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**IQRA NATIONAL UNIVERSITY**

**Phase-II, Hayatabad Peshawar,**

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# Final Online Exam

# Subject : Organizational Behavior

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**Q1. What happens when employees like their job and when they dislike their job?**

**Employees like the job**

Happy epmloyees are more productive and loyal. They will go the extra mile without being asked and reach their potential far faster than forced employees. Happy employees make the workplace more enjoyable helping other employees to enjoy their work as well as, in essence creating more happy employees. Happy employees don’t leave

When asked what things employees like most about work, they bring up the type of work they do, their co-workers, and the degree of flexibility at work. There is not much difference between people who are managers versus those who are employees. The greatest difference is managers are more likely to like the type of work they do than employees.

**Employee attitude**

When people speak of employee attitudes, they usually mean job satisfaction, which

describes a positive feeling about a job, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his job while a person with low level holds negative feelings.

**Job involvement**

Related to job satisfaction is job involvement, which measures the degree to which people identify psychologically with their jobs and consider their perceived performance levels important to self-worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. Another closely related concept is psychological empowerment, employees’ beliefs in the degree to which they influence their work environments, their competencies, the meaningfulness of their jobs, and their perceived autonomy.

Good leaders empower their employees by fostering their self-perception of competence through involving them in decisions, making them feel their work is important, and giving them discretion to “do their own thing.”

The cost to replace an employee has been estimated to be 150% of their salary! In California, to replace a customer service representative making $18,000 the average cost was $58,000.

An employee with organizational commitment identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to remain a member. A positive relationship appears to exist between organizational commitment and job productivity.

Interesting jobs that provide training, variety, independence, and control satisfy most employees. There is also a strong correspondence between how well people enjoy the social context of their workplace and how satisfied they are overall. Interdependence, feedback, social support, and interaction with coworkers outside the workplace are

strongly related to job satisfaction, even after accounting for characteristics of the work itself. Most employees are satisfied with their jobs; when they’re not, however, a host of actions in response to the dissatisfaction might be expected.

**Employees dislike the job**

When asked what things employees like least about work, they bring up the workload, management and compensation. It was pleasing to see that 13% of people could find nothing unlikeable about work.



There is however a lot of difference between people who are managers versus those who are employees in terms of what they dislike.

* 25% of managers dislike their workload compared to 15% of non-managers showing that the burden of over-work is placed more often than not on managers.
* Non-managers on the other hand, disliked management more than any other thing at 21% whereas there own managers only disliked it 11% of the time.
* Finally, managers at 19% were much more likely to find nothing to like about their jobs whereas non-managers stated this only 10% of the time.

Hygienes, the lack of which lead to dissatisfaction

* Company policy
* Supervision
* Relationship with boss
* Work conditions
* Salary
* Relationship with peers
* Security

One theoretical model the exit, voice, loyalty, neglect framework is helpful in understanding the consequences of dissatisfaction.



**Exit.**

The exit response directs behavior toward leaving the organization, including looking for a new position as well as resigning. To measure the effects of this response to dissatisfaction, researchers study individual terminations and collective turnover, the total loss to the organization of employee knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics.

**Voice.**

The voice response includes actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and undertaking some forms of union activity.

**Loyalty.**

The loyalty response means passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organization in the face of external criticism and trusting the organization and its management to “do the right thing.”

**Neglect.**

The neglect response passively allows conditions to worsen and includes chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

**Q2a). What is emotional labor and what is the impact of emotional labor on employees?**

**Emotional labor**

Is the process of managing feelings and expressions to fulfill the emotional requirements of a job. More specifically, workers are expected to regulate their emotions during interactions with customers, co-workers and superiors.

A situation in which an employee expresses organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transaction at work.

Every employee expends physical and mental labor when they put their bodies and cognitive capabilities, respectively, into their job. But jobs also require emotional labor.

Emotional labor is an employee’s expression of organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions at work.

The concept of emotional labor emerged from studies of service jobs. Airlines expect their flight attendants, for instance, to be cheerful, we expect funeral directors to be sad, and doctors to be emotionally neutral.

But really, emotional labor is relevant to almost every job. Your managers expect you, for example, to be courteous, not hostile, in interactions with coworkers. The true challenge is when employees have to project one emotion while simultaneously feeling another. This disparity is emotional dissonance, and it can take a heavy toll on employees. Left untreated, bottled-up feelings of frustration, anger, and resentment can eventually lead to emotional exhaustion and burnout.

Emotional labor creates dilemmas for employees. There are people with whom you have to work that you just plain don’t like. Maybe you consider their personality abrasive. Maybe you know they’ve said negative things about you behind your back.

Regardless, your job requires you to interact with these people on a regular basis. So you’re forced to affect friendliness. It can help you, on the job especially, if you separate emotions into felt or displayed. Felt emotions are an individual’s actual emotions. In contrast, displayed emotions are those that the organization requires workers to show and considers appropriate in a given job. They’re not innate; they’re learned. “The ritual look of delight on the face of the first runner-up as the new Miss America is announced is a product of the display rule that losers should mask their sadness with an expression of joy for the winner.”Similarly, most of us know that we are expected to act sad at funerals regardless of whether we consider the person’s death to be a loss and to pretend to be happy at weddings even if we don’t feel like celebrating.

Effective managers have learned to be serious when giving an employee a negative performance evaluation and to hide their anger when they’ve been passed over for promotion. And the salesperson who hasn’t learned to smile and appear friendly, regardless of his true feelings at the moment, isn’t typically going to last long on most sales jobs. How we experience an emotion isn’t always the same as how we show it.

Many people have problems working with others because they assume that the emotions they see others display is what those others actually feel.

Jobs today increasingly require employees to interact with customers. And customers aren’t always easy to deal with. They often complain, behave rudely, and make unrealistic demands. In such instances, an employee’s felt emotions may need to be disguised.

Employees who aren’t able to project a friendly and helpful demeanor in such situations are likely to alienate customers and are unlikely to be effective in their jobs. Displaying fake emotions requires us to suppress the emotions we really feel.

In other words, the individual has to “act” to keep her job. Surface acting is hiding one’s inner feelings and forging emotional expressions in response to display rules. For example, when a worker smiles at a customer even when he doesn’t feel like it, he is **surface acting**.

Surface acting deals with one’s displayed emotions, and deep acting deals with one’s felt emotions.

**Deep acting** is trying to modify one’s true inner feelings based on display rules. A health-care provider trying to genuinely feel more empathy for her patients is deep acting.

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**b) What is emotional intelligence and what are arguments in favor and against emotional intelligence?**

**Emotional intelligence**

Is the ability to understand and manage your own emotions, and those of the people around you. People with a high degree of emotional intelligence know what they're feeling, what their emotions mean, and how these emotions can affect other people.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is one’s ability to detect and to manage emotional cues and information.

People who know their own emotions and are good at reading others’ emotions may be more effective in their jobs.

EI is composed of five dimensions:

● **Self-awareness**

Being aware of what you’re feeling.

● **Self-management**

The ability to manage your own emotions and impulses.

● **Self-motivation**

The ability to persist in the face of setbacks and failures.

● **Empathy**

The ability to sense how others are feeling.

● **Social skills**

The ability to handle the emotions of others.

**The Case for EI**

EI has been a controversial concept in organizational behavior. It has its supporters and detractors.

We will review the arguments for, and against, the viability of EI in organizational behavior.

**Intuitive Appeal**

There’s a lot of intuitive appeal to the EI concept. Most everyone would agree that it is good to possess street smarts and social intelligence. Those people who can detect emotions in others, control their own emotions, and handle social interactions well will have a powerful leg up in the business world, so the thinking goes. As just one example, partners in a multinational consulting firm who scored above the median on an EI measure delivered $1.2 million more in business than did the other partners.

**EI Predicts Criteria That Matter**

Evidence is mounting that suggests a high level of EI means a person will perform well on the job. One study found that EI predicted the performance of employees in a cigarette factory in China.

Another study found that being able to recognize emotions in others’ facial expressions and to emotionally “eavesdrop” (pick up subtle signals about people’s emotions) predicted peer ratings of how valuable these people were to their organization. Finally, a review of 59 studies indicated that, overall, EI correlated moderately with job performance.

**EI Is Biologically Based**

One study has shown that people with damage to the part of the brain that governs emotional processing score significantly lower on EI tests. Even though these brain-damaged people scored no lower on standard measures of intelligence than people without the same brain damage, they were still impaired in normal decision making.

Specifically, when people were playing a card game in which there is a reward (money) for picking certain types of cards and a punishment (a loss of money) for picking other types of cards, the participants with no brain damage learned to succeed in the game, while the performance of the brain-damaged group worsened over time.

This study suggests that EI is neurologically based in a way that’s unrelated to standard measures of intelligence, and that people who suffer neurological damage score lower on EI and make poorer decisions than people who are healthier in this regard.

**The Case against EI**

For all its supporters, EI has just as many critics.

**EI Is Too Vague a Concept**

To many researchers, it’s not clear what EI is. Is it a form of intelligence? Most of us wouldn’t think that being self-aware or selfmotivated or having empathy is a matter of intellect. So, is EI a misnomer? Moreover, many times different researchers focus on different skills, making it difficult to get a definition of EI. One researcher may study self-discipline.

Another may study empathy. Another may look at self-awareness. As one reviewer noted, “The concept of EI has now become so broad and the components so variegated that it is no longer even an intelligible concept.”

**EI Can’t Be Measured**

Many critics have raised questions about measuring EI.

Because EI is a form of intelligence, for instance, then there must be right and wrong answers about it on tests, they argue. Some tests do have right and wrong answers,

although the validity of some of the questions on these measures is questionable. For example, one measure asks you to associate particular feelings with specific colors, as if purple always makes us feel cool not warm. Other measures are self-reported, meaning there is no right or wrong answer. For example, an EI test question might ask you to respond to the statement, “I’m good at‘reading’ other people.” In general, the measures of EI are diverse, and researchers have not subjected them to as much rigorous study as they have measures of personality and general intelligence.

**The Validity of EI Is Suspect**

Some critics argue that because EI is so closely related to intelligence and personality, once you control for these factors, EI has nothing unique to offer. There is some foundation to this argument. EI appears to be highly correlated with measures of personality, especially emotional stability. But there hasn’t been enough research on whether EI adds insight beyond measures of personality and general intelligence in predicting job performance. Still, among consulting firms and in the popular press, EI is wildly popular.

**Q3. What is personality and which personality traits are relevant to organizational behavior?**

**Personality**

Is defined as the characteristic sets of behaviors, cognitions, and emotional patterns that evolve from biological and environmental factors. While there is no generally agreed upon definition of personality, most theories focus on motivation and psychological interactions with one's environment.

The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

For our purposes, you should think of personality as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others. We most often describe it in terms of the measurable traits a person exhibits.

When we talk of personality, we don’t mean a person has charm, a positive attitude toward life, or a constantly smiling face. When psychologists talk of personality, they mean a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person’s whole psychological system.

**Measure personality**

Is that research has shown personality tests are useful in hiring decisions and help managers forecast who is best for a job. The most common means of measuring personality is through self-report surveys, with which individuals evaluate themselves on a series of factors, such as “I worry a lot about the future.” Though selfreport measures work well when well constructed, one weakness is that the respondent might lie or practice impression management to create a good impression. When people know their personality scores are going to be used for hiring decisions, they rate themselves as about half a standard deviation more conscientious and emotionally stable than if they are taking the test just to learn more about themselves. Another problem is accuracy. A perfectly good candidate could have been in a bad mood when taking the survey, and that will make the scores less accurate.

**The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator**

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is the most widely used personalityassessment instrument in the world. Respondents are classified as extraverted or introverted (E or I), sensing or intuitive (S or N), thinking or feeling (T or F), and judging or perceiving (J or P). These terms are defined as follows:

* **Extraverted (E) Versus Introverted (I).**

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

* **Sensing (S) Versus Intuitive (N).**

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

* **Thinking (T) Versus Feeling (F)**.

Thinking types use reason and logic to handle problems. Feeling types rely on their personal values and emotions.

* **Judging (J) Versus Perceiving (P).**

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

**The Big Five Personality Model**

The MBTI may lack strong supporting evidence, but an impressive body of research supports the thesis of the Big Five Model hat five basic dimensions underlie all others and encompass most of the significant variation in human personality. Moreover, test scores of these traits do a very good job of predicting how people behave in a variety of real-life situations.

The following are the **Big Five factors:**

* **Extraversion**.

The extraversion dimension captures our comfort level with relationships. Extraverts tend to be gregarious, assertive, and sociable. Introverts tend to be reserved, timid, and quiet.

* **Agreeableness**.

The agreeableness dimension refers to an individual’s propensity to defer to others. Highly agreeable people are cooperative, warm, and trusting. People who score low on agreeableness are cold, disagreeable, and antagonistic.

* **Conscientiousness**.

The conscientiousness dimension is a measure of reliability. A highly conscientious person is responsible, organized, dependable, and persistent. Those who score low on this dimension are easily distracted, disorganized, and unreliable.

* **Emotional Stability**.

The emotional stability dimension often labeled by its converse, neuroticism taps a person’s ability to withstand stress. People with positive emotional tability tend to be calm, self-confident, and secure. Those with high negative scores tend to be nervous, anxious, depressed, and insecure.

* **Openness to Experience**.

The openness to experience dimension addresses range of interests and fascination with novelty. Extremely open people are creative, curious, and artistically sensitive. Those at the other end of the category are conventional and find comfort in the familiar.

**Personality Traits Related to Organizational Behavior:**

**Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)**

People who have positive core self-evaluations like themselves and see themselves as effective, capable, and in control of their environment. Those with negative core self-evaluations tend to dislike themselves, question their capabilities, and view themselves as powerless over their environment.

**Machiaveellianism**

The degree to which an individual is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance, and believes that ends can justify means.

The personality characteristic of Machiavellianism (often abbreviated Mach) is named after Niccolo Machiavelli, who wrote in the sixteenth century on how to gain and use power.

**Narcissism**

The tendency to be arrogant, have a grandiose sense of self-importance, require excessive admiration, and have a sense of entitlement. Evidence suggests that narcissists are more charismatic and thus more likely to emerge as leaders, and they may even display better psychological health. Despite having some advantages, most evidence suggests that narcissism is undesirable. A study found that while narcissists thought they were better leaders than their colleagues, their supervisors actually rated them as worse.

**Self-Monitoring**

A personality trait that measures anindividuals ability to adjust his/her behavior to external,situational factors.

Self-monitoring refers to an individual’s ability to adjust behavior to external, situational factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behavior to external situational factors.

They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations, sometimes presenting striking contradictions between their public persona and their private self. Low self-monitors, can’t disguise themselves in that way. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitudes in every situation; hence, there is high behavioral consistency between who they are and what they do.

**Risk Taking**

Donald Trump stands out for his willingness to take risks. He started with almost nothing in the 1960s. By the mid-1980s, he had made a fortune by betting on a resurgent New York City real estate market. Then, trying to capitalize on his successes, Trump overextended himself. By 1994, he had a negative net worth of $850 million. Never fearful of taking chances, “The Donald” leveraged the few assets he had left on several New York, New Jersey, and Caribbean real estate ventures and hit it big again. In 2011, when Trump was contemplating a presidential run, The Atlantic estimated his net worth at more than $7 billion.

People differ in their willingness to take chances, a quality that affects how much time and information they need to make a decision. For instance, 79 managers worked on simulated exercises that required them to make hiring decisions. High risk-taking managers made more rapid decisions and used less information than did the low risk takers. Interestingly, decision accuracy was the same for both groups.

A high risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm because that type of job demands rapid decision making. On the other hand, a willingness to take risks might prove a major obstacle to an accountant who performs auditing activities.

**Proactive Personality**

Those with a proactive personality identify opportunities, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs, compared to others who passively react to situations. Proactives create positive change in their environment, regardless of, or even in spite of, constraints or obstacles. Not surprisingly, they have many desirable behaviors that organizations covet. They are more likely than others to be seen as leaders and to act as change agents. Proactive individuals are more likely to be satisfied with work and help others more with their tasks, largely because they build more relationships with others.

**Other-Orientation**

Some people just naturally seem to think about other people a lot, being concerned about their well-being and feelings. Others behave like “economic actors,” primarily rational and self-interested. These differences reflect varying levels of other-orientation, a personality trait that reflects the extent to which decisions are affected by social influences and concerns as opposed to our own well-being and outcomes.

Those who are other-oriented feel more obligated to help others who have helped them (pay me back), whereas those who are more self-oriented will help others when they expect to be helped in the future (pay me forward). Employees high in other-orientation also exert especially high levels of effort when engaged in helping work or prosocial behavior. In sum, it appears that having a strong orientation toward helping others does affect some behaviors that actually matter for organizations.

However, research is still needed to clarify this emerging construct and its relationship with agreeableness. Having discussed personality traits the enduring characteristics that describe a person’s behavior we now turn to values. Values are often very specific and describe belief systems rather than behavioral tendencies. Some beliefs or values don’t say much about a person’s personality, and we don’t always act consistently with our values

**Q4. What are values and what is the importance of values?**

**Values**

Values represent basic convictions that “a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.”

They contain a judgmental element in that they carry an individual’s ideas as to what is right, good, or desirable.

Values have both content and intensity attributes. The content attribute says a mode of conduct or end-state of existence is important. The intensity attribute specifies how important it is. When we rank an individual’s values in terms of their intensity, we obtain that person’s value system. All of us have a hierarchy of values that forms our value system. We find it in the relative importance we assign to values such as freedom, pleasure, self-respect, honesty, obedience, and equality.

**The Importance of Values**

Values lay the foundation for our understanding of people’s attitudes and motivation and influence our perceptions. We enter an organization with preconceived notions of what “ought” and “ought not” to be. These notions are not value-free; on the contrary, they contain our interpretations of right and wrong and our preference for certain behaviors or outcomes over others. As a result, values cloud objectivity and rationality; they influence attitudes and behavior

* **Terminal Versus Instrumental Values**

**Terminal values**

Refers to desirable end-states. These are the goals a person would like to achieve during a lifetime. Some examples of terminal values include prosperity and economic success, freedom, health and well-being, world peace, social recognition, and meaning in life.

**Instrumental values**

Refers to preferable modes of behavior, or means of achieving the terminal values. The types of instrumental values are self-improvement, autonomy and selfreliance, personal discipline, kindness, ambition, and goal-orientation.

* **International Values**

One of the most widely referenced approaches for analyzing variations among cultures was done in the late 1970s by Geert Hofstede.75 He surveyed more than 116,000 IBM employees in 40 countries about their work-related values and found that managers and employees vary on five value dimensions of national culture.

**Power Distance.**

Power distance describes the degree to which people in a country accept that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. A high rating on power distance means that large inequalities of power and wealth exist and are tolerated in the culture, as in a class or caste system that discourages upward mobility. A low power-distance rating characterizes societies that stress equality and opportunity.

**Individualism Versus Collectivism.**

Individualism is the degree to which people prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of groups and believe in individual rights above all else. Collectivism emphasizes a tight social framework in which people expect othersin groups of which they are a part to look after them and protect them.

**Masculinity Versus Femininity.**

Hofstede’s construct of masculinity is the degree to which the culture favors traditional masculine roles such as achievement, power, and control, as opposed to viewing men and women as equals. A high masculinity rating indicates the culture has separate roles for men and women, with men dominating the society. A high femininity rating means the culture sees little differentiation between male and female roles and treats women as the equals of men in all respects.

**Uncertainty Avoidance.**

The degree to which people in a country prefer structured over unstructured situations defines their uncertainty avoidance. In cultures that score high on uncertainty avoidance, people have an increased level of anxiety about uncertainty and ambiguity and use laws and controls to reduce uncertainty. People in cultures low on uncertainty avoidance are more accepting of ambiguity, are less rule oriented, take more risks, and more readily accept change.

**Long-Term Versus Short-Term Orientation.**

People in a culture with long-term orientation look to the future and value thrift, persistence, and tradition. In a short-term orientation, people value the here and now; they accept change more readily and don’t see commitments as impediments to change.