job satisfaction. It is unlikely, therefore, that organisations will realise any significant decrease in absenteeism by increasing job satisfaction.



- *Withdrawal cognitions.* Although some people quit their jobs impulsively or in a fit of anger, most go through a process of thinking about whether or not they should quit.⁵⁴ **Withdrawal cognitions** encapsulate this thought process by representing an individual's overall thoughts and feelings about quitting. What causes an individual to think about quitting his or her job? Job satisfaction is believed to be one of the most significant contributors. For example, a study of managers, salespeople and auto mechanics from a national automotive retail store chain demonstrated that job dissatisfaction caused employees to begin the process of thinking about quitting. In turn, withdrawal cognitions had a greater impact on employee turnover than job satisfaction in this sample.⁵⁵ Results from this study imply that organisations can indirectly try to reduce employee turnover by enhancing job satisfaction.
- *Turnover.* Turnover is important to organisations because it both disrupts organisational continuity and is very costly. Although there are many things organisations can do to reduce employee turnover, many of them revolve around attempts to improve employees' job satisfaction.⁵⁶ This trend is supported by results from a meta-analysis of 67 studies covering 24 556 people. Job satisfaction obtained a moderate negative relationship with employee turnover.⁵⁷ Given the strength of this relationship, organisations are advised to try to reduce turnover by increasing employee job satisfaction. Other factors, however, also have a role in employees actually leaving an organisation, like labour-market conditions, expectations towards another job or organisational commitment.
- *Job performance.* One of the biggest controversies within organisational research centres on the relationship between satisfaction and job performance. Although researchers have identified seven different ways in which these variables are related, the dominant beliefs are either that satisfaction causes performance or that performance causes satisfaction.⁵⁸ A team of researchers attempted to resolve this controversy through a meta-analysis of data from 312 samples involving 54 417 individuals.⁵⁹ First, job satisfaction and performance are moderately related. This is an important finding because it supports the belief that job satisfaction is a key work attitude organisations should consider when attempting to increase employees' job performance. Second, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is much more complex than was originally thought. It is not as simple as satisfaction causing performance or performance causing satisfaction. Instead, researchers now believe, both variables indirectly influence each other through a host of individual and work-environment characteristics.⁶⁰ There is one additional consideration to keep in mind regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Researchers believe that the relationship between satisfaction and performance is understated because of incomplete measures of individual-level performance. A team of researchers conducted a meta-analysis of 7939 business units in 36 companies. Results uncovered significant positive relationships between business-unit-level employee satisfaction and business-unit outcomes of customer satisfaction, productivity, profit, employee turnover and accidents.⁶¹ It thus appears that organisations can positively affect a variety of important organisational outcomes, including performance, by increasing employee satisfaction.



Critical thinking

How would you intervene in situations where negative attitudes and low job satisfaction were widespread?

Emotions

In the ideal world of organisation theory, employees pursue organisational goals in a logical and rational manner. Emotional behaviour seldom appears in the equation. The myth of rationality that reigned for a long time in organisations caused emotions to be long banished in organisational life.⁶² However, creating emotion-free organisations is not possible. Day-to-day organisational life shows us how prevalent and powerful emotions can be. Anger and jealousy, both potent emotions, often push aside logic and rationality in the workplace. Professionals use fear and other emotions both to motivate and to intimidate.⁶³

In this final section, our examination of individual differences turns to emotions. Several related terms and conceptualisations on this matter exist, like emotions, moods and affect.⁶⁴ **Emotions** are usually feelings directed to something or someone, so they are object-specific. For instance, you are angry at someone or happy about something. By contrast, moods are not directed to a certain object and are less intense. They are context-free, rather than general affective states. **Affect** refers to the broad range of feelings people experience, covering both emotions and moods.

We first define emotions by reviewing a typology of 10 positive and negative emotions and focus then on emotional intelligence. We conclude with three themes that are particularly relevant to deal with in organisational behaviour: emotional influencing, flow and the management of anger.

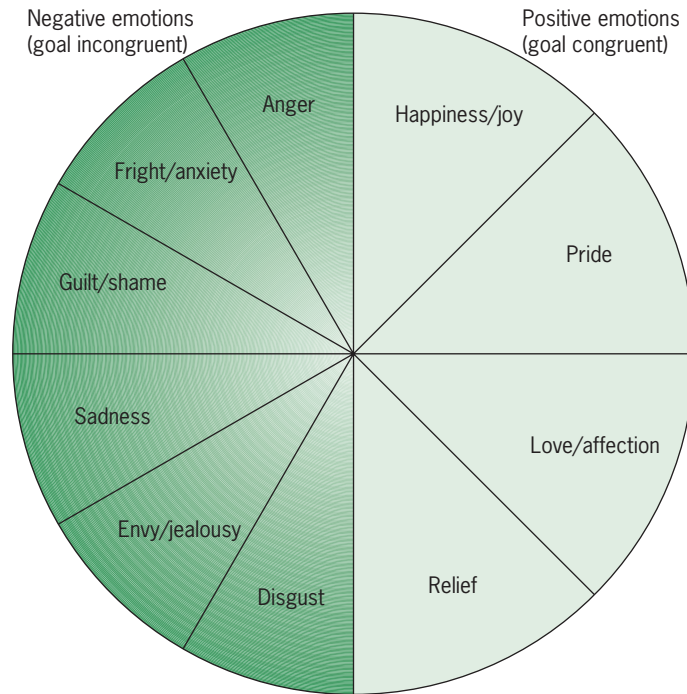
Richard Lazarus, a leading authority on the subject, defines emotions as 'complex, patterned, organismic reactions to how we think we are doing in our lifelong efforts to survive and flourish and to achieve what we wish for ourselves'.⁶⁵ The word 'organismic' is appropriate because emotions involve the whole person – biological, psychological and social. Significantly, psychologists draw a distinction between felt and displayed emotions.⁶⁶ **Felt emotions** are people's actual or true emotions, while **displayed emotions** refer to emotions that are organisationally desirable and appropriate in a given job. For example, a person might feel angry (felt emotion) at a rude co-worker but not make a nasty remark in return (displayed emotion). As will be discussed in Chapter 9, emotions play roles in both causing and adapting to stress and its associated biological and psychological problems. The destructive effect of emotional behaviour on social relationships is all too obvious in daily life.

Lazarus's definition of emotions centres on a person's goals. Accordingly, his distinction between positive and negative emotions is goal-oriented. Some emotions are triggered by frustration and failure when pursuing one's goals. Lazarus calls these negative emotions. They are said to be goal-incongruent. For example, which of the six negative emotions in Figure 3.3 are you likely to experience if you fail the final exam in a required course? Failing the exam would be incongruent with your goal of graduating on time. On the other hand, which of the four positive emotions in Figure 3.3 would you probably experience if you graduated on time and with honours? The emotions you would experience in this situation are positive because they are congruent (or consistent) with an important lifetime goal.

Of all the emotions in Figure 3.3, anger is the one most likely to be downright dangerous. It deserves special attention. Unchecked anger could be a key contributing factor to what one team of researchers calls organisation-motivated aggression.⁶⁷ Worse, uncontrolled anger is certainly a contributor to workplace violence. As awareness of workplace violence increases, employers are installing various security systems and training employees to avoid or defuse incidents. The European Commission's definition of workplace violence includes 'incidents where persons are abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances relating to their work, involving an explicit challenge to their safety, wellbeing and health'.⁶⁸

The individual's goals, it is important to note, may or may not be socially acceptable. Thus, a positive emotion, such as love/affection, may be undesirable if associated with sexual harassment (sexual harassment is discussed in Chapter 9). Conversely, slight pangs of guilt, anxiety and envy

Figure 3.3 Positive and Negative Emotions



Source: Adapted from discussion in R. S. Lazarus, *Emotion and Adaptation* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1991).

can motivate extra effort. On balance, the constructive or destructive nature of a particular emotion must be judged in terms of both its intensity and the person’s relevant goal.

Quotes like ‘he is a real optimist, he sees everything in a positive way’ or ‘she is always negative, she is a pessimist’ indicate that emotions are not changing from day to day. Although short-term variations and fluctuations occur, people seem to have underlying stable, fairly constant and predictable moods and emotional states.⁶⁹ Some people, often referred to as optimists, have a higher degree of **positive affectivity** which is a tendency to experience positive emotional states. These people are relatively optimistic and upbeat, see things usually in a positive light and have an overall sense of well-being. People with a higher degree of **negative affectivity** have a tendency to experience negative emotional states and are generally pessimistic and downbeat, usually see things in a negative way and seem to be in a bad mood all the time. Of course, negative events like being fired or missing a promotion may cause optimists to be in a bad mood. Or positive events like receiving positive feedback or being promoted may cause pessimists to be in a good mood. However, after the initial impact of these events, people generally seem to return to their normal positive or negative mood respectively.

People’s moods and affectivity are expected to influence organisational behaviour and performance. Many studies, for instance, investigate the notion that happy workers are also productive workers. This means they study the relationship between affective states and work-related outcomes.⁷⁰ Results of these studies are not very clear and unequivocal. A study among 132 civil service employees shows that people scoring highly on optimism tend to be in jobs characterised by high levels of autonomy, variety, identity, feedback, significance and complexity.⁷¹ People scoring highly on trait anxiety are found in jobs that have low levels of all these job characteristics. This indicates that people with certain personality traits can be found in certain types of jobs.

A recent study on the importance of leader happiness or sadness showed that this seemed to be contingent on the types of tasks. A leader's displays of happiness enhanced followers' creative performance, whereas a leader's displays of sadness enhanced followers' analytical performance. However, in subjective ratings leaders were perceived as more effective when displaying happiness rather than sadness irrespective of task type.⁷²

The next activity helps you to find out whether you are an optimist or rather a pessimist.

Activity



Are you an optimist or a pessimist?

Instructions

Indicate for each of the following items to what extent you agree or disagree with them.

	Totally disagree			Totally agree	
1 In uncertain times, I usually expect the best	1	2	3	4	5
2 It's easy for me to relax	1	2	3	4	5
3 If something can go wrong for me, it will	5	4	3	2	1
4 I always look on the bright side of things	1	2	3	4	5
5 I'm always optimistic about my future	1	2	3	4	5
6 I enjoy my friends a lot	1	2	3	4	5
7 It's important for me to keep busy	1	2	3	4	5
8 I hardly ever expect things to go my way	5	4	3	2	1
9 Things never work out the way I want them to	5	4	3	2	1
10 I don't get upset too easily	1	2	3	4	5
11 I'm a believer in the idea that 'every cloud has a silver lining'	1	2	3	4	5
12 I rarely count on good things happening to me	5	4	3	2	1
13 Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring key

Total your score:

Add the numbers you indicated for questions 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 11, 12 and 13.

Scoring norms

9 – 18 = Low optimism

19 – 35 = Moderate optimism

36 and above = High optimism

Source: Excerpted and adapted from Table 1 of M. F. Scheier and C. S. Carver, 'Optimism, Coping, and Health: Assessment and Implications of Generalized Outcome Expectancies', *Health Psychology*, May 1985, p. 225; and Table 1 of M. F. Scheier, C. S. Carver and M. W. Bridges, 'Distinguishing Optimism from Neuroticism (and Trait Anxiety, Self-Mastery, and Self-Esteem): A Reevaluation of the Life Orientation Test', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, December 1994, p. 1066. Copyright © 1994 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission.

Emotional intelligence

When we discussed intelligence and mental abilities (Chapter 2), criticisms of the IQ concept were already being levelled. Traditional models of intelligence (IQ) were too narrow, because they failed to consider interpersonal competence. One of the expansions of intelligence research beyond mental abilities is the concept of emotional intelligence. **Emotional intelligence** has its roots in the concept of ‘social intelligence’, first defined by Thorndike in the 1920s. In 1995, Daniel Goleman, a psychologist, created a stir in education and management circles with the publication of his book *Emotional Intelligence*.⁷³



What was an obscure topic among psychologists has become a popular topic among the general public. Emotional intelligence (referred to as EQ or EI) is according to Goleman more important in understanding people than general intelligence. His broader approach (emotional intelligence) includes ‘abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathise and to hope’.⁷⁴ In other words, emotional intelligence is the ability to manage your own emotions and those of others in mature and constructive ways. Emotional intelligence is said to have four key components: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The first two components are referred to as ‘personal’ competence (those abilities that determine how we manage ourselves), while the last two are referred to as ‘social’ competence (those abilities that determine how we manage relationships) (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Developing Personal and Social Competence through Emotional Intelligence

Personal competence	Social competence
<p>Self-awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Emotional self-awareness</i>: Reading one’s own emotions and recognising their impact; using ‘gut sense’ to guide decisions ● <i>Accurate self-assessment</i>: Knowing one’s strengths and limits ● <i>Self-confidence</i>: A sound sense of one’s self-worth and capabilities <p>Self-management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Emotional self-control</i>: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under control ● <i>Transparency</i>: Displaying honesty and integrity; trustworthiness ● <i>Adaptability</i>: Flexibility in adapting to changing situations or overcoming obstacles ● <i>Achievement</i>: The drive to improve performance to meet inner standards of excellence ● <i>Initiative</i>: Readiness to act and seize opportunities ● <i>Optimism</i>: Seeing the upside in events 	<p>Social awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Empathy</i>: Sensing others’ emotions, understanding their perspective and taking active interest in their concerns ● <i>Organisational awareness</i>: Reading the currents, decision networks and politics at the organisational level ● <i>Service</i>: Recognising and meeting follower, client or customer needs <p>Relationship management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Inspirational leadership</i>: Guiding and motivating with a compelling vision ● <i>Influence</i>: Wielding a range of tactics for persuasion ● <i>Developing others</i>: Bolstering others’ abilities through feedback and guidance ● <i>Change catalyst</i>: Initiating, managing and leading in a new direction ● <i>Conflict management</i>: Resolving disagreements ● <i>Building bonds</i>: Cultivating and maintaining a web of relationships ● <i>Teamwork and collaboration</i>: Co-operation and team building

Source: Based on D. Goleman, R. Boyatzis and A. McKee, *Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence* (Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press, 2002), p. 39.

The components listed in Table 3.4 constitute a challenging self-development agenda for each of us. Goleman and other researchers⁷⁵ believe a greater emotional intelligence can boost individual, team and organisational effectiveness. Of course, stimulating and enhancing people's emotional intelligence needs intensive coaching, feedback and practice. Emotional intelligence usually increases with age, as part of a maturity process. However, there are also some critical voices. Sometimes the validity and reliability of tests that are used to measure emotional intelligence are called into question.⁷⁶ Charles Woodruffe even questions the usefulness and newness of the emotional intelligence concept itself and states that its contribution to job performance has been exaggerated. He states that the concept 'emotional intelligence' is 'nothing more than a new brand name for a set of long-established competencies'.⁷⁷ Highly respected OB scholars, such as Edwin Loicke (of the Latham and Locke goal-setting approach to motivation), flatly declared that EI as proposed by Goleman was an invalid concept and that the addition of many different elements, such as trustworthiness, adaptability, innovation, communication, and team capabilities, was 'preposterously all-encompassing'.⁷⁸

Although several theoretical models of emotional intelligence currently exist, Goleman's theory is the most widely known. Mayer and Salovey, for instance, developed another model of emotional intelligence.⁷⁹ They distinguish between four emotion-related abilities that move in their model from more basic towards more complex abilities: from perceiving and expressing emotion to assimilating emotion in thought, to understanding emotions and finally reflectively regulating emotions.

We conclude this section on emotions by elaborating on some emotional processes that can be particularly relevant to organisations. We focus on how people's emotions influence each other (emotional contagion and emotional labour), on how people can have optimal experience in their job (flow) and on how organisations can manage anger in the workplace.

Emotional influencing

Coinciding with the start of more research on emotions were studies on how emotions play a role in organisational life. We focus on two related concepts: emotional contagion and emotional labour.

One process through which people influence each other (un)consciously in organisations is emotional contagion.⁸⁰ **Emotional contagion** is defined as 'the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronise facial expressions, vocalisations, postures and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally'.⁸¹ We can, quite literally, catch other people's bad/good moods or displayed negative/positive emotions. An illustrative image to clarify emotional contagion is 'the ripple effect'. As water ripples in a lake because of the wind, emotions can ripple through people, groups and organisations. Which mechanisms are involved in emotional contagion is not clearly known yet. Perceiving and (unconsciously) adopting other people's facial expressions seems to be important.⁸² It seems that we, through the unconscious imitation of the facial expressions, gestures and other non-verbal signals of other people, internally also recreate the feelings they express. The person who expresses his or her emotion the strongest influences the emotions of the other(s) in the interaction.

More important than knowing how emotional contagion works exactly is being aware that it exists and understanding its influence on organisational life. Several studies investigate the influence of emotional contagion in organisations.⁸³ A study among 131 bank tellers and 220 exit interviews with their customers revealed that tellers who expressed positive emotions tended to have more satisfied customers.⁸⁴ Two field studies with nurses and accountants found a strong link between the work group's collective mood and the individual's mood.⁸⁵ Research also found that spreading positive feelings improved co-operation, decreased conflict and increased task performance in group work.⁸⁶ These findings indicate the importance of using emotional contagion effectively to improve



organisational behaviour and performance. Goleman elaborates on five competences in which the effective use of the emotions of other people (or the principle of emotional contagion) is essential.⁸⁷

- *Influencing.* The effective use of influencing tactics is based on inducing certain feelings in other people – for instance, enthusiasm for a project or the passion to outdo a competitor (see Chapter 14).
- *Communication.* Sending clear and convincing messages starts with the ability to know what others feel about something, how they will react and adapting your message accordingly (see Chapter 4).
- *Conflict management.*⁸⁸ Negotiating and solving conflicts is to a large extent a process of emotional influencing rather than a pure rational process (see Chapter 14).
- *Leadership.*⁸⁹ Inspiring and coaching employees is based on the effective communication of feelings in a two-way direction (see Chapter 15).
- *Change management.*⁹⁰ The effective communication and implementation of change processes requires a high level of emotional appeal and influence to break down people's resistance (see Chapter 16).

Related to the study of emotional contagion is the research field dealing with how people manage their emotions in the workplace, known as 'emotional labour'.⁹¹ The research on emotional labour was first developed in relation to service jobs. **Emotional labour** refers to the effort, planning and control needed to express organisationally desired emotions during interpersonal interactions.⁹² Emotional labour, for instance, implies expressing positive emotions, handling negative emotions, being sensitive to the emotions of clients and showing empathy. Organisations usually have certain (in)formal display rules. Display rules are norms that describe which emotions employees need to display and which emotions they need to withhold. Even when they feel bad, employees are told to 'smile, look happy for the customer'. This implies they sometimes have to fake and to mask their true feelings and emotions. Every employee has to undertake some emotional labour, for instance, being friendly to co-workers. However, not all jobs require the same amount of emotional labour. People in jobs that require frequent and long durations of contact with clients, customers, suppliers, co-workers and others experience more emotional labour than others. Because of the importance of emotional labour for organisations, they provide their employees with training in expressing the appropriate, organisationally required emotions. Moreover, some organisations believe that the best way to support emotional labour is to hire people with the right attitude and skills (e.g. good customer service skills).

However, people still have difficulty in hiding their true or felt emotions all the time; this is particularly the case for anger. True emotions tend to leak out – for instance, as voice intonations or body movements. This is called **emotional dissonance**, defined as the conflict between felt (true) and displayed (required) emotions.⁹³ Of course, cultural differences exist concerning which emotions may or may not be displayed.⁹⁴ For instance, Japanese people think it is inappropriate to show emotions and to become emotional in business, while Americans are more likely to accept or tolerate people displaying their true emotions at work. Research did not find any gender differences in felt emotions, but women were found to be more emotionally expressive than men.⁹⁵

Evidence about emotional intelligence and emotions

Generally, the evidence about Goleman's concept is somewhat mixed and a heated debate reigns between enthusiastic supporters and somewhat more nuanced advocates. The latter were really the

first to propose a model of EI. This model, briefly outlined above, has a narrowly defined meaning, whereas the enthusiasts add elements such as persistence, zeal, self-control, character as a whole, and other positive attributes.⁹⁶ Crowding additional elements into a model never simplifies the task of finding evidence to support it. From the case of the original (pre-Goleman) four-branch model of emotional intelligence, association or the lack thereof, between other measures of people's cognitive abilities and their personalities (Big Five or MBTI) lends support, albeit to a complex argument. The much broader set of elements included by Goleman and associates (Table 3.4) would make empirical evidence complex beyond measure.

This has not prevented claims about the power of the EI approach. According to his critics, Goleman himself has first claimed that 'nearly 90% of the difference' between star performers at work and average ones was due to EI.⁹⁷ Even if Goleman has since claimed that he was misunderstood⁹⁸ the schism between an 'all-including' and a rigorous approach remains, while only limited evidence has so far become available for either view.

Application of emotion-related models

The research lessons regarding emotional labour have been summarised as follows:

Emotional labour can be particularly detrimental to the employee performing the labour and can take its toll both psychologically and physically. Employees . . . may bottle up feelings of frustration, resentment and anger; which are not appropriate to express. These feelings result, in part, from the constant requirement to monitor one's negative emotions and express positive ones. If not given a healthy expressive outlet, this emotional repression can lead to a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and burnout.⁹⁹

A study among several groups of service workers (employees of service institutions, of the hotel business and call centres) led to the conclusion that the analysis of emotional work is a neglected area in organisational stress research that needs more attention in the future (also see Chapter 9). The data of the study suggest that emotional work is not *per se* either positive or negative. Rather, 'emotion display and sensitivity requirements are related to emotional exhaustion but also to personal accomplishment'.¹⁰⁰



Critical thinking

Describe from personal experience an incident where a co-worker has misbehaved (define that for yourself) under the influence of toxic emotions (illness, personal problems with partners, children, money, etc.).

3.4 Flow in the workplace

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, an American psychologist, has studied the optimal experience for more than 30 years.¹⁰¹ He is looking for the answer to the question: 'What makes some actions or activities worth pursuing for their own sake, even without any rational compensation?' Csikszentmihalyi calls this optimal experience 'flow' (or 'autotelic enjoyment'). Research in sport contexts also calls this phenomenon 'peak performance'.¹⁰²



Table 3.5 Characteristics of Flow

- There are clear goals every step of the way.
- There is immediate feedback to one's actions.
- There is a balance between challenges and skills.
- Action and awareness merge.
- Distractions are excluded from consciousness.
- There is no worry of failure.
- Self-consciousness disappears.
- The sense of time becomes distorted.
- The activity becomes an end in itself.

Source: Based on M. Csikszentmihalyi, 'Happiness and Creativity', *The Futurist*, September–October 1997, pp. S8–S12.

According to Csikszentmihalyi, '**Flow** is a subjective psychological state that occurs when one is totally involved in an activity and feels simultaneously cognitively efficient, motivated and happy. It is the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter. The experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it.'¹⁰³ Time seems to stop; hours pass by as if it were only a few minutes.

Csikszentmihalyi studied people's flow experiences in order to understand more about their determinants and consequences. He developed the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) to measure people's quality of experience.¹⁰⁴ People receive an electronic pager (beeper) and a block of self-report forms with open-ended and scaled items (the Experience Sampling Form (ESF)). They keep this for a week and about 56 times at random intervals they are (by means of a signal) asked to describe their activity, feelings and experiences at that moment and to fill out some related questions. Csikszentmihalyi learned more about the characteristics of flow from people's descriptions. In interviews, people repeatedly mention certain key elements about their impressions of flow (Table 3.5).

A prerequisite to experience flow seems to be a match between people's perceived skills and the challenges they want to reach (i.e. attainable but challenging goals) (see also Chapter 6 on goal-setting theory).¹⁰⁵ In situations that are characterised by the simultaneous presence of high-perceived challenges and high-perceived skills, people may experience flow and the overall quality of the subjective experience is the highest. Challenges that are too low will lead to boredom and apathy, while too high challenges (in relation to people's perceived skills) may lead to stress and anxiety.

Flow is essentially a high level of concentration. The first step – being calm enough to start the activity – requires some discipline (think, for instance, about a top tennis player who has to play an important match or a professional who has to give an important presentation to the board of directors). Once the activity starts, attention tends to be focused and seems to take on a life of its own. For the moment, people forget everything else going on in their lives and in the world and become totally involved in their current activity. Even if we started an activity with another intention, a characteristic of flow is that it becomes a goal in itself that intrinsically motivates us. That is why flow activities are also called autotelic activities ('auto' means self and 'telos' is the Greek word for goal).

Evidence about flow

Experiences of flow are found in studies with artists, musicians, mathematicians, athletes, rock climbers, surgeons, chess players, factory managers and workers, as well as in middle- and high-level executives.¹⁰⁶ Flow seems to be a universal concept. It is found in all cultures, at all ages and in different social classes. People describe in a similar way how they felt during flow and also

the reasons they give to explain their feelings are quite similar. Moreover, people's descriptions of flow during different kinds of activities seem to be fairly similar.

However, some people experience flow with a certain activity and others do not. Some people also experience more flow than others. Several researchers have studied the differences between people's flow experiences. They concluded that some people have characteristics or traits that stimulate the experience of flow, while others do not.¹⁰⁷ For instance, people who work primarily in order to be recognised and promoted will not experience flow. Paradoxically, people tend to do their best work and enjoy themselves in the process, when they forget about themselves and become involved in their current activity. People who do their job because they enjoy doing it, regardless of advancement, will be more likely to experience flow and achieve success. This is related to people's goal orientation: people who have a task goal orientation strive for learning and improvement, while people who have an ego goal orientation emphasise winning, outperforming others and demonstrating ability.¹⁰⁸ People who are intrinsically motivated also seem to have a higher opportunity to experience flow than the ones who are more extrinsically motivated. Some people tend to feel confident about their skills and spend more time in flow, while others feel less confident and spend more time in stress and anxiety.

HR Application of flow

Csikszentmihalyi formulates five 'Cs' that are essential to maximise people's flow at the workplace:¹⁰⁹

- *Clarity.* Make sure people have clear goals. This also means that people should know what they want to do and reach in their work and where they are already in relation to these goals. Formulating goals in terms of progress and outcomes and appropriate feedback methods are useful tools to enhance 'clarity'. In Chapter 6, more tips concerning goal setting and feedback are formulated.
- *Centre.* People should have an ability to focus. This means that they should be able to attend what needs to be the object of attention and what they need to do if they want to achieve a goal. People should learn to focus only on the activity, on what they are doing here and now, and not, for instance, on themselves or what others might think of them.
- *Choice.* People need to believe they control their life, that they have choices. This means they do not act as if they are victims of their environment. People should also trust in their strengths to reach their goals.
- *Commitment.* This means that people should be able to commit themselves and their energy to whatever activity is needed to obtain their goals.
- *Challenge.* As flow happens when there is a balance between people's skills and their challenges, people continuously and constantly need to seek new challenges and set new goals. People learn to match their challenges with their skills and also to develop the necessary skills to reach their challenges.

Every activity may lead to flow if the right elements are present (like clear goals, concentration, task orientation, commitment, challenges, focus and control). We can enhance the quality of our (work)life if we make sure the required conditions for flow are constantly present.



Critical thinking

Would a highly intelligent person working on very simple tasks be likely to experience flow – and vice versa for a person of medium (or low) intelligence working on very complex tasks?



Learning outcomes: Summary of key terms

1 Values and their sources

Values are standards or criteria for choosing goals or guiding actions that are relatively enduring and stable over time, although they can change during our life. Values develop through the influence of personality, society and culture. People are not born with an internal set of values. Values are acquired throughout our lives from diverse sources (e.g. parents, teachers, peers, work environment, national culture etc.).

2 Rokeach's instrumental and terminal values

Instrumental values refer to desirable ways or modes of conduct to reach some kind of desirable goal. Terminal values refer to the desirable goals a person wants to reach during his or her life. Instrumental and terminal values are connected with each other and work together to help people reach their desirable goals through desirable ways of conduct. Terminal values can be self-centred (personal) or society-centred (social). Instrumental values can be divided into moral and competence values. People differ in the extent to which they value personal or social values, as well as moral or competence values.

3 Schwartz's basic human values model and his related work values model

Schwartz developed a theory of basic human values. He distinguishes 10 types of values that are recognised by members of most societies and shows how these values are connected dynamically with each other by specifying which values are compatible and mutually supportive, and which values are conflicting and opposed. He situates the dynamics between these values in two underlying dimensions: self-transcendence versus self-enhancement and openness to change versus conservation. Parallel to the basic values model, Schwartz identified a model of work values. He distinguishes between intrinsic, extrinsic, social and prestige work values.

4 Planned behaviour and how attitudes influence behaviour

According to the model of planned behaviour, someone's intentions to engage in a given behaviour are the best predictor of that behaviour. Three separate but interrelated determinants influence one's intention (planned behaviour) to do something (actual behaviour). Behavioural intentions are influenced by one's attitude towards the behaviour, by perceived norms about exhibiting that behaviour and by perceived behavioural control. As a general rule, the more favourable the attitude and subjective norm and the greater the perceived behavioural control, the stronger an individual's intention to engage in certain behaviour. The relative importance of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in the prediction of intention is, however, expected to vary across situations and actions.

5 Work-related attitudes: organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction

Organisational commitment reflects the extent to which an individual identifies themselves with an organisation and is committed to its goals. It is an important work attitude because committed people are expected to display a willingness to work harder to achieve organisational goals and a greater desire to stay in an organisation. Job involvement represents the extent to which an individual is personally involved with his or her work role. While organisational commitment refers to identification with one's organisation, job involvement refers to the extent one identifies with a specific job. Job satisfaction is an affective or

emotional response towards various facets of one's job. It refers to the degree of fulfilment and pleasure one finds in his or her job. Job satisfaction is the general attitude one has towards one's job.

6 Determinants and consequences of job satisfaction

Five models specify the sources of job satisfaction. They are need fulfilment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity and trait/genetic components. Job satisfaction has been correlated with hundreds of consequences. Table 3.3 summarises the pattern of results found for a subset of the more important variables. Because of the complexity and broadness of the concept of job satisfaction, there is no one panacea for organisations to improve the job satisfaction of their employees. Rather, it is advisable to make use of several aspects to enhance facets of people's satisfaction (feedback, rewards systems, participation, coaching, etc.).

7 Positive and negative emotions and how they can be judged

Positive emotions – happiness/joy, pride, love/affection and relief – are personal reactions to circumstances congruent with one's goals. Negative emotions – anger, fright/anxiety, guilt/shame, sadness, envy/jealousy and disgust – are personal reactions to circumstances incongruent with one's goals. Both types of emotions need to be judged in terms of intensity and the appropriateness of the person's relevant goal.

8 Emotional intelligence and which components it implies

Emotional intelligence is the ability to manage your own emotions and those of others in mature and constructive ways. It includes such abilities as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathise and to hope. Emotional intelligence has four key components: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The first two components are referred to as 'personal' competence, while the last two are referred to as 'social' competence.

9 Emotional contagion in the workplace

Emotional contagion refers to the process through which people catch the feelings of others. An illustrative image that clarifies emotional contagion is 'the ripple effect'. As water ripples in a lake because of the wind, emotions can ripple through people, groups and organisations. Which mechanisms are involved in emotional contagion is not clearly known yet. Perceiving and (unconsciously) adopting other people's facial expressions seems to be important. Research findings indicate the importance of effectively using emotional contagion to improve organisational behaviour and performance.

10 Flow and how it influences organisational behaviour

Flow is a subjective psychological state that occurs when one is totally involved in an activity. It is the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter. The experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it. In situations that are characterised by the simultaneous presence of high-perceived challenges and high-perceived skills, people may experience flow. Flow can be an important emotional process to stimulate in organisations as it has a positive influence on people's performance and well-being at work. Flow leads to higher productivity, motivation, creativity and satisfaction in people. People in flow also seem to be better 'equipped' to deal with stressful events.



Critical thinking

There is no doubt that there is much more focus on values, attitudes and emotions in current management education and management literature – but are they also becoming more and more important for managers and employees in organisations and companies?

Review questions

- 1 Can you give an example of how your values influenced a choice you made?
- 2 How would you respond to a person who made this statement: 'I'm only interested in behaviour. I've never seen an attitude, so why be concerned with attitudes'?
- 3 Do you believe that job satisfaction is partly a function of both personal traits and genetic factors? Explain.
- 4 Do you think job satisfaction leads directly to better job performance? Explain.
- 5 What are your personal experiences of negative emotions being positive; and of positive emotions being negative?
- 6 What is your personal experience with emotions being contagious?
- 7 Have you ever experienced flow? In what situation(s)? How can you describe this experience?



Personal awareness and growth exercise

How satisfied are you with your present job?

Objectives

- 1 To assess your job satisfaction towards your present or last (student) job.
- 2 To stimulate reflection on your job satisfaction and how to enhance it.

Introduction

As mentioned in the text, researchers at the US University of Minnesota developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure job satisfaction. Selected Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire items – measuring satisfaction with recognition, compensation and supervision – are listed in this exercise.¹¹⁰

Instructions

Relative to your present or most recent job, indicate how satisfied you are with the following aspects.

	Very dissatisfied			Very satisfied	
1 The way I am noticed when I do a good job	1	2	3	4	5
2 The recognition I get for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
3 The praise I get for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5
4 How my pay compares with that for similar jobs in other companies	1	2	3	4	5
5 My pay and the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
6 How my pay compares with that of other workers	1	2	3	4	5
7 The way my boss handles employees	1	2	3	4	5
8 The way my boss takes care of complaints brought to him or her by employees	1	2	3	4	5
9 The personal relationship between my boss and his or her employees	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring key

Total your score:

Add questions 1– 3 for satisfaction with recognition.

Add questions 4 – 6 for satisfaction with compensation.

Add questions 7 – 9 for satisfaction with supervision.

Questions for discussion

- 1 Compare your scores with the following comparative norms for each dimension of job satisfaction:
 - 3 – 6 = Low job satisfaction
 - 7 –11 = Moderate job satisfaction
 - 12 and above = High job satisfaction
- 2 Do you recognise your score for each of the job satisfaction dimensions?
- 3 List possible solutions or ways to enhance your job satisfaction for each of the job satisfaction dimensions. Can you personally add a lot to increasing your job satisfaction or are you mainly dependent on your work environment?



Group exercise

Anger control role play

Objectives

- 1 To demonstrate that emotions can be managed.
- 2 To develop your interpersonal skills for managing both your own and someone else's anger.

Introduction

Personal experience and research tells us that anger begets anger. People do not make their best decisions when angry. Angry outbursts often inflict unintentional interpersonal damage by triggering other emotions (such as disgust in observers and subsequent guilt and shame in the angry person). Effective professionals know how to break the cycle of negative emotions by defusing anger in themselves and others. The table below shows how anger can be controlled successfully:



Reducing chronic anger [in yourself]	Responding to angry provocation
<p>Guidelines for action</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Appreciate the potentially valuable lessons from anger ● Use mistakes and slights to learn ● Recognise that you and others can do well enough without being perfect ● Trust that most people want to be caring, helpful family members and colleagues ● Forgive others and yourself ● Confront unrealistic, blame-oriented assumptions ● Adopt constructive, learning-oriented assumptions <p>Pitfalls to avoid</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Assume every slight is a painful wound ● Equate not getting what you want with catastrophe ● See every mistake and slip as a transgression that must be corrected immediately ● Attack someone for you getting angry ● Attack yourself for getting angry ● Try to be and have things perfect ● Suspect people's motives unless you have incontestable evidence that people can be trusted ● Assume any attempt to change yourself is an admission of failure ● Never forgive 	<p>Guidelines for action</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Expect angry people to exaggerate ● Recognise the other's frustrations and pressures ● Use the provocation to develop your abilities ● Allow the other to let off steam ● Begin to problem solve when the anger is at moderate levels ● Congratulate yourself on turning an outburst into an opportunity to find solutions ● Share successes with partners <p>Pitfalls to avoid</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Take every word literally ● Denounce the most extreme statements and ignore more moderate ones ● Doubt yourself because the other does ● Attack because you have been attacked ● Forget the experience without learning from it

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This is a role-playing exercise for groups of four. You will have a chance to play two different roles. All the roles are generic, so they can be played as either a woman or a man.

Instructions

Your lecturer will divide the class into groups of four. Everyone should read all five roles described. Members of each foursome will decide among themselves who will play which roles. All told, you will participate in two rounds of role playing (each round lasting no longer than eight minutes). In the first round, one person will play Role 1 and another will play Role 3; the remaining two group members will play Role 5. In the second round, those who played Role 5 in the first round will play Roles 2 and 4. The other two will switch to Role 5.

Role 1: The angry (out-of-control) shift supervisor

You work for a leading electronics company that makes computer chips and other computer-related equipment. Your factory is responsible for assembling and testing the company's most profitable

line of computer microprocessors. Business has been good, so your factory is working three shifts. The day shift, which you are now on, is the most desirable one. The night shift, from 11 p.m. to 7.30 a.m. is the least desirable and least productive. In fact, the night shift is such a mess that your boss, the factory manager, wants you to move to the night shift next week. Your boss just broke this bad news as the two of you are having lunch in the company cafeteria. You are shocked and angered because you are one of the most senior and highly rated shift supervisors in the factory. Thanks to your leadership, your shift has broken all production records during the past year. As the divorced single parent of a 10-year-old child, the radical schedule change would be a major lifestyle burden. Questions swirl through your head. 'Why me?' 'What kind of reliable child care will be available when I sleep during the day and work at night?' 'Why should I be "punished" for being a top supervisor?' 'Why don't they hire someone for the position?' Your boss asks what you think.

When playing this role, be as realistic as possible without getting so loud that you disrupt the other groups. Also, if anyone in your group would be offended by foul language, please refrain from cursing during your angry outburst.

Role 2: The angry (under-control) shift supervisor

Although you will use the same situation as in Role 1, this role will require you to read and act according to the tips for reducing chronic anger in the left side of the table above. You have plenty of reason to be frustrated and angry, but you realise the importance of maintaining a good working relationship with the factory manager.

Role 3: The (hard-driving) factory manager

You have a reputation for having a 'short fuse'. When someone gets angry with you, you attack. When playing this role, be as realistic as possible. Remember, you are responsible for the entire factory with its 1200 employees and hundreds of millions of dollars of electronics products. A hiring freeze is in place, so you have to move one of your current supervisors. You have chosen your best supervisor because the night shift is your biggest threat to profitable operations. The night-shift supervisor gets a 10 per cent bonus. Ideally, the move will only be for six months.

Role 4: The (mellow) factory manager

Although you will use the same general situation as in Role 3, this role will require you to read and act according to the tips for responding to angry provocation in the right side of Table 3.6. You have a reputation for being results-oriented but reasonable. You are good at taking a broad, strategic view of problems and are a good negotiator.

Role 5: Silent observer

Follow the exchange between the shift supervisor and the factory manager without talking or getting actively involved. Jot down some notes (for later class discussion) as you observe whether or not the factory manager did a good job of managing the supervisor's anger.

- 1 Why is uncontrolled anger a sure road to failure?
- 2 Is it possible to express anger without insulting others? Explain.
- 3 Which is more difficult, controlling anger in yourself or defusing someone else's anger? Why?
- 4 What useful lessons have you learned from this role-playing exercise?



Online Learning Centre

When you have read this chapter, log on to the Online Learning Centre website at www.mcgraw-hill.co.uk/textbooks/sinding to access test questions, additional exercises and other related resources.

Notes

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