CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

With the uncertainty in the global economic atmosphere threatening major recession, rising cost of education and a depreciating rupee, the ever growing multitude of Indian graduates are questioning the worth of an M.B.A. degree. India is a booming M.B.A. market with over 3,500 B-schools and 5,00,000 students pursuing various M.B.A. or equivalent programs. Management consultant Gautam Gouthi believes that M.B.A. ensures a certain bandwidth over a non-M.B.A. candidate for recruitment. "But, it is necessary to have the skill set that companies are looking for." (Chitra Unnithan, 2012)

The employability of management graduates in India has declined in the past five years, as only 21 per cent of M.B.A.s surveyed is 'Employable', a study has said. According to the M.B.A. Universe.com-MeriTrac Employability Study 2012, which covered 2,264 M.B.A.s from 29 cities and 100 B-Schools, beyond the top 25, only 21 per cent are employable. The previous study of 2007 by MeriTrac had placed employability at 25 per cent. However, the number of M.B.A. seats in India has grown almost four-fold—from 94,704 in 2006-07 to 3,52,571 in 2011-12—resulting in a five-year compounded annual growth rate of 30 per cent, but their employability rates have fallen, the study said. (Preetika Rana, 2012)

Employment and employability continue to be domains where greater attention is required by Industry, Academia and Governments alike. As long as one can bridge the gap between what organizations expect and the skills people come equipped with as they emerge out of the educational system, India can meet and exceed its larger human resource goals. The greater the number of “Employable” people in India, the higher the potential of the country to bridge its rural-urban, social, gender and digital divides and move towards more equitable growth. The IMRB study indicates that in terms of the available talent pool, of the 308 million urban population in India, there are 88 million people in the 18-30 years age group of which 7 million people are unemployed, 23 million are employed and 17 million are students. Together, these account for a potential employee base of 47 million people. Many
studies were conducted to ascertain the existing skills gap in India. In a June 2009 report, India’s leading market research firm IMRB has examined the country’s employability scenario and attempted to gain an understanding of the skill sets required by different industry verticals. (Gauri Arora, 2010, Microsoft Interface)

The XI\textsuperscript{th} Five Year Plan (2007-12) itself has set ambitious goals of skills development. It aims to create the fuel, the necessary human expertise to power the economic advancement of India, which will ultimately lead to inclusive growth. The XI\textsuperscript{th} Plan estimates that the country has the capacity to create around 500 million certified technicians and vocationally skilled workers by 2022—predominantly undergraduates. These people will form part of the overall pool of 700 million globally employable professionals that will also include around 200 million University graduates.

Fast moving global economy leads to severe competition amongst the MNCs world over. Many developing countries have opened their economy to foreign direct investment. Domestic industries increasingly engaged in investing in R&D and entering into collaboration agreement with foreign companies for technological advancement in order to meet relentless competition from domestic and foreign companies. The management graduates looking forward to job opportunities need to have an edge over other large number of applicants to get the job they want. The applicants have to acquire the employability skills and the listed skills have to be proved in the course of selection process.

Students have to become independent learners. They are required to increase competence and confidence to fulfil their potential. They should select high quality teaching and learning resources and must strive hard to get the required support in all stages from all the quarters of their career. Successful students always take control of their learning. Many support systems lead to enhanced academic achievement and satisfaction. High profile colleges and universities provide advice and guidance across.

A report of aspiring Minds based its conclusions on a so-called “employability test” it conducted on 32,000 M.B.A. graduates from 220 business schools across India. The test, which quizzed graduates on topics ranging from grammar to
quantitative analysis, found that only 10% of those tested had skills that recruiters typically expect from management graduates. The study found that less than half of the students tested had some knowledge of key industry terms and concepts in their areas of specialty. (Aspiring Minds, 2012))

Study on employability and skill sets of newly graduated engineers in India revealed that shortage of skills remains one of the major constraints to continued growth of the Indian economy. This employer survey seeks to address this knowledge-gap by answering three questions: (1) Which skills do employers consider important when hiring new engineering graduates? (2) How satisfied are the employers with the skills of engineering graduates? and (3) In which important skills are the engineers falling short? The results confirm a widespread dissatisfaction with the current graduates. After classifying all skills by factor analysis, the authors conclude that employers perceive “Soft Skills” (core employability skills and communication skills) to be very important. The findings suggest that engineering education institutions should seek to improve the skill set of graduates, recognize the importance of soft skills, refocus the assessments, teaching-learning process and curricula from lower-order thinking skills, such as: remembering and understanding, toward higher-order skills such as: analyzing and solving engineering problems, as well as creativity, and interact more with employers to understand the particular demand for skills in that region and sector. (Andreas Blom and Hiroshi Saeki (2012))

2.1 CONCEPT AND MEANING OF EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS

Employers across all industries search for candidates who can demonstrate a wide range of employability skills which primarily include communication skills, team work, organizing, analytical skills, problem solving, negotiation skills, leadership skills, commercial awareness etc.

Employability has been defined as ‘the capability of getting and keeping satisfactory work’. Employability skills have been defined ‘A set of achievements, understandings and personal attributes that make individuals more likely to gain employment and to be successful in their chosen occupations’. (Mantz & Yorke, 2004).
It’s a set of attributes, skills and knowledge that all participants should possess to ensure that they have the capability of being effective in the workplace – to the benefit of themselves, their employer and the wider economy.

As the interest in promoting graduate employability has increased numerous studies have produced detailed breakdowns and taxonomies of particular skills and attributes required to promote graduate employability such as core skills; key skills; common skills; transferable skills; essential skills; functional skills; skills for life; generic skills and enterprise skills. According to Harvey et al, (1997 cited in Holden and Jameson, 2002), most employers are looking for graduates who are proactive, can use higher level skills including ‘analysis, critique, synthesis and multi layered communication to facilitate innovative teamwork in catalyzing the transformation of their organization’.

The literature indicates that employers want graduates who can adapt to the workplace culture, use their abilities and skills to evolve the organisation and participate in innovative teamwork. Employers also value critical thinking (reflection) as this is required for innovation and anticipating and leading change (Harvey et al, 1997).

The CBI contributed to the discussion on employability in their report, ‘Time well spent: Embedding employability in work experience’, (CBI 2007). They define employability skills as:

- Positive attitude
- Self-management
- Team working
- Business and customer awareness
- Problem solving
- Communication and literacy
- Application of numeracy and
- Application of information technology
In a research conducted on exploring Employability skills (Rob Martin, Villeneuve-Smith & Marshall (2008), it revealed 14 skills, which are as follows:

1. Communication skills
2. Team-working skills
3. Problem-solving skills
4. Literacy skills
5. Numeracy skills
6. General it skills
7. Timekeeping
8. Business awareness
9. Customer care skills
10. Personal presentation
11. Enthusiasm/commitment
12. Enterprising
13. Vocational job-specific skills

Based on the literature available and reviewed the investigator summed down to the following 6 factors as considered relevant as perceived factors of Employability skills and they are mentioned and detailed upon as below:

1. Stress Coping
2. Communication Skills
3. Leadership skills
4. Teamwork and problem solving
5. Time Management
6. Self- Efficacy

2.2 DEFINITIONS OF STRESS

In the past four decades, researchers have developed a number of useful definitions of stress. The definitions as stated by a few authors are as follows:
Scheldan Korchin (1965) defines “stress” neither by the conditions acting on the person (stressor) nor by the states of the person (coping resources, ego strength, etc) nor by his reactions (stress responses) but rather by the interplay of all the three. Stress arises when individuals perceive that they cannot adequately cope with the demands being made on them or with threats to their well-being.

Hans Selye (1970) defines stress as “any external events or internal drive which threatens to upset the organismic equilibrium.” It considers stress as “any action or situation that places special physical or psychological demands upon a person—anything that can imbalance his individual equilibrium. Stress, it is argued, can only be sensibly defined as a perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his or her ability to cope. An imbalance in this mechanism, when coping is importance, gives rise to the experiences of stress, and to the stress response.

Wingate (1978) defined stress as “any influence that disturbs the natural equilibrium of the body and includes within its reference physical injury, exposure, deprivation, all kinds of diseases and emotional disturbance.” Stress results from an imbalance between demands and resources.

Stress is the psychological, physiological and behavioural response by an individual when they perceive a lack of equilibrium between the demands placed upon them and their ability to meet those demands, which over a period of time, leads to ill-health. Stress occurs when pressure exceeds one’s perceived ability to cope.

Stress can be positive or negative. Stress can be positive when the situation offers an opportunity for a person to gain something. It acts as a motivator for peak performance. Stress can be negative when a person faces social, physical, organisational and emotional problems.

The difference between "stress" and "a stressor" - a stressor is an agent or stimulus that causes stress. Stress is the feeling we have when under pressure, while stressors are the things we respond to in our environment. Examples of stressors are noises, unpleasant people, a speeding car, or even going out on a first date. Generally (but not always), the more stressors we experience, the more stressed we feel.
Definitions of Stressors

Coleman (1950) defines a stressor as “any adjustive demand that requires coping behaviour on the part of an individual or group.”

Lazarus (1966) defines a stressor as: “a demand that taxes or overpowers the person’s resources.”

2.3 SOURCES OF STRESS

Stress generally arises out of conflict situations. It occurs when the attainment of a goal is threatened by an environmental obstacle outside the person or by a physical or psychological obstacle from within.

External obstacles may derive from parental child training methods that keep the person from expressing a strong drive such as: curiosity or aggression or fear or punishment or loss of parental love. These may come from peer rejection too, which towards the persons define for acceptance or companionship. They may come from religious or moral restrictions or activities. The person may like to engage in, or may come from group criticism and ridicule, which make the person feel inadequate to do what he wants to do. Internal obstacles may derive from physical disturbance such as Asthma, which frustrates the person and prevents him from doing what he wants to do. Most often, internal obstacles are psychological factors. The person with unrealistically high levels of aspirations, for example, will suffer failure in his attempts to reach his goals. An excessively strong feeling of obligation to the family, an internalized moral code and obsessions of many kinds are further examples of internal psychological obstacles.

Constant conflict over the satisfaction of drives results in a more or less steady state of heightened emotionality. Before the bodily changes that normally accompany emotions have subsided and before the body homeostasis is restored, another conflict occurs and the bodily preparation for action is triggered once again. The person is in an almost continuous state of readiness for action. As a result, he responds to emotion, the provoking stimuli with greater intensity than a normal well-adjusted person would, moreover, react to the same stresses in diverse ways.
2.4 TYPES OF STRESSES

Korchin (1965) has distinguished some general classes of stressful situations. They are:

1. Uncertainty and under simulations

   Particularly if the person is highly motivated or anxious or ambiguous, then vague situations are the powerful sources of stress. To face new and unknown situations, it has been found to be disturbing to animals as well as human beings.

2. Information overload

   Flooding an organism with many intense competing and demanding stimuli are stressful. The conditions of distraction, time pressure, excessive stimulation or multiple tasks are all illustrations of information overload.

3. Danger

   Danger existing or anticipated either to physical well-being or to the satisfaction of central needs is an important source of threat.

4. Ego-Control Failure

   An important function of the ego system is the control of primitive impulses. Threat to the capacity for control, as for example, in the situation of temptation or drive arouse is therefore stressful. Situation in which the individual is faced into passivity, powerlessness or impotent and where he has no sense of control over his fate are similarly distressing.

5. Ego-Masterly Failure

   “Control” suggests holding the line “mastery” intends moving forward. Personality emphasizes the exercise of competence or the movement towards self-actualization. It is worth taking separate note of mastery in addition to control and failure. Thus, being blocked from mastering new goals, developing and exercising new talents even without threat to present control or well being, can be an important source of threat.
6. Self-Esteem Danger

Thought related importance of self-esteem suggests separate emphasis for situations, which lower a person’s view of himself. In experimental studies of stress, there are often continual failures in seemingly important tests.

7. Other Esteem Danger

A parallel source of stress is threat of losing the affection and esteem of others, losing status or love, being ridiculed, being rejected or thought unworthy. According to (Hurlock, 2001) emotional stress is a generalized state of heightened emotionality, which eventually becomes habitual. In some people, stress may come mainly from fear. In others, it is a result of conflicts that give rise to anger, jealousy, envy or some other unpleasant emotions. Rarely, the emotions are expressed in overt actions but in most people the expressions are inhibit or displaced.

According to (Selye, 1970) the notion of stress can be broken down further into positive stress, which is called “Eustress” and negative stress called “Distress”. Examples of eustress would be a wedding occasion and that of distress would be attending a funeral. Both types of stress, tax the individual’s resources and adjustment though, distress typically has the potential to do more damage to one’s own physical and psychological health.

2.5 CATEGORIES OF STRESSORS

Adjustive demands of stresses stem from a number of sources. These sources represent three basic categories such as: frustration, conflicts and pressures. All the three are closely interrelated and they are as follows:

Frustration

When one’s strivings are thwarted, either by obstacles that block progress towards a desired goal or by absence of an appropriate goal frustration occurs. Frustrations can be particularly difficult for the individual to cope with because they often lead to self-devaluation. A wide range of obstacles both external and internal can lead to frustration. Prejudice, discrimination, no self satisfaction in a job and the death of a loved one are the common frustrations stemming from the environment.
The physical handicaps, lack of competencies, loneliness, guilt and inadequate self-control are sources of frustration that can result from our personal limitations.

**Conflicts**

In many instances, stress results from the simultaneous occurrence of two or more incompatible needs the motive the requirements of one preclude satisfaction of the others. In essence, the individual has a choice to make an experience conflict while trying to make it.

**Pressures**

Stress may stem not only from frustrations and conflicts but also from pressures to achieve specific goals. In general, pressures force a person to speed up intensified effort or to change the direction of goal-oriented behaviour. Pressures may originate from external or internal sources. Occupational demands can also be highly stressful and many jobs make severe demand in terms of responsibility, time and performance. It is also identified some occupations such as: Coal miner, air flight crew member or auto racer who apparently place the individual under an unusually high degree of stress which results in a vulnerability to heart diseases. In almost any job, if the individual is not really interested in or well suited to the work, occupational demands are likely to be a major source of stress regardless of the actual demands of the work situation. For some people, the most intense pressures are self-imposed, due to inner motivations; they may have the need to achieve along with an unrelenting perfectionism that places great pressure on their adjustment.

**2.6 EFFECTS OF STRESS**

The effects of stress response have been 1) Emotional 2) Physiological and 3) Behavioural in nature. It has been described in detail:

**a) Emotional Response**

Stress affects the physical and mental well-being of a person directly by keeping him in a constant state of readiness for actions related to the emotion that dominates his stress. Chronic anxiety for example, bring about an over production of the adrenal steroids and they in turn inhibit growth by acting to antagonize the growth hormone from the pituitary gland. If the chronic anxiety is present during the growth
years, it may result in abnormal growth, especially in stunted growth. A disturbance to physical and mental health occurs in stress, affects the quality and quantity of the person’s achievements and thus affects his self-respect. If the pattern of his growth is upset, the unfavourable effect on his self-concept will be intensified. Since stress affects the quality of the person’s behaviour, it indirectly influences his personality through reactions it calls forth from others. A person who has learned to fear others acts in a defensive way showing timidity and anxiety. Others react either by ignoring or by ridiculing him because of his immature behaviour. Similarly, a person who earns to act aggressively when frustrated in what he want to do become hostile towards others. They react to his hostility by rejecting him. In both examples, the person’s stress is intensified.

b) Physiological Response

Most of the obvious reactions to stress are perceived variables. People have sometimes paled with fear, reddened with rage, blushed with embarrassment, retched in revulsion, wept in joy and in sorrow, laughed out of pleasure, sympathy or cruelty. Under extreme stress they have gone mad with mysterious passions or pined away from maladies with no apparent organic cause. Early societies ascribed such phenomena to demons that had taken possession of the body. In the 4th century B.C. the Greek philosopher Plato ventured to suggest that all diseases of the body proceed from the mind or soul.

The primal stress response begins in the very centre of the brain, in the hypothalamus, a bundle of nerve cells that is no bigger than the tip of the thumb. It is a complex bundle. The regulation of growth, sex and reproduction are among its many functions. It also helps to stimulate such emotions as: fear, rage, and intense pleasure, which in some degree almost invariably accompanies stress. In directing the basic physiological changes involved in stress, the hypothalamus acts in two ways. First, it controls the Autonomic Nervous System (ANS) which regulates the involuntary activities of the body’s organs. Second, it activates the pituitary gland, which in turn orders the release of chemical messengers or hormones directly into the blood stream. In some ways, the two systems, nerves and hormones, reinforce each other to produce powerful unmistakable signals and yet they also balance and check
each other to keep the body from running out of control. Taken together they alter the functioning of almost every part of the body.

Many muscles of the body to begin with become tense and tighten at the command of the autonomic nerves. Through the action of some of these muscles, breathing becomes deeper and faster, the heartbeat rises and blood vessels constrict raising the blood pressure and almost completely closing the vessels just under the skin. The muscles of the face may control in expressions of strong emotions, those of the nostrils and throat force these passages wide open. But, other muscles suspend their function, the stomach and intestines temporarily halt digestion while the muscles controlling the bowels and bladder loosen.

Elsewhere, the ANS calls for subtler by equally important changes, perspiration increases while secretion of the saliva and mucus decrease. The sense organs sharpen perception in the case of the eye, for example, physiologists discovered in the 1960s that pupils which open and close to adjust vision to suit available light, dilate involuntarily during the stress response even when intensity of external light does not increase.

Finally the ANS directly stimulates the adrenal glands to release the hormones epinephrine and nor-epinephrine. These affect circulation reinforcing the ANS’s action in elevating the heartbeat and blood pressure. They signal the spleen to release more red blood corpuscles, enable the blood to clot more quickly and the bone marrow to produce more white blood corpuscles. The adrenals increase the amount of fat in the blood and stimulate the liver to produce more sugar. While these actions are being set in motion by the adrenal glands the pituitary too is reacting to signals from the hypothalamus. The pituitary secretes two hormones that play the major roles in the basic stress response: Thyrotrophic Hormone (TTH) - stimulates the thyroid which increases the rate at which the body produces energy and the other Adrenocorticotrophic Hormone (ACTH) which reinforces the signals sent by the adrenal glands through the ANS. All these signals conveyed by nerve impulses and chemical surges put the body in a position to fight.
c) Behavioural Response

Easier to analyse objectively is the behavioural type of stress response, a change in performance or behaviour, particularly as seen in certain action that land themselves to measurement. The effect of stress can be gauged in changes in the rate of error in carrying out a task, in productivity on the job or simply in the ability to get along with people. Generally the stress in moderate level will usually improve performance.

2.7 STRESS RELATED DISEASES

a) Essential Hypertension

During a state of calm, the vest of the heart and pulse are regular, even blood pressure is relatively low and the visceral organs are well supplied with blood and remain with low/moderate stress. During high stress the vessels of the visceral organs constrict and blood flow in greater quantity to the muscles of the trunks and limbs. With the tightening of the tiny vessels supplying the visceral organs the heart must work harder. As it beats faster and with greater force the pulse quickens and blood pressure mounts. Usually when the crisis passes, the body resumes normal functioning and the blood pressure returns to normal. But, under continuing emotional stress and strain, high blood pressure may become chronic.

b) Coronary Heart Disease

Coronary heart disease is a potentially lethal blockage of the arteries supplying blood to heart muscle, or myocardium. Its chief clinical manifestations are angina pectoris, myocardial infarction and disturbance of electrical conduction in the myocardium. Much of the causal pattern for the development of CHD remains a mystery. Noting these, cardiovascular researchers have increasingly turned their attention to possible non-biological contributions to the disease development, i.e. too psychological and personality factors.

As early as 1628, the Englishman, William Harvey, discovered that "affection of the mind" generated problems in heart function. Attempts of refinement and precise specifications of the psychological contribution to the development of the disease continue to the present day, for the most part in the context, identifying the crucial components of what Freidman and Rosenman (1959) first labelled the Type A behaviour pattern. Their
concepts is that the Type A pattern is "A complex set of behaviours that may be observed in a certain class of individuals under appropriately stressful circumstances". The pattern was said to involve indications of competitive drive in the absence of well-defined goals, impatience of time urgency and it manifested itself in accelerated speech and motor activity.

c) Peptic Ulcer

The ulcer results from an excessive flow of the stomach acid containing digestive juice, which eats away the lining of the stomach of duodenum leaving a crater like wound. Although dietary factors, diseases and other organic conditions may also lead to ulcers; it is now recognized that worry, depressed anger, resentment, anxiety, dependency and other negative emotional states may be involved in many cases. A high activity level in particular has been found to be frequent correlate of gastric lesions.

d) Recurrent Headaches

Although headaches can result from wide ranges of organic conditions the majority of them seem to be related to emotional tension. The typical migraine headache occurs in two phases. First, there is a markedly reduced flow of blood to certain parts of the brain, while this reduces blood flow to certain parts of the brain which is not associated with pain; many victims experience it as an "aura" that leads to the second phase. The second phase is characterized by a sudden rush of blood to the previously deprived area causing rapid expansion of the afflicted arteries and stimulation of local nerve endings. This stimulation produces the destructive migraine pain. The vast majority of headaches are so called “simple tension headaches”. These too involve stress and muscle changes, but the changes are thought to be different from those in migraine headaches.

2.8 COPING WITH STRESS

The modern drugs that specifically counteract stress, the tranquilizers are the most common to all remedies prescribed by the physicians to alleviate stress. Some popular stress relievers are loaded with the potential danger for their users. In the most affluent nations, millions of extra pounds of fat accompanied by increased risks of heart diseases and other disorders are carried around men, women and children who have learned that a sweet or dinner can temporarily relieve the pain. The
satisfying effects of smoking and alcoholic consumption are often purchased at a tragic long-term price.

However, new techniques aimed at relieving stress effects by enabling the individuals to control physical reactions or achieve a more philosophical heal to their attitude towards the pressures of everyday life. They seem to counteract directly the internal physiological responses of stress. Some of these methods involve such simple expedients such as diet, changes of programmes or regular exercise. Others call for a reordering of daily priorities, a slowing down of the pace or life, or even a complete change of life styles.

a) Bio-feedback

Among the new approaches to stress control, one of the most unusual is the technique known as Bio-feedback, or visceral learning, in which signals such as clicking tones or flashing lights help teach people to control their own irregular heartbeats, high blood pressure, chronic headaches. The method involves reward for progress for an indicated goal. The rewards is a psychological one, the flashing light or clicking tone and the goal in the application of a faculty that most people are unaware that they posse mental control over the Autonomic Nervous System.

b) Transcendental Meditation

The ability to control supposedly uncontrollable bodily reactions, particularly those known to be stress responses has long been claimed by mystics of the Orient. For centuries, practitioners of Suri and Zen have used individual meditation, sometimes accompanied by vigorous physical training, austere diets and gymnastic body postures, to achieve heightened states of consciousness and well-being as well as extra-ordinary control over breathing, heartbeat and other bodily process.

The most popular form of eastern mysticism is transcendental meditation: a practice introduced to the West in the early 1960's by an Indian monk named Maharishi Mahesh Yogi. According to Wallace and Benson, meditation is an anti-stress remedy, which looks very much like a counterpart of the fight or flight reaction.
Exercising

Perhaps the most basic of all stress relief measures is a certain amount of regular physical exercise along with a diet that does not have too much sugar, starch and fat.

Relaxation

Wolpe (1969) reported a strategy involving the reconditioning of anxiety reactions to particular stresses through relaxation and desensitization training. Using these techniques, he was successful in treating peptic ulcers, migraine, dermatitis and many other stress related illnesses.

2.9 CAUSES OF ACADEMIC STRESS

- Failure in exams/ class tests
- Feeling overwhelmed
- Experience severe test anxiety
- Having trouble in studying
- Studying, but having trouble with tests
- Thinking about quitting college or changing the major subject
- Lack of motivation
- Inadequate time management
- Lack of study skills
- Social distraction
- Learning disabilities

2.10 HEALTHY AND UNHEALTHY WAYS OF STUDENTS COPING WITH STRESS

1. Healthy ways of students coping with stress

- Change the source of the stress. Do something else for a while. Put down that study guide and jog for an hour.
- Confront the source of the stress. Ask the instructor for an extension on an assignment that is driving you crazy.
• Talk about the source of stress. Rid yourself of frustration. Find a good listener and vent. Talk through possible solutions.

• Shift your perspective. Tell yourself that each new course or assignment is a new challenge, and that there is something to be learned from every experience.

• Learn skills and attitudes that make tasks easier and more successful. Practice effective organization and time-management skills. For example, large projects are easier and less overwhelming when broken down into manageable steps.

• Learn about yourself and your priorities, and use the information to make decisions. Learn how to say "No" gracefully when someone offers you another attractive (or unpleasant) task about which you have a choice. Tell yourself that this unpleasantness will be over soon and that the whole process will bring you closer to reaching your goal.

• Mark the days that are left on the calendar, and enjoy crossing out each one as you near the finish.

• Take time out for enjoyable activities.

• Everyone needs a support system. Find friends or relatives with whom you have fun. Spend time with these people when you can be yourself and set aside the pressures of college, work, or family relationships.

• As a reward for your efforts, give yourself stress breaks. Listen to your favourite music, shoot baskets, or participate in some other brief activity that is mentally restful or fun.

• Ignore the source of the stress. Practice a little healthy procrastination and put a pleasant activity ahead of the stressful one. This is, of course, only a short-term solution.

• Get regular physical exercise and practice sound nutrition. Physical activity not only provides time out, but also changes your body chemistry as you burn off muscle tension built up from accommodating stress. Exercise also increases resistance to illness. Nutritious food and regular
meals help regulate your body chemistry and keep you functioning at your sharpest.

- Laugh often. Try to see the humorous side of the situation. Laughter is a great way to put people at ease and reduce stress. It can also put stressful situations into their proper perspective.

II. Unhealthy ways of students coping with stress

- Escaping through alcohol, drugs, frequent illness, sleep, overeating, or starving. These strategies suggest a permanent withdrawal or avoidance rather than a time out.

- Selecting strategies to avoid failure. Some students closely link their identities to excellence and achievement. Failure, or even the perception or failures, seriously threatens their self-esteem. By not trying, or by selecting goals, students can escape having their abilities unquestioned. Only their lack of effort will be questioned.

- Aiming too low. This reduces stress by eliminating intense pressure or possible feelings of failure. Dogged procrastination in starting projects, selecting less rigorous courses, or dropping out of university rather than bringing home poor grades allows students to avoid feelings of failure in the short run. Sadly, this sets the stage for long-term disappointment caused by a destructive coping style.

- Strategies like, over scheduling daily life with work and extracurricular activities, selecting impossibly demanding course loads or fussing endlessly over assignments in vain attempts to make them perfect are unhealthy to cope with stress. With this strategy, it is possible to succeed only through superhuman effort; thus the student can save face by not setting goals too high for anyone to achieve.

Coping is expending conscious effort to solve personal and interpersonal problems, and seeking to master, minimize or tolerate stress or conflict (Weiten, Lloyd 2008)
Gender differences in coping strategies are the ways in which men and women differ in managing psychological stress. There is evidence that males often develop stress due to their careers, whereas females often encounter stress due to issues in interpersonal relationships. (Davis, Mary Matthews, Karen Twamley, Elizabeth 1999). Early studies indicated that "there were gender differences in the sources of stressors, but gender differences in coping were relatively small after controlling for the source of stressors"; (Billings, Andrew, Moos, Rudolf 1981) and more recent work has similarly revealed "small differences between women's and men's coping strategies when studying individuals in similar situations."(Brannon, Linda and Feist, Jess, 2009)

In general, such differences as exist indicate that women tend to employ emotion-focused coping and the "tend-and-befriend" response to stress, whereas men tend to use problem-focused coping and the "fight-or-flight" response, perhaps because societal standards encourage men to be more individualistic, while women are often expected to be interpersonal. An alternative explanation for the aforementioned differences involves genetic factors. The degree to which genetic factors and social conditioning influence behaviour, is the subject of ongoing debate. (Washburn-Ormachea, Jill Hillman, Stephen Sawilowsky, Shlomo 2004)

The relationship between sex, stress appraisal, and coping strategy use continues to be debated. Past research has found that college women reported feeling more stress than college men (Abouserie 1994; Dusselier et al. 2005; Hudd et al. 2000; Piercecall and Keim 2007; Soderstrom et al. 2000). Although strong support for sex differences in college students’ appraisal of stress was found, empirical support for specific stressors that created and maintained stress has been mixed. For example, Misra et al. (2000) found that college women reported higher levels of stress than college men for some stressors such as frustration, self-imposed stress, and pressure in relation to academics. Dyson and Renk (2006), however, found no sex differences in college students’ reported stress levels for college and family stressors. Thus, past research has found sex differences in reported levels of stress for college students but strong evidence for specific stressors was not found. Sex differences have also been found in the use of coping strategies. College women reported greater use of emotion-
focused coping strategies including expressing feelings, seeking emotional support, denial, acceptance, and positive reframing than college men (Eaton and Bradley 2008; Stanton et al. 2000). College men, however, reported greater use of some types of emotion focused strategies such as mental disengagement through the use of alcohol than college women (Kieffer et al. 2006). Furthermore, past research showed that college women who endorsed feminine values were more likely to use emotion-focused coping strategies (Blanchard-Fields et al. 1991; Dyson and Renk 2006). College women also reported greater use of social support than college men (Dwyer and Cummings 2001). Thus, greater use of emotion-focused strategies might be the result of college women’s socialization, acceptance of traditional sex roles, and the tendency for women to “tend and befriend” (Dyson and Renk 2006; Zuckerman and Gagne 2003). Unlike emotion-focused strategies, research has not found a clear pattern of sex differences in college students’ use of problem-solving strategies to cope with stress (Dyson and Renk 2006; Pritchard and Wilson 2006).

Consequences of Stress

In stress logy, the understanding of the effects of stress and how it overloads the coping resources as well as dealing with the demands placed on us by circumstances can also be easily understood by visualising the negative effects of stress in 3 different consequences viz.:

a) the physical consequences
b) the physiological consequences and
c) the occupational consequences

a) The Physical Consequences

Stress does not automatically cause one to be ill physically. Its impact on health could be mediated by a combination of personality variables, genetic makeup, upbringing and environment. Studies have shown that about 80% of visits to the doctors are for stress related disorders. But the clear physical consequences once under prolonged stress will make the immune system weakened thereby vulnerable to illnesses. Glucocorticoids, the stress hormones cause the white blood cells to migrate to the bone marrow, making them less available for combating diseases. As the immune system weakens, increased susceptibility to cancer tends to become more
prominent as well as weakening of the muscles and glands. Cardiovascular diseases (heart diseases and stroke) are some of the common outcomes. Other physical consequences are ulcer, diabetes, hypertension, cholesterol levels rises, ulcers, spastic colons and other gastrointestinal disorders such as acidity levels brought on by the elevation of stress hormone cortisol, and nocturnal bruxism (teeth grinding at night).

b) The Psychological Consequences

Stress is always directly associated with emotional difficulties and behavioural problems. As too much demand is placed on the body, the ability to relax and enjoy life is affected. This in turn creates a host of other effects such as anxiety, phobias, panic attacks, depression, obsessions, compulsions and other psychiatric disorders. Other common effects are insomnia, aggression, alcoholism, other habitual addictions and divorce.

c) The Occupational Consequences

Stress and the inability to function as a result of thoughts, fears, phobias and concentration failure are always directly related. The inability to cope with life stressors leads to lower productivity, absenteeism, and increased mistakes on the job as well as accidents. Occupational consequences are always directly related to both psychological (emotional) and physical consequences and in turn create major financial losses to the individual and the organization. Even insurance companies are plagued by a surge in claims for disability due to stress-related disorders.
2.11 COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Introduction

Importance of communication has always been realized in all times because it is the most vital means by which people are connected together in society. However, today communication plays a crucial role in almost all aspects of life. Work in business, government or organizations are impossible without communication. People have to communicate with each other, exchange information, make decisions and talk about innovations.

Management is a complex practice of communicating with other people. In an age when the business environment is turbulent in terms of competition, new technologies political instability, workforce diversity, the need for good communication skills is being increasingly felt by managers at all levels.

The ability to communicate effectively in various business situations has to be developed. For organization to perform and to have a competitive advantage managers and workers have to be well equipped with communication skills. Many of the problems that occur in an organization are the direct result of people failing to communicate effectively and efficiently. Big corporations e.g. textile sector and multinational organizations need better communication skills in their employees so that they are able to work in teams and with people from diverse background. Good communication skills in today’s business world, has been found to directly impact productivity.

Need for Communication

Employers look for people who communicate well both verbally and in writing. If someone is applying for a job he or she will need to demonstrate good communication skills. The ability to communicate both verbally and in writing with a wide variety of people, maintain good eye contact, write clearly and succinctly, demonstrate a varied vocabulary and tailor one’s language to their audience are all essential skills that employers seek out. Good verbal and written communication means one can get his/her messages across with less chance of misunderstanding. Similarly, active listening skills involve not only hearing but gaining and understanding information. Listening is a basic requirement leading to less mistakes
and a greater understanding of the needs of employer and client. As one’s career progresses, the importance of communication skills increases since as well as creativity, people skills, and an aptitude for teamwork, the ability to speak and write with clarity and conciseness is essential for managers.

**Definitions**

Communication is a process where people (communicator) sending stimulus in purpose to change or to make behaviour of other people. Communication is a process sending information, idea, emotion, ability, etc. By using symbols such as words, pictures, numbers, etc. Communication is a process which explains who, says what, in which channel, to whom, with what effect. Communication is processes which make something which belong to one person become known to 2 persons or more.

Thus, we can conclude that communication is giving, receiving or exchanging ideas, information, signals or messages through appropriate media, enabling individuals or groups to persuade, to seek information, to give information or to express emotions. This broad definition includes body-language, skills of speaking and writing. It outlines the objectives of communication and also emphasizes listening as an important aspect of communication.

**The Communication Process**

The word process indicates that it is an activity that is connected with a series of steps that are deliberately undertaken to reach a goal. A communication process comprises the following elements:
What is involved in the communication process?

The steps involved in this process are:

1. **Idea:** Information exists in the mind of the sender (who is the source). This can be a concept, idea, information, or feelings.

2. **Encoding:** The source initiates a message by encoding the idea (or a thought) in words or symbols and sends it to a receiver. The message is the actual physical product from the source encoding. When we speak, the speech is the message. When we write, the writing is the message. When we gesture, the movements of our arms and the expressions of our faces are the message.

3. **The Channel:** The channel in the communication process is the medium that the sender uses to transmit the message to the receiver. Care needs to be exercised in selecting the most effective channel for each message. Even though both an oral and a written medium may be appropriate to transmit a particular message, one medium may be more effective than the other. To illustrate, let’s assume that an individual desires an immediate reply to a question. Although the message could be in either an oral or a written form, the oral medium most likely will be more effective because of the immediacy, if required. In selecting an appropriate channel, the sender must assess the following factors, as the situation demands:
   - need for immediate transmission of message, (Fax instead of letter)
   - need for immediate feedback, (Phone instead of fax)
   - need for permanent record of the message, (Written rather than oral)
   - degree of negotiation and persuasion required, (Personal meeting-face-to face)
   - the destination of the message, and (Far flung area-letter only)
   - the nature of the content of the message, (Has to be a contract-written)

In addition, the sender should take into consideration his/her skill in using each of the alternative channels, as well as the receiver’s skill in using each of the channels. Communication rarely takes place over only one channel; two or three even four channels are normally used simultaneously. Example: in face-to-face interactions, we speak and listen but we also gesture and receive these signals visually.
4. Decoding: It is the act of understanding messages (words or symbols). This is known as Decoding. When the sound waves are translated into ideas, we are taking them out of the code they are in, hence decoding. Thus, listeners and readers are often regarded as Decoders. During the transmitting of the message, two processes will be received by the receiver.

Content and Context.

Content is the actual words or symbols of the message which is known as language – i.e. spoken and written words combined into phrases that make grammatical and semantic (meaning) sense. We all use and interpret the meanings of words differently, so even simple messages can be misunderstood (Are you going to give me or not?). And many words have different meanings to confuse the issue even more (You are smart.).

Context is the environment in which communication takes place. It can be formal or informal. The circumstances surrounding the communication also make up the context.

Remember: A message is never communicated unless it is understood by the receiver. Then the question arises as to how do you know a message has been properly received?

5. Feedback: By two-way communication or feedback. This feedback will tell the sender that the receiver understood the message, its level of importance, and what must be done with it. So the feedback loop is the final link in the communication process. Feedback is the check on how successful we have been, in transferring our messages as originally intended. It determines whether understanding has been achieved or not. The purpose of feedback is to change and alter messages so the intention of the original communicator is understood by the second communicator. It includes verbal and nonverbal responses to another person's message.

Patterns of Communication

Communication means transferring messages from one to another and it has several forms such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, group and mass communication. While it comes to group communication it has a certain patterns in its own. Few patterns are popular in mainstream communication studies.
Such as:

- Circle
- Chain
- Y
- Wheel

All communication patterns are all have certain problems with each other. In circle, Chain and Y patterns all group members can’t directly communicate with the group leader. They can communicate to leader only through group members. In Wheel, all the group members can communicate directly with the group leader.

![Diagram of Circle Pattern]

Circle Pattern

In Circle pattern, the sender (Group Leader) can communicate with the receivers (group members) who presents next to him/her. No others group members can’t receive the sender’s message directly and they receive messages from the other group members who sharing the message from the sender. In this pattern of communication the sender messages travels all over the group through sharing by its members will take time to reach sender again.
**Chain Pattern**

In Chain pattern, the same problems were appearing as like a circle pattern. The worst part in the pattern is the last member receives the modified messages from the leader. In this case the leader can’t find whether the last member receives the correct information or not because there is no feedback to identify the message distortion.

**Y Pattern**

In Y pattern, it’s more complicated pattern and also has the communication problem which appears in both circle and chain pattern. The group is separated into three and the group members can communicate with the other members group through leader only.
Wheel Pattern

In Wheel pattern, one of the best pattern while compare to other three. The leader has direct contact with all the group members and there are no communication problems, time issue and feedback from the group members. But all the group members can’t connect with one another.

2.12 FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

There are various classifications of forms of communication. Basically it is distinguished as two main forms of communication.

1. Verbal communication which further includes
   a) Oral communication such as talking to oneself, dialogue, discussion between two people, telephone calls.
   b) Visual communication such as maps, graphic, traffic signals, advertisement
   c) Written communication such as memos, letters reports, papers.
   d) Electronic which is communication facilitated by an interface with a computer, modem, telephone fax, E-mail, etc.

II. Non-verbal communication: Such as body movement facial expression and voice etc. Depending upon these basic forms of communication, many researchers agreed to classify forms of communication as:
   a) Intrapersonal Communication
      It is a communication transaction that takes place within the individual, this is the silent talking all of us do to ourselves such as thinking, remembering,
dreaming and deciding. Intrapersonal communication is made possible because man become object to himself. That is he both produces and receives the same message. This type of communication fills more time in our experience because in every communication there are always subjects to our own private interpretation.

b) **Interpersonal Communication**

It is the process of face-to-face interaction between sender and receiver such as group meetings, interviews, conversations among individuals. It has the advantage of a two-way communication with immediate feedback.

c) **Media Communication**

It is the area of communication which interfaces between interpersonal communication and mass communication. It is an intermediate level of communication.

**Non-Verbal Communication:**

It is a fundamental human interaction where speech alone is unable to deal with it. It is communication that can occur without words at all. The sender has at least four main sets of physical non–verbal cues: face, eyes, body, and voice.

a) The face includes frowning, smiling and grimacing.

b) The eyes can signal by direction of gaze.

c) The body offers posture positions of arms and legs and distancing.

d) Voice includes tone and speech rhythm.

The receiver has five primary senses: vision, hearing, touch, taste and smell. There are five functional categories of non-verbal communication:

a) Emblems movements that are substituted for words.

b) Illustrators movements that accompany speech and accent.

c) Regulators movements that maintain or signal a change in speaking and listening roles.

d) Adaptors movements related to individual need or emotional state.

e) Effect particularly the facial expressions showing emotions.
Kinds of Non-Verbal Language:

a. **Language of facial expression**: In general a smile, a scowl or a frown has a universal meaning. A frown may be dislike, or disapproval, or puzzlement. A smile may be love, happiness, amusement, or kindness.

b. **Language of eye contact**: There are a number of messages communicated by glances such as: involvement, hostility, command and others.

c. **Language of posture**: The more the person leans towards the individual he is talking to, the more positively he feels about the person and vice versa.

d. **Language of voice**: Voice variations may convey anger, fear, grief, etc.

e. **Language of apparel**: The way we dress communicates something about us. All of us wear uniforms such as work clothes, play clothes, formal dress, etc. Our dress reflects our respect for those whom we visit, or go out with. Also it is assumed that young people who wear glasses tend to be judged as more seniors and intelligent.

f. **Language of colour**: Warm colours - such as yellow, orange, and red - stimulate creativity and make people feel outgoing, and responsive to others. Cool colours encourage meditation and also may discourage conversation.

g. **Language of odour**: Odours have a profound ability to recall memories out of one’s past. Food smells remind one of his mother’s cooking, flowers of springtime, etc.

h. **Language of time**: People and culture have a unique culture clock. In Egypt you can be for half an hour late for a party, or business appointment. On the other hand, in Europe you can’t be late for neither of them.

i. **Language of space**: Every individual seems to develop a distance at which he prefers to interact with others Latin Americans like to talk with each other closely while North Americans maintain a considerable distance.
2.13 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Recognizing barriers to effective communication is a first step in improving communication style. There are many reasons why interpersonal communications may fail. In many communications, the message (what is said) may not be received exactly the way the sender intended. It is, therefore, important that the communicator seeks feedback to check that their message is clearly understood.

The skills of Active Listening, Clarification and Reflection may help but the skilled communicator also needs to be aware of the barriers to effective communication and how to avoid or overcome them.

There are many barriers to communication and these may occur at any stage in the communication process. Barriers may lead to your message becoming distorted and you therefore risk wasting both time and/or money by causing confusion and misunderstanding. Effective communication involves overcoming these barriers and conveying a clear and concise message. Following are the list of barriers explained, that occur while communicating:

i. Encoding Barriers

The process of selecting and organizing symbols to represent a message requires skill and knowledge. Obstacles listed below can interfere with an effective message.

a. Lack of Sensitivity to Receiver. A breakdown in communication may result when a message is not adapted to its receiver. Recognizing the receiver’s needs, status, knowledge of the subject, and language skills assists the sender in preparing a successful message. If a customer is angry, for example, an effective response may be just to listen to the person vent for awhile.

b. Lack of Basic Communication Skills. The receiver is less likely to understand the message if the sender has trouble choosing the precise words needed and arranging those words in a grammatically-correct sentence.

c. Insufficient Knowledge of the Subject. If the sender lacks specific information about something, the receiver will likely receive an unclear or mixed message. Have you shopped for an item such as a computer, and
experienced how some sales people can explain complicated terms and ideas in a simple way? Others cannot.

d. **Information Overload.** If you receive a message with too much information, you may tend to put up a barrier because the amount of information is coming so fast that you may have difficulty comfortably interpreting that information. If you are selling an item with twenty-five terrific features, pick two or three important features to emphasize instead of overwhelming your receiver (ho-hum) with an information avalanche.

e. **Emotional Interference.** An emotional individual may not be able to communicate well. If someone is angry, hostile, resentful, joyful, or fearful, that person may be too preoccupied with emotions to receive the intended message. If you don’t like someone, for example, you may have trouble “hearing” them.

ii. **Transmitting Barriers:**

Things that get in the way of message transmission are sometimes called “noise.” Communication may be difficult because of noise and some of these problems:

a. **Physical Distractions.** A bad cellular phone line or a noisy restaurant can destroy communication. If an E-mail message or letter is not formatted properly, or if it contains grammatical and spelling errors, the receiver may not be able to concentrate on the message because the physical appearance of the letter or E-mail is sloppy and unprofessional.

b. **Conflicting Messages.** Messages that cause a conflict in perception for the receiver may result in incomplete communication. For example, if a person constantly uses jargon or slang to communicate with someone from another country who has never heard such expressions, mixed messages are sure to result. Another example of conflicting messages might be if a supervisor requests a report immediately without giving the report writer enough time to gather the proper information. Does the report writer emphasize speed in writing the report, or accuracy in gathering the data?
c. **Channel Barriers.** If the sender chooses an inappropriate channel of communication, communication may cease. Detailed instructions presented over the telephone, for example, may be frustrating for both communicators. If you are on a computer technical support help line discussing a problem, it would be helpful for you to be sitting in front of a computer, as opposed to taking notes from the support staff and then returning to your computer station.

d. **Long Communication Chain.** The longer the communication chain, the greater the chance for error. If a message is passed through too many receivers, the message often becomes distorted. If a person starts a message at one end of a communication chain of ten people, for example, the message that eventually returns is usually liberally altered.

iii. **Decoding Barriers**

The communication cycle may break down at the receiving end for some of these reasons:

a) **Lack of Interest.** If a message reaches a reader who is not interested in the message, the reader may read the message hurriedly or listen to the message carelessly. Miscommunication may result in both cases.

b) **Lack of Knowledge.** If a receiver is unable to understand a message filled with technical information, communication will break down. Unless a computer user knows something about the Windows environment, for example, the user may have difficulty organizing files if given technical instructions.

c) **Lack of Communication Skills.** Those who have weak reading and listening skills make ineffective receivers. On the other hand, those who have a good professional vocabulary and who concentrate on listening, have less trouble hearing and interpreting good communication. Many people tune out who is talking and mentally rehearse what they are going to say in return.

d) **Emotional Distractions.** If emotions interfere with the creation and transmission of a message, they can also disrupt reception. If you receive a report from your supervisor regarding proposed changes in work procedures
and you do not particularly like your supervisor, you may have trouble even reading the report objectively. You may read, not objectively, but to find fault. You may misinterpret words and read negative impressions between the lines. Consequently, you are likely to misunderstand part or all of the report.

e) **Physical Distractions.** If a receiver of a communication works in an area with bright lights, glare on computer screens, loud noises, excessively hot or cold work spaces, or physical ailments, that receiver will probably experience communication breakdowns on a regular basis.

iv. **Responding Barriers**

The communication cycle may be broken if feedback is unsuccessful.

a) **No Provision for Feedback.** Since communication is a two-way process, the sender must search for a means of getting a response from the receiver. If a team leader does not permit any interruptions or questions while discussing projects, he may find that team members may not completely understand what they are to do. Face-to-face oral communication is considered the best type of communication since feedback can be both verbal and nonverbal. When two communicators are separated, care must be taken to ask for meaningful feedback.

B) **Inadequate Feedback.** Delayed or judgmental feedback can interfere with good communication. If your supervisor gives you instructions in long, compound-complex sentences without giving you a chance to speak, you may pretend to understand the instructions just so you can leave the stress of the conversation. Because you may have not fully understood the intended instructions, your performance may suffer.

**2.14 METHODS OF OVERCOMING BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION**

Overcoming the communication barriers requires a vigilant observation and thoughts of potential barriers in a particular instance of communication. State all the anticipated barriers that may have impact on your day-to-day communication. Strategies to overcome barriers will be different in different situations depending upon the type of barriers present. Following are some of the important general
strategies that will be commonly useful in all the situations to overcome the barriers of communication.

- Taking the receiver more seriously
- Crystal clear message
- Delivering messages skilfully
- Focusing on the receiver
- Using multiple channels to communicate instead of relying on one channel
- Ensuring appropriate feedback
- Be aware of your own state of mind/emotions/attitude

**Guidelines to Effective Communication**

In addition to removal of specific barriers to communication, the following general guidelines may be helpful to facilitate communication:

- Have a positive attitude about communication. Defensiveness interferes with communication.
- Work at improving communication skills. The communication model and discussion of barriers to communication provide the necessary knowledge to improve communication. This increased awareness of the potential for improving communication is the first step to better communication.
- Include communication as a skill to be evaluated along with all the other nursing skills for undergraduates.
- Make communication goal oriented. Relational goals come first and pave the way for other goals. When the sender and receiver have a good relationship, they are much more likely to accomplish their communication goals.
- Experiment with communication alternatives. What works with one person may not work well with another. Use diverse communication channels, listening and feedback techniques.
- Accept the reality of miscommunication. The best communicators fail to have perfect communication. They accept miscommunication and work to minimize its negative impacts.
- Use of simple and clear words should be emphasized. Use of ambiguous words and jargons should be avoided.
- Noise is the main communication barrier in most of the health care settings, which must be handled on priority basis. It is essential to identify and eliminate the source of noise.
- Listen attentively and carefully. There is a difference between “listening” and “hearing.” Active listening means hearing with a proper understanding of the message. By asking questions, the speaker can ensure whether his/her message is understood or not by the receiver in the same manner as intended by him.
- The organizational structure should be simple to facilitate communication between various hierarchy levels. The number of hierarchical levels should be optimum, and there should be an ideal span of control within the organization. Simpler the organizational structure, more effective will be the communication.
- The managers should know how to prioritize their work. They should not overload themselves with the work, should spend quality time with their subordinates, and should listen to their problems and feedbacks actively.

There are 6 C's of effective communication, which are applicable to both written and oral communication. They are as follows:

1. **Complete** - the message must be complete in all respect and should convey all facts required by the receiver. Incompleteness of the message may lead to misunderstanding or incomplete understanding and confusion between the sender and the receiver. It is the responsibility of the sender to make sure (before mailing the message) that the information provided in the message is complete as per the purpose of the communication.

2. **Clear** - Clarity in communication makes understanding easier and enhances the meaning of a message. A clear message uses exact, appropriate, and concrete words and avoids ambiguous words.

3. **Correctness** - Correctness in communication implies that there are no grammatical and spelling errors in communication.
4. **Concise** - Conciseness means eliminating wordiness and communicating what you want to convey in least possible words without forgoing the other C’s of communication. Conciseness is a necessity for effective communication.

5. **Consideration** - Consideration implies “stepping into the shoes of others.” Effective communication must take the receiver/s into consideration (i.e., the audience's viewpoints, background, mindset, education level, etc.). The sender should make an attempt to understand the audience, their requirements, emotions, as well as problems. Ensure that the self-respect of the audience is maintained and their emotions are not hurt.

6. **Courtesy** - courtesy in message implies that the message should show the sender's expression as well as respect to the receiver. The sender of the message should be sincerely polite, judicious, reflective, and enthusiastic.
2.15 LEADERSHIP SKILLS

Introduction

Good leaders are made not born. Good leaders develop through a never ending process of self-study, education, training, and experience (Jago, 1982). Leadership is the ability to influence others toward the achievement of a goal. Leaders either have, or are perceived to have, strong self-confidence. Leaders are team players, allowing them to work in a group to achieve the best results for their employer. Leaders show social skills by respecting the thoughts, opinions and ideas of others - they gain the respect of others and aim for credibility. The latest QS recruitment survey (2010) lists the four most important skills sought by executive level recruiters as interpersonal skills, communication skills, strategic thinking and leadership ability.

Definitions

"Leadership is getting people to want to follow. That requires engaging them passionately, from the heart, and requires persuading people to change. Management is tactical; leadership is strategic." - Tom Kennedy, a certified management consultant and principal of The Kennedy Group.

"Leadership is when you give of yourself for the greater good of others with no expectation of reward. It's that willingness to jump in a ditch with your whole team so that the next time they fall in, everyone understands the best and easiest way to get out." - Roxanne Reed, executive director of the Military Spouse Foundation.

"Leadership is a mindset of total personal accountability for the results and outcomes produced without fault, blame, guilt or any manner of finger-pointing when results are bad. Leadership is being personally accountable whether someone is going to hold you accountable or not." - Linda Galindo, consultant, speaker, educator and author of "The 85% Solution: How Personal Accountability Guarantees Success - No Nonsense, No Excuses".

"(Leadership is) the ability to make your followers believe that you possess superior knowledge of the situation, greater wisdom to cope with the unknown, or greater moral force. Unless you seem to have more of these things than the average follower does, they won't follow you around the first corner." -- Tom Hopkins, author of 14 books, including “How to Master the Art of Selling” (Business Plus, 2005).
"The key to leadership is having a vision, and being strong enough to say no and not try to please everybody. That's a recipe for failure. Leadership is practiced through attitude and actions, rather than words and memos." -- Matt Mickiewicz, founder of Flippa.com, DeveloperAuction.com, 99designs, and Sitepoint.com.

2.16 FACTORS OF LEADERSHIP

Leader

You must have an honest understanding of who you are, what you know, and what you can do. Also, note that it is the followers, not the leader or someone else who determines if the leader is successful. If they do not trust or lack confidence in their leader, then they will be uninspired. To be successful you have to convince your followers, not yourself or your superiors, that you are worthy of being followed.

Followers

Different people require different styles of leadership. For example, a new hire requires more supervision than an experienced employee does. A person who lacks motivation requires a different approach than one with a high degree of motivation. You must know your people! The fundamental starting point is having a good understanding of human nature, such as needs, emotions, and motivation. You must come to know your employees' be, know, and do attributes.

Communication

You lead through two-way communication. Much of it is nonverbal. For instance, when you “set the example,” that communicates to your people that you would not ask them to perform anything that you would not be willing to do. What and how you communicate either builds or harms the relationship between you and your employees.

Situation

All situations are different. What you do in one situation will not always work in another. You must use your judgment to decide the best course of action and the leadership style needed for each situation. For example, you may need to confront an employee for inappropriate behaviour, but if the confrontation is too late or too early, too harsh or too weak, then the results may prove ineffective.
Also note that the *situation* normally has a greater effect on a leader's action than his or her traits. This is because while traits may have an impressive stability over a period of time, they have little consistency across situations (Mischel, 1968).

Examples of forces are:

- your relationship with your seniors
- the skill of your followers
- the informal leaders within your organization
- how your organization is organized

### 2.17 PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP

- **Know yourself and seek self-improvement** - In order to know yourself, you have to understand your *be, know, and do*, attributes. Seeking self-improvement means continually strengthening your attributes. This can be accomplished through self-study, formal classes, reflection, and interacting with others.

- **Be technically proficient** - As a leader, you must know your job and have a solid familiarity with your employees' tasks.

- **Seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions** - Search for ways to guide your organization to new heights. And when things go wrong, as they often tend to do sooner or later — do not blame others. Analyze the situation, take corrective action, and move on to the next challenge.

- **Make sound and timely decisions** - Use good problem solving, decision making, and planning tools.

- **Set the example** - Be a good role model for your employees. They must not only hear what they are expected to do, but also see. *We must become the change we want to see* - Mahatma Gandhi

- **Know your people and look out for their well-being** - Know human nature and the importance of sincerely caring for your workers.

- **Keep your workers informed** - Know how to communicate with not only them, but also seniors and other key people.
• **Develop a sense of responsibility in your workers** - Help to develop good character traits that will help them carry out their professional responsibilities.

• **Ensure that tasks are understood, supervised, and accomplished** - Communication is the key to this responsibility.

• **Train as a team** - Although many so-called leaders call their organization, department, section, etc. a team; they are not really teams... they are just a group of people doing their jobs.

• **Use the full capabilities of your organization** - By developing a team spirit, you will be able to employ your organization, department, section, etc. to its fullest capabilities.

### 2.18 LEADERSHIP STYLES

A leadership style is a leader's style of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. There are many different leadership styles that can be exhibited by leaders in the political, business or other fields. (Jago, 1982)

Common leadership styles include:

1. Autocratic leadership.
2. Bureaucratic leadership.
3. Charismatic leadership.
4. Democratic/participative leadership.
5. Laissez-faire leadership.
6. People/relations-oriented leadership.
7. Servant leadership.
8. Task-oriented leadership.
9. Transactional leadership.
10. Transformational leadership.

### 1. Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership is an extreme form of transactional leadership, where leaders have a lot of power over their people. Staff and team members have little opportunity to make suggestions, even if these would be in the team's or the organization's best interest.
The benefit of autocratic leadership is that it's incredibly efficient. Decisions are made quickly, and work gets done efficiently.

The downside is that most people resent being treated this way. Therefore, autocratic leadership can often lead to high levels of absenteeism and high staff turnover. However, the style can be effective for some routine and unskilled jobs: in these situations, the advantages of control may outweigh the disadvantages.

Autocratic leadership is often best used in crises, when decisions must be made quickly and without dissent. For instance, the military often uses an autocratic leadership style; top commanders are responsible for quickly making complex decisions, which allows troops to focus their attention and energy on performing their allotted tasks and missions.

2. Bureaucratic Leadership

Bureaucratic leaders work "by the book." They follow rules rigorously, and ensure that their people follow procedures precisely.

This is an appropriate leadership style for work involving serious safety risks (such as working with machinery, with toxic substances, or at dangerous heights) or where large sums of money are involved. Bureaucratic leadership is also useful in organizations where employees do routine tasks (as in manufacturing).

The downside of this leadership style is that it's ineffective in teams and organizations that rely on flexibility, creativity, or innovation.

Much of the time, bureaucratic leaders achieve their position because of their ability to conform to and uphold rules, not because of their qualifications or expertise. This can cause resentment when team members don't value their expertise or advice.

3. Charismatic Leadership

A charismatic leadership style can resemble transformational leadership because these leaders inspire enthusiasm in their teams and are energetic in motivating others to move forward. This ability to create excitement and commitment is an enormous benefit.

The difference between charismatic leaders and transformational leaders lies in their intention. Transformational leaders want to transform their teams and
organizations. Charismatic leaders are often focused on themselves, and may not want to change anything.

The downside to charismatic leaders is that they can believe more in themselves than in their teams. This can create the risk that a project or even an entire organization might collapse if the leader leaves. A charismatic leader might believe that she can do no wrong, even when others are warning her about the path she's on; and this feeling of invincibility can ruin a team or an organization.

Also, in the followers' eyes, success is directly connected to the presence of the charismatic leader. As such, charismatic leadership carries great responsibility, and it needs a long-term commitment from the leader.

4. Democratic / Participative Leadership

Democratic leaders make the final decisions, but they include team members in the decision-making process. They encourage creativity, and team members are often highly engaged in projects and decisions.

There are many benefits of democratic leadership. Team members tend to have high job satisfaction and are productive because they're more involved in decisions. This style also helps develop people's skills. Team members feel in control of their destiny, so they're motivated to work hard by more than just a financial reward.

Because participation takes time, this approach can slow decision-making, but the result is often good. The approach can be most suitable when working as a team is essential, and when quality is more important than efficiency or productivity.

The downside of democratic leadership is that it can often hinder situations where speed or efficiency is essential. For instance, during a crisis, a team can waste valuable time gathering people's input. Another downside is that some team members might not have the knowledge or expertise to provide high quality input.

5. Laissez-Faire Leadership

This French phrase means "leave it be," and it describes leaders who allow their people to work on their own. This type of leadership can also occur naturally, when managers don't have sufficient control over their work and their people.
Laissez-faire leaders may give complete freedom to their teams to do their work and set their own deadlines. They provide team support with resources and advice, if needed, but otherwise don't get involved.

This leadership style can be effective if the leader monitors performance and gives feedback to team members regularly. It is most likely to be effective when individual team members are experienced, skilled, self-starters.

The main benefit of laissez-faire leadership is that giving team members so much autonomy can lead to high job satisfaction and increased productivity. The downside is that it can be damaging if team members don't manage their time well or if they don't have the knowledge, skills, or motivation to do their work effectively.

6. People-Oriented/Relations-Oriented Leadership

With people-oriented leadership, leaders are totally focused on organizing, supporting, and developing the people on their teams. This is a participatory style and tends to encourage good teamwork and creative collaboration. This is the opposite of task-oriented leadership.

People-oriented leaders treat everyone on the team equally. They're friendly and approachable, they pay attention to the welfare of everyone in the group, and they make themselves available whenever team members need help or advice.

The benefit of this leadership style is that people-oriented leaders create teams that everyone wants to be part of. Team members are often more productive and willing to take risks, because they know that the leader will provide support if they need it.

The downside is that some leaders can take this approach too far; they may put the development of their team above tasks or project directives.

7. Servant Leadership

This term, created by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, describes a leader often not formally recognized as such. When someone at any level within an organization leads simply by meeting the needs of the team, he or she can be described as a "servant leader."
Servant leaders often lead by example. They have high integrity and lead with generosity.

In many ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership because the whole team tends to be involved in decision making. However, servant leaders often "lead from behind," preferring to stay out of the limelight and letting their team accept recognition for their hard work.

Supporters of the servant leadership model suggest that it's a good way to move ahead in a world where values are increasingly important, and where servant leaders can achieve power because of their values, ideals, and ethics. This is an approach that can help to create a positive corporate culture and can lead to high morale among team members.

However, other people believe that in competitive leadership situations, people who practice servant leadership can find themselves left behind by leaders using other leadership styles. This leadership style also takes time to apply correctly: it's ill-suited in situations where you have to make quick decisions or meet tight deadlines.

Although you can use servant leadership in many situations, it's often most practical in politics, or in positions where leaders are elected to serve a team, committee, organization, or community.

8. Task-Oriented Leadership

Task-oriented leaders focus only on getting the job done and can be autocratic. They actively define the work and the roles required, put structures in place, and plan, organize, and monitor work. These leaders also perform other key tasks, such as creating and maintaining standards for performance.

The benefit of task-oriented leadership is that it ensures that deadlines are met, and it's especially useful for team members who don't manage their time well. However, because task-oriented leaders don't tend to think much about their team's well-being, this approach can suffer many of the flaws of autocratic leadership, including causing motivation and retention problems.
9. Transactional Leadership

This leadership style starts with the idea that team members agree to obey their leader when they accept a job. The "transaction" usually involves the organization paying team members in return for their effort and compliance. The leader has a right to "punish" team members if their work doesn't meet an appropriate standard.

Although this might sound controlling and paternalistic, transactional leadership offers some benefits. For one, this leadership style clarifies everyone's roles and responsibilities. Another benefit is that, because transactional leadership judges team members on performance, people who are ambitious or who are motivated by external rewards - including compensation - often thrive.

The downside of this leadership style is that team members can do little to improve their job satisfaction. It can feel stifling, and it can lead to high staff turnover. Transactional leadership is really a type of management, not a true leadership style, because the focus is on short-term tasks. It has serious limitations for knowledge-based or creative work. However, it can be effective in other situations.

10. Transformational Leadership

As we discussed earlier in this article, transformation leadership is often the best leadership style to use in business situations.

Transformational leaders are inspiring because they expect the best from everyone on their team as well as themselves. This leads to high productivity and engagement from everyone in their team.

The downside of transformational leadership is that while the leader's enthusiasm is passed onto the team, he or she can need to be supported by "detail people."

That's why, in many organizations, both transactional and transformational leadership styles are useful. Transactional leaders (or managers) ensure that routine work is done reliably, while transformational leaders look after initiatives that add new value. It's also important to use other leadership styles when necessary - this will depend on the people you're leading and the situation that you're in.
Forces that influence the style to be used include:

- Amount of time available.
- Are relationships based on respect and trust or on disrespect?
- Who has the information - you, the employees, or both?
- How well your employees are trained and how well you know the task.
- Internal conflicts.
- Stress levels.
- Type of task, such as structured, unstructured, complicated, or simple?
- Laws or established procedures, such as OSHA or training plans.

2.19 TEAMWORK AND PROBLEM SOLVING

Teamwork is defined by Scarnati (2001) “as a cooperative process that allows ordinary people to achieve extraordinary results”. Harris & Harris (1996) also explain that a team has a common goal or purpose where team members can develop effective, mutual relationships to achieve team goals. Teamwork replies upon individuals working together in a cooperative environment to achieve common team goals through sharing knowledge and skills. The literature consistently highlights that one of the essential elements of a team is its focus toward a common goal and a clear purpose (Johnson & Johnson, 1995, 1999; Parker, 1990). Teams are an integral part of many organizations and should be incorporated as part of the delivery of tertiary units.

Successful teamwork relies upon synergism existing between all team members creating an environment where they are all willing to contribute and participate in order to promote and nurture a positive, effective team environment. Team members must be flexible enough to adapt to cooperative working environments where goals are achieved through collaboration and social interdependence rather than individualised, competitive goals (Luca & Tarricone, 2001).

Research has provided a number of attributes required for successful teamwork. Many of these attributes have been consistently identified in the literature as listed below

a. **Commitment to team success and shared goals** - team members are committed to the success of the team and their shared goals for the project. Successful teams are motivated, engaged and aim to achieve at the highest level;
b. **Interdependence** - team members need to create an environment where together they can contribute far more than as individuals. A positive interdependent team environment brings out the best in each person enabling the team to achieve their goals at a far superior level (Johnson & Johnson, 1995, 1999). Individuals promote and encourage their fellow team members to achieve, contribute, and learn;

c. **Interpersonal Skills** includes the ability to discuss issues openly with team members, be honest, trustworthy, supportive and show respect and commitment to the team and to its individuals. Fostering a caring work environment is important including the ability to work effectively with other team members;

d. **Open Communication and positive feedback** - actively listening to the concerns and needs of team members and valuing their contribution and expressing this helps to create an effective work environment. Team members should be willing to give and receive constructive criticism and provide authentic feedback;

e. **Appropriate team composition** is essential in the creation of a successful team. Team members need to be fully aware of their specific team role and understand what is expected of them in terms of their contribution to the team and the project; and

f. **Commitment to team processes, leadership & accountability** - team members need to be accountable for their contribution to the team and the project. They need to be aware of team processes, best practice and new ideas. Effective leadership is essential for team success including shared decision-making and problem solving.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Attributes</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to team success and shared goals</td>
<td>• participants understand their purpose and share their goals – the combination achieves mission (Francis &amp; Young, 1979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• members must share a strong common goal (Kets De Vries, 1999)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• groups provide each member of the team with prestige and recognition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
<td></td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>• successful teams are motivated to succeed (Bradley &amp; Frederic, 1997)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• there is strong team commitment to succeed (Critchley &amp; Casey, 1986)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• members have strong shared values and beliefs (Kets De Vries, 1999)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• engaged in and satisfied with their work (Wageman, 1997)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• creation of a team atmosphere that is informal, relaxed, comfortable and</td>
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<tr>
<td>non-judgemental.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• promote group cohesion (Bradley &amp; Frederic, 1997)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• people enjoy regular interaction with individuals who have similar</td>
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<tr>
<td>interests and goals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• one cannot succeed unless the other members of the group succeed</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Smith, 1996)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• together the group can deliver more than the individuals who</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>compromise it could do in isolation (Francis &amp; Young, 1979)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• team members must work together effectively to produce successful systems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Bradley &amp; Frederic, 1997)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• team members interact to help each other accomplish the task and</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>promote one another’s success (Smith, 1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• team members build on the capabilities of their fellows – the combinations</td>
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<tr>
<td>energized through synergy (Francis &amp; Young, 1979)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• team members must take an interest in both the group and each individual’s</td>
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<tr>
<td>achievement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interpersonal skills</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• team members must never be fully self-directed or completely independent (Johnson, Heimann, &amp; O'Neill, 2000)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• teams are often empowered to accomplish tasks not available to individuals.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Individuals experience a wide range of new ideas and skills when interacting with team members (Scarnati, 2001)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• team members learn together so that they can subsequently perform better as individuals (Smith, 1996)</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Open communication and positive feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• people must care for each other (Critchley &amp; Casey, 1986)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• members must protect and support each other (Kets De Vries, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• feelings can be expressed freely; (Critchley &amp; Casey, 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• members must be respectful and supportive of one another, and realistic in mutual expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• there is a high level of trust (Critchley &amp; Casey, 1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• members respect and trust each other (Kets De Vries, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• foster trust, confidence and commitment within the group.</td>
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|                                                                                      |
| • give and accept feedback in a non-defensive manner.                               |
| • ideal team should be highly diversified in the talents and knowledge each member contributes, while maintaining open, non-threatening communication (Frederic, 1997) |
| **Appropriate team composition** | • value effective listening and communications that serves group needs.  
• engage in open dialogue and communication (Kets De Vries, 1999)  
• cultivate a team spirit of constructive criticism and authentic non-evaluative feedback.  
• team members must be open and truthful (Critchley & Casey, 1986)  
• enable members to express group feelings.  
• listen to all ideas and feelings; (Critchley & Casey, 1986)  
• face up to conflict and work through it (Critchley & Casey, 1986) |

| **Commitment to team processes, leadership & accountability** | • successful teams are a product of appropriate team composition (Bradley & Frederic, 1997)  
• clarify member roles, relationships assignments and responsibilities  
• discuss differences in what each member has to contribute to the work (Wageman, 1997).  
• tolerate of ambiguity, uncertainty and seeming lack of structure.  
• instil approaches that are goal-directed, divide labour fairly among members and synchronize efforts  
• accept individual accountability/ personal responsibility; (Smith, 1996)  
• team members are accountable for their share of the work (Smith,
• members subscribe to distributed leadership (Kets De Vries, 1999)
• decisions are made by consensus (Critchley & Casey, 1986)
• effective leadership is needed (Bradley & Frederic, 1997)
• encourage group participants, consensus and decisions.
• experiment with new ways to work more effectively; (Wageman, 1997)
• seek best practice from other teams and other parts of the organizations; (Wageman, 1997)
• be open to change, innovation and creative, joint problem solving.
• take action to solve problems without waiting for direction (Wageman, 1997)
• monitor the team’s progress (Johnson, Heimann, & O’Neill, 2000)
• perform post-project analyses to find out what worked and what didn’t (Johnson, Heimann, & O’Neill, 2000)

In psychology, problem solving refers to a state of desire for reaching a definite 'goal' from a present condition that either is not directly moving toward the goal, is far from it, or needs more complex logic for finding a missing description of conditions or steps toward the goal. Problem-solving is a mental process that involves discovering, analyzing and solving problems. The ultimate goal of problem-solving is to overcome obstacles and find a solution that best resolves the issue.

The best strategy for solving a problem depends largely on the unique situation. In some cases, people are better off learning everything they can about the issue and then
using factual knowledge to come up with a solution. In other instances, creativity and insight are the best options.

The Steps in Problem-Solving

In order to correctly solve a problem, it is important to follow a series of steps. Many researchers refer to this as the problem-solving cycle, which includes developing strategies and organizing knowledge. While this cycle is portrayed sequentially, people rarely follow a rigid series of steps to find a solution. Instead, we often skip steps or even go back through steps multiple times until the desired solution is reached.

1. **Identifying the Problem:** While it may seem like an obvious step, identifying the problem is not always as simple as it sounds. In some cases, people might mistakenly identify the wrong source of a problem, which will make attempts to solve it inefficient or even useless.

2. **Defining the Problem:** After the problem has been identified, it is important to fully define the problem so that it can be solved.

3. **Forming a Strategy:** The next step is to develop a strategy to solve the problem. The approach used will vary depending upon the situation and the individual's unique preferences.

4. **Organizing Information:** Before coming up with a solution, we need to first organize the available information. What do we know about the problem? What do we not know? The more information that is available, the better prepared we will be to come up with an accurate solution.

5. **Allocating Resources:** Of course, we don't always have unlimited money, time and other resources to solve a problem. Before you begin to solve a problem, you need to determine how high priority it is. If it is an important problem, it is probably worth allocating more resources to solving it. If, however, it is a fairly unimportant problem, then you do not want to spend too much of your available resources into coming up with a solution.

6. **Monitoring Progress:** Effective problem-solvers tend to monitor their progress as they work towards a solution. If they are not making good progress toward reaching their goal, they will re-evaluate their approach or look for new strategies.
7. **Evaluating the Results**: After a solution has been reached, it is important to evaluate the results to determine if it is the best possible solution to the problem. This evaluation might be immediate, such as checking the results of a math problem to ensure the answer is correct, or it can be delayed, such as evaluating the success of a therapy program after several months of treatment.

**Correlation between Teamwork and Problem-solving**

A single brain can’t bounce different ideas off of each other. Each team member has a responsibility to contribute equally and offer their unique perspective on a problem to arrive at the best possible solution. Teamwork can lead to better decisions, products, or services. Thus both these factors go hand in hand.

A new study shows that complex problems are best solved by teams of three, four, or five people, compared to people who tackle the same problems by themselves or with one other person.

Just ask Patrick Laughlin, PhD, and colleagues from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. They published a study on the topic in the Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.

The study included 760 university students. All were given a complicated code in which the letters A through J randomly represented the numbers 1-10. Laughlin's team asked the students to try to crack the code as presented in a series of equations.

The researchers randomly assigned students to work by themselves or in groups of two, three, four, or five. Everyone got plenty of scratch paper and the same ground rules. Teams or individuals worked on the equations and then submitted their answers. If their answer wasn't right, they tried again.

Teams of three, four, or five people were better at solving the problems than the individuals, submitting fewer wrong answers before arriving at the solution. Even the top-performing individuals didn't match the teams of three, four, or five students.

After the tests, participants generally rated the challenge as enjoyable, whether they had worked alone or in groups.
What about the two-person teams? They were about as good as the individuals who were best at problem solving. Brainstorming seemed to work best in groups of at least three people, the researchers note.

"Group members combined their abilities and resources" to outperform individuals on the task, write Laughlin and colleagues.

The researchers point out that the problems, while complex, obeyed the rules of math and logic and had clear answers. The students weren't tackling personal or emotional problems, which may be harder to nail down or prove correct.

**Keys to Successful Team Work**

1. The team **understands the goals and is committed** to attaining them. This clear direction and agreement on mission and purpose is essential for effective team work. This team clarity is reinforced when the organization has clear expectations for the team's work, goals, accountability, and outcomes.

2. The team **creates an environment in which people are comfortable** taking reasonable risks in communicating, advocating positions, and taking action. Team members trust each other. Team members are not punished for disagreeing.

3. **Communication is open, honest, and respectful.** People feel free to express their thoughts, opinions, and potential solutions to problems. People feel as if they are heard out and listened to by team members who are attempting to understand. Team members ask questions for clarity and spend their thought time listening deeply rather than forming rebuttals while their co-worker is speaking.

4. Team members have a **strong sense of belonging** to the group. They experience a deep commitment to the group’s decisions and actions. This sense of belonging is enhanced and reinforced when the team spends the time to develop team norms or relationship guidelines together.

5. Team members are **viewed as unique people** with irreplaceable experiences, points of view, knowledge, and opinions to contribute. After all, the purpose for forming a team is to take advantage of the differences. Otherwise, why
would any organization approach projects, products, or goals with a team? In fact, the more that a team can bring out divergent points of view, that are thoughtfully presented and supported with facts as well as opinions, the better.

6. **Creativity, innovation**, and different viewpoints are expected and encouraged. Comments such as, "we already tried that and it didn't work" and "what a dumb idea" are not allowed or supported.

7. The team is able to **constantly examine itself and continuously improve** its processes, practices, and the interaction of team members. The team openly discusses team norms and what may be hindering its ability to move forward and progress in areas of effort, talent, and strategy.

8. The team has agreed upon **procedures for diagnosing, analyzing, and resolving team work problems and conflicts**. The team does not support member personality conflicts and clashes nor do team members pick sides in a disagreement. Rather, members work towards mutual resolution.

9. **Participative leadership** is practiced in leading meetings, assigning tasks, recording decisions and commitments, assessing progress, holding team members accountable, and providing direction for the team.

10. Members of the team **make high quality decisions together** and have the support and commitment of the group to carry out the decisions made.
2.20 TIME MANAGEMENT

Introduction

You need to manage time effectively if you're going to be successful. All other things being held constant, better time management skills can improve your grades, help you keep stress in check, and help you to be competitive in the career you undertake following your university education. It refers to research on academic self-regulation and discusses time management strategies, to help you adjust how you think about time, improve your awareness of how you use time, and make change for peak performance.

Time Management Cycle

Time management "systems" often fail because they are born of perfectionism and unrealistic expectations. For instance, some people don't initiate a time management approach until they're falling behind in their work: they undertake time management as a means of catching up. Their initial plans tend to cram in everything they have to do without appropriate regard for the time required. The unrealistic plans that emerge from "catch-up time management- amount to little more than an expression of renewed motivation for change but without the structure to support it. Those trying to follow crammed schedules often fall seriously behind their intended pace and abandon the plan altogether resulting in continued time trouble.

One of your best options for time management systems is to begin using a cyclical system early in the academic year. Usually the system begins with the process of goal setting to establish a context for managing time. The next phase of the system involves tracking time and developing awareness of how you spend your time. The third phase of the cycle is planning, and this could include making 'TO-DO' list, weekly plans, monthly plans and long-range plans.

The fourth phase of the system is self- monitoring your action. Self-monitoring involves paying attention to how well you are working your plan, how accurately you have planned, how well you have forecasted for various events and so on. The ideas for self-monitoring come from important research on student academic self-regulation, which emphasizes the importance of adaptation in student success.
The final phase of the cycle is time shifting and adjusting (i.e.,) changing where you spend your time to better match your intended use of time in which you make corrections to the system before starting the cycle again. Taken together, these phases permit you to initialize a process of gradual, performance-based improvement in time management skill. Everybody wants the "quick fix", but the complexity of changes involved in really getting a grip on your time management process will take some time to move through. Resist the urge to cast aside strategies that do not promise instant results; like it or not, change takes time.

Goal Setting

What are your goals? It might help to divide your goals into time frames (immediate goals, short - mid - terms long - range goals) but you do not have to do so for the exercise to be useful. All you need to do right now is, think of a handful of goals to get started.

- Take a look at your list of goals.
- How many of the tasks you intend to do today contribute to accomplishing the goals you have set for yourself?
- Are you actively working on these goals?
- Are you putting any of them off for a later time?
- What would you have to change in your life to make it possible to work on these goals?

Sub-dividing Goals into manageable pieces

Once you have a set of goals, it is useful to decompose the goals into manageable steps or sub-goals. Decomposing your goals makes it possible to tackle them one small step at a time and to reduce procrastination. Consider for instance the goal of obtaining your degree. This goal can be broken down into four sub-goals. Each sub-goal is the successful completion of one year of your program. These sub goals can be further broken down into individual courses within each year. The courses can be broken down into tests, exams, term papers and such within the course, or into the 13 weeks of classes in each term. Each week can be further sub-divided into days, and each day can be thought of in
terms of the hours and minutes you'll spend in your classes and doing homework for the day. While it may seem challenging to take in the whole scope of that convergent goal, thinking of your goals in this way helps to reinforce the idea that there is a connected path linking what actions you take today and the successful completion of your goals.

**Time Awareness and Time Tracking**

It will help you manage your time well if you know where your time actually gets spent. One very helpful way of determining your actual usage of time is to track your time. The process here is like making a schedule, but it works in reverse. Instead of writing things that you are planning to do, time logging is a process of writing down the things that you have already done. Doing this is sort of a get-to-know-yourself exercise because this procedure will highlight many of your habits that you might selectively ignore currently. For instance, some people find that every time they plan to do homework they end up watching television. Whatever be your time habits, time tracking will help you adjust and fine-tune your time management practices. A few ways to track your time follow:

**Strategy 1:** Time Tracking is fairly straightforward. At the end of every hour get yourself a quick tracking about how you actually spent your time for that hour. The note need not be long; one sentence or less should suffice. This way you will be able to review patterns that emerge in your use of time and make adjustments to improve your productivity.

**Strategy 2:** Some people find it helpful to modify the planning page to facilitate tracking time. The modifications are easy enough: make two columns on your paper for each day of the week. In one column, write down the plan you are trying to follow; in the second column, make notes on what you actually did with your time. The side-by-side comparison is very telling and an excellent way to figure out where you're not using time in the way you intend.

**Strategy 3:** Another effective way to make changes and get results from your time management strategies is to summarize your time use by time category such as: sleep, study, work, travel and so on. Before doing the summary, estimate the
amount of time that you think you spend on the various activities listed on the form below and enter these in the "expected" row of the summary sheet. Then log your time for one week on an hour-by-hour basis. When the week is over, summarize your time by category for each day, add up the values for all seven days or the week, and write the totals in the "actual" row of the summary sheet.

Many times college students have not had to manage their time efficiently prior to college because they are bright and were not really challenged in high school. Many students discover the need to develop or hone their time management skills when they arrive at college. Unlike high school where teachers frequently structured your assignments and classes filled your day, in college, you will have less class time, more outside of class work, and a great deal of freedom and flexibility.

Advantages of Time Management

- Gain time
- Motivation and initiatives
- Reduces avoidance
- Promotes review
- Eliminates cramming
- Reduces anxiety

Keys to successful Time Management

- Self-knowledge and goals: in order to manage your time successfully, having an awareness of what your goals are will assist you in prioritizing your activities.
- Developing and maintaining a personal, flexible schedule: Time management provides you with the opportunity to create a schedule that works for you, not for others. This personal attention gives you the flexibility to include the things that are most important to you.

2.21 TIME MANAGEMENT RESOURCES

The following resources and documents will assist you in creating a personal schedule that works for you. If you would like more information, a counsellor
in the Academic Skills Centre would be happy to speak with you about how you manage your time.

To gather information about how to create a long-term or weekly schedule for you, it needs the following:

- Creating a Master Schedule
- Time Management Tips
- Making a Personal Schedule
- Weekly Planner
- 10-Week Planner
- 4-Year Planner
- Distributive Worksheet

Developing time management skills is a journey but needs practice and other guidance along the way. One goal is to help yourself become aware of how you use your time as one resource in organizing, and succeeding in your studies in the context of competing activities of friends, work, family, etc.,

Effective Aids:

- "To Do" list
  
  Write down things you have to do, decide what to do at the moment, what to schedule for later and what to put off for a later time period.

- Daily / weekly planner

  Write down appointments, classes, and meetings on a chronological log book or chart. If you are more visual, sketch out your schedule. First thing in the morning, check what's ahead for the day always go to sleep knowing you're prepared for tomorrow.

- Long -term planner

  Use a monthly chart so that you can plan ahead. Long term planner will also serve as a reminder to constructively plan time for you.
Effective Planning

You have probably used various kinds of planning tools before, including a daily or weekly planner, a month-at-a-glance planner, and so on. Four planning tools and the thinking strategies that go along with each one are introduced: a Monthly Planner, a weekly Objectives List, a Weekly Planner and a Time log, it is important to keep in mind that the purpose of scheduling is not to enslave you to your planner, but rather to record your decisions about when certain things should happen.

i. The Monthly Planner

The Monthly Planner can be used as a time-bound memory aid, tracking major deadlines and exam dates, appointments, important anniversaries, birthdays, holidays, vacations and so on. But, you can get more out of the monthly planner if you use it to record interim deadlines and forecast upcoming busy periods as final deadlines approach. A properly completed monthly planner will indicate upcoming busy periods, show target to achieve your goals.

ii. Weekly Objectives List

If your current approach to time management is governed by 'To-Do lists, then you will be interested in the weekly objectives list. Think of the weekly objectives list as a muscle-bound 'To-Do' list. In essence, the weekly objective list is a 'To-Do' list with additional features to further decompose tasks into smaller units and to record time estimates for the task. This block of time reflects an important principle in time estimating: when estimating time you might want to add time to the amount of time you think it will take you to complete the task. Your next step is to carry the listed activities, along with their associated time estimates and schedule your weekly planner.

The Weekly Planner

Take a look at your weekly planner. What have you written in it? Likely, you list lecture times, tutorial times, laboratory times, times for extracurricular activities, and various other appointments. If these sounds like your schedule then you are probably under-using another very versatile time management tool because many of the most important tasks (homework activities which move you toward your goals) are left out.
of the picture. The implication of this should be clear: If it is not on the schedule it will not be done. Stepping from the weekly objectives list to the weekly planner is easy. Using the time estimates for the activities on the weekly objectives list as guides, find a block of time of appropriate duration in our schedule. Then write in the activities one at a time in priority order until you have either scheduled all of your activities or you have run out of time spaces. A good idea here, if it seems you'll run out of time spaces, is to start scheduling the most important activities first.

Construct a plan for each week. To help make planning a routine activity, pick a regular day each week to schedule. Even with unexpected occurrences that can impact your schedule, assist yourself in making decisions that are governed by your desire to reach your goals.

**Taking Actions**

Once you have set your goals, figure out where your time is currently spent and decide on a plan that will help you to reach your goals. The next step is to take action. Now you must do the tasks that converge on your goals. As you begin working on the tasks, keep your focus on doing the best you can, to execute what you have set for yourself. Stay very clear on the fact that the plan is ideal and that in action you will execute it perfectly. Some things will take longer time than you have planned. Some new tasks will emerge. There will be enticing distractions that may take your attention away from your work, but you can diminish the impact of distractions if you remember that the task listed on your plan will lead you to goals you have chosen for yourself. The main thing is to do the very best you can to follow the plan and monitor your progress so that you can learn from your good and bad experiences along the way.

**Getting started**

It can be difficult to start working. Most of the time, however, not starting seems to be related to fear of poor results or negative evaluations than it is to the actual difficulty of the work. Aim to subdivide tasks into small steps and convince yourself that to get started all you need is 10 full minutes of working on the task. Often, the ten minutes will elapse and you’ll be right into the swing of things, prepared to continue on productively.
Motivation

Sometimes, you just don't feel motivated to do your college work. It might help to realize that for many people motivation is not a prerequisite to action, it is the result of it! Try working for a short time and see if you can "get into it". If your motivation problem seems more substantial, it might help to realize that when you are not motivated to do college work, you are not actually out of motivation..., you are just motivated to do something else.

Commuting

In one year, commute works out to between 250 and 500 hours; over the course of 4 or 5 years, your commuting time equates to attending all of the required lectures in every course of a university degree. The challenge is to use that time for something productive. One common example is to read on the bus or subway. You will be amazed at how much you can learn in these small blocks of time. The key to commuting time is simply, use it or lose it.

To make the most of the time between classes, find a spot on campus where you can work comfortably and without interruption. And remember, not every minute of time needs to go to college work.
2.22 SELF-EFFICACY

According to Albert Bandura (1992), self-efficacy is "the belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations." In other words, self-efficacy is a person’s belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (1994). Since Bandura published his seminal 1977 paper, "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change," the subject has become one of the most studied topics in psychology.

Self-efficacy is a person's judgment about being able to perform a particular activity. It is a student's "I can" or "I cannot" belief. Unlike self-esteem, which reflects how students feel about their worth or value, self-efficacy reflects how confident students are about performing specific tasks. High self-efficacy in one area may not coincide with high self-efficacy in another area. Just as high confidence in snow skiing may not be matched with high confidence in baseball, high self-efficacy in mathematics does not necessarily accompany high self efficacy in spelling. Self-efficacy is specific to the task being attempted. However, having high self-efficacy does not necessarily mean that students believe they will be successful. While self-efficacy indicates how strongly students believe they have the skills to do well, they may believe other factors will keep them from succeeding.

A growing body of research reveals that there is a positive, significant relationship between students' self-efficacy beliefs and their academic performance. Our goal with this project is to increase the self-efficacy of the student you are working with. People with low self-efficacy toward a task are more likely to avoid it, while those with high self-efficacy are not only more likely to attempt the task, but they also will work harder and persist longer in the face of difficulties. Self-efficacy influences: (1) what activities students select, (2) how much effort they put forth, (3) how persistent they are in the face of difficulties, and (4) the difficulty of the goals they set. Students with low self-efficacy do not expect to do well, and they often do not achieve at a level that is commensurate with their abilities. They do not believe they have the skills to do well so they don't try.
The connection between self-efficacy and achievement gets stronger as students advance through school. By the time students are in college, their self-efficacy beliefs are more strongly related to their achievement than any measure of their ability. If we wish to develop high educational achievement among our students, it is essential that we begin building stronger self-efficacy as early as possible.

**The Role of Self-Efficacy**

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

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy:
- View challenging problems as tasks to be mastered
- Develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate
- Form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities
- Recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments

People with a weak sense of self-efficacy:
- Avoid challenging tasks
- Believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities
- Focus on personal failings and negative outcomes
- Quickly lose confidence in personal abilities

**Sources of Self-Efficacy**

How does self-efficacy develop? These beliefs begin to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. However, the growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth, but continues to evolve throughout life as people acquire new skills, experiences, and understanding. According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy (Multon et al. 1991).
1. Mastery Experiences

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

2. Social Modelling

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

3. Social Persuasion

Bandura (1995) also asserted that people could be persuaded to believe that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.

4. Psychological Responses

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

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

**Tips to improve self-efficacy for struggling students** (from Howard Margolis and McCabe, 2006)
a. **Use moderately-difficult tasks**

If the task is too easy it will be boring or embarrassing and may communicate the feeling that the teacher doubts their abilities; a too-difficult task will re-enforce low self-efficacy. The target for difficulty is slightly above the students' current ability level.

b. **Use peer models**

Students can learn by watching as peers succeed at a task. Peers may be drawn from groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, social circles, interests, achievement level, clothing, or age.

c. **Teach specific learning strategies**

Give students a concrete plan of attack for working on an assignment, rather than simply turning them loose. This may apply to overall study skills, such as preparing for an exam, or to a specific assignment or project.

d. **Capitalize on students' interests**

Tie the course material or concepts to student interests such as sports, pop culture, movies or technology.

e. **Allow students to make their own choices**

Set up some areas of the course that allow students to make their own decisions, such as with flexible grading, assignment options or self-determined due dates.

f. **Encourage students to try**

Give them consistent, credible and specific encouragement, such as, "You can do this. We've set up an outline for how to write a lab report and a schedule for what to do each week - now follow the plan and you will be successful."

g. **Give frequent, focused feedback**

Giving praise and encouragement is very important, however it must be credible. Use praise when earned and avoid hyperbole. When giving feedback on student performance, compare to past performances by the same student, don't make comparisons between students.
h. **Encourage accurate attributions**

Help students understand that they don't fail because they're dumb; they fail because they didn't follow instructions, they didn't spend enough time on the task, or they didn't follow through on the learning strategy.
2.23 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Ellis, Rebecca and Taylor, Susan (1983) conducted a research on role of self-esteem within the job search process. 86 college students completed measures of both global (the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory) and specific (a specially constructed 10-item scale) self-esteem components before beginning a job search. Four months later, at the time of graduation, self-esteem predicted (a) the sources Subjects used to find jobs, (b) interview evaluations received from organizational recruiters, (c) satisfaction with job search, (d) number of offers received, (e) acceptance of a job before graduation, and (f) length of intended tenure. Global self-esteem proved a better predictor of search outcomes dependent on subjects' social skills, whereas task-specific self-esteem was more strongly related to search motivation and satisfaction.

Srinivasan and Kamalanabhan (1986) conducted a research on relationship of leadership styles to job involvement an empirical study. Leadership style is a distinctive but adaptive behaviour of a manager law in classified leadership styles as Autocratic, Democratic and Laissez faire. Research evidence indicated that leadership styles are adaptive and are influenced by contingent variables such as personal characteristics of subordinates, environmental pressures and demands of the situation, etc. The present study aims to assess the level of leadership styles displayed by the executives and its relationship to their level of job involvement. The sample consisted of fifty-seven executives drawn from various organizations in Madras. The respondents were interviewed and job involvement (Lodhal & Kejner) and leadership styles scales (Auren Uris) were administered. It was found that three leadership styles differ significantly. With democratic style being the most adopted and autocratic the least, job involvement was found to have no influence on the level of leadership behaviour.

Nindru Lehal and Promila Vasudeva (1987) conducted a study on Certain Correlated of Sex-Role Attitudes Amongst College Female Students. The study was
conducted to find out the relationship of certain demographic and other variables with sex-role attitudes amongst female college students. Four hundred and ninety eight Subjects were given Fand’s Sex Role Inventory. Subjects scoring high on the Fand’s inventory were conceived as other oriented and were conceptualized as traditional in outlook while the self-oriented Subjects (low scorers) were conceived as achievement-oriented and seeking fulfilment through the maximization of their own potential. Sex-role attitudes were found to be significantly related to mothers occupation and educational level, structure of family and subject’s own intention to take up a job or not. No significant relationship was found between socio-economic status, fathers’ education, occupation and sex-role attitudes.

**Multon et al. (1991)** conducted a study on Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation reports on meta-analyses of the relations of self-efficacy beliefs to academic performance and persistence. Results revealed positive and statistically significant relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance and persistence outcomes across a wide variety of subjects, experimental designs, and assessment methods. The relationships were found to be heterogeneous across studies, and the variance in reported effect sizes was partially explained by certain study characteristics.

**Hackett et al. (1992)** examined the relationships of measure of occupational and academic self-efficacy; vocational interests; outcome expectations; academic ability; and perceived stress, support, and coping to the academic achievement of women and men enrolled in university level engineering / science programmes. 197 students from diverse racial/ethnic backgrounds responded to scales of measuring the variables of interest; high school and college academic data were obtained from the university records. Self-Efficacy for academic milestones, in combination with other academic and support variables, was found to be the strongest predictor of college academic achievement. Outcome expectations, vocational interests, and low level of stress were in turn the strongest predictors of academic self efficacy. Prediction
equations for Euro-American and Mexican-American students revealed no significant contribution of ethnicity to the prediction of college academic achievement; however, ethnicity did enter into the equations predicting the 2 self-efficacy variables.

**Hiltrop (1995)** conducted a research on “The changing psychological contract: the human resource challenge of the 1990s.” The study defines psychological contracts of employment as the understandings people have regarding the commitments implicit between themselves and their organization; they reflect what employees and employers want and expect from each other, and consist of a belief in, and interpretation of, a promissory contract, whether written or unwritten. Explores economic changes, pressures and trends that have dramatically altered the psychological contract that gave security, stability and predictability to the employer/employee relationship; discusses the principles upon which the new psychological contract is based, how it compares with the old, and the specific changes that have occurred: for example now there is no job security, and employees will be employed only as long as they add value to the organization, for which they are personally responsible; in return, they have the right to demand interesting and important work, and to get the experience and training needed to become employable in the organization... or elsewhere. Suggests implications of the new contract for HR management, particularly in finding ways to attract, retain and motivate talent, and to avoid burnout; identifies changes necessary in management style and ways of building a new type of employee commitment.

**Carey (1997)** provides a thorough description of tests to determine the employability of vocational students, including elementary, high school, college and adult students in the USA. Questions posed in this study to guide the identification and evaluation of measurements highlight important aspects of this process, including: (1) What employability skills should be measured? (2) What tests and/or assessments are available to measure employability skills?; and (3) Do the available tests and/or assessments measure the desired employability skills? In relation to what
skills to measure (i.e. question 1 above), there is some general agreement in the literature with the idea that employability skills are not those that are job specific but generic across sectors and to some extent non-technical. The study also acknowledged other terms that are sometimes used interchangeably such as ‘soft outcomes’, ‘practical skills’, ‘life skills’, ‘soft skills’ and ‘character capabilities’. Therefore, there is some agreement that the employability skills are not those specific to a particular sector or job description but transferable across different contexts. Although the importance of formal qualifications and hard skills is recognized, these are considered as separate.

Park, Crystal and Folkman, Susan (1997) conducted a study on the meaning in the context of stress and coping. Although theoretical and empirical work on topics related to meaning and meaning making proliferate, careful evaluation and integration of this area have not been carried out. Toward this end, this article has 3 goals: (a) to elaborate the critical dimensions of meaning as it relates to stressful life events and conditions, (b) to extend the transactional model of stress and coping to include these dimensions, and (c) to provide a framework for understanding current research and directions for future research within this extended model. First, the authors present a framework for understanding diverse conceptual and operational definitions of meaning by distinguishing 2 levels of meaning, termed global meaning and situational meaning. Second, the authors use this framework to review and synthesize the literature on the functions of meaning in the coping process and propose a definition of meaning making that highlights the critical role of reappraisal. The authors specify the roles of attributions throughout the coping process and discuss implications for future research.

Atkins (1999) conducted a study on examining the current preoccupation with enhancing the employability of graduates through the adoption of generic key skills into the undergraduate curriculum. It looks at the evidence for seven assumptions commonly made by those who promote the ‘employability’ agenda, and raises
questions about the security of these assumptions including the transferability of key skills to employment contexts, the cost effectiveness of developing key skills in Higher Education rather than in employment and the competitive market advantage that individual students are believed to obtain. It concludes that in the absence of major changes to the funding regime there is unlikely to be a radical change to the curriculum and that more attention should now be paid to the post-graduation/induction period than to the pre-graduation stages.

Meena Sehgal (1999) conducted a cross gender perspective research on self-efficacy, stress and health. The inequality is not a mere political or social condition between the sexes. The basic health status and stress levels give very interesting picture of these differences. The present study attempted to compare the self-efficacy, stress and health status between college going boys and girls. Results revealed higher scores of boys on self-efficacy and stress and almost equal scores on well-being.

Srivastava (1999) examined the relationship between psychological stress and health. The study conducted was on a sample of 210 male subjects from middle-class urban population, revealed that psychosocial stress experienced by the subjects significantly correlates with their emotional responses, symptoms of neuroticism, maladaptive and pathological behaviour and somatic pathologies (psychosomatic diseases). It was also observed that various forms of psychological and behavioural problems significantly associate with somatic pathologies.

Albert Bandura (2000) conducted a study on exercise of human agency through collective efficacy. Social cognitive theory adopts an agentic perspective in which individuals are producers of experiences and shapers of events. Among the mechanisms of human agency, none is more focal or pervading than the belief of personal efficacy. This core belief is the foundation of human agency. Unless people believe that they can produce desired effects and forestall undesired ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act. The growing interdependence of human functioning is placing a premium on the exercise of collective agency through shared
beliefs in the power to produce effects by collective action. The present article analyzes the nature of perceived collective efficacy and its centrality in how people live their lives. Perceived collective efficacy fosters groups' motivational commitment to their missions, resilience to adversity, and performance accomplishments.

Dunne and Rawlins (2000) advocated the need for graduates prepared for employment and skilled in teamwork over the last decade internationally. With increasing numbers of students entering employment and reductions in staff contact time, the ability of students to work together efficiently is likely to become increasingly important. Groups of students often work together during the course of their degree studies, for example seminar groups in Law, groups on Geography, Biology or Archaeology field classes, or in laboratory classes. Teamwork is used for enhancing the learning process, and enhancing the learning knowledge, not just skills development. It is not often however, that students are trained explicitly to understand the processes, roles, tensions and means of resolving them that stem from team work. They also suggest that the ‘softer skills’ of negotiation and compromise can be honed from working in teams where the primary aim is knowledge based and these are important attributes in the workplace. Training students in team work skills would seem to have a broader impact than just enabling them to work in teams more effectively, although obviously this is a primary objective.

Ruth Spurlock Miller (2000) studied the importance of communication skills with respect to the perceptions of Information System (IS) by professionals, managers and users. Information systems (IS) research has shown that communication skills tend to be more important than technical skills to IS staff in project development activities. Yet, research findings indicate that Information System staff lack in the communication skills they need to interact successfully with users and managers during systems development. Thus, the two purposes of this research were (1) to determine whether IS staff, IS managers, and IS users differ in their perceptions of important communication skills that IS staff need and (2) if differences do exist, to
assess the impact of the differences on user satisfaction with IS product and service and on IS manager’s job performance evaluations of IS staff. Variables used in this study were written and oral communication skills, interpersonal skills, user satisfaction, and job performance. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to develop models of the constructs, to address validity and reliability issues, and to assess model fit of the variables. Paired-sample T-tests were used to determine whether significant differences in perceptions existed between IS staff and users and between IS staff and managers. Regression analysis was used to analyze the impact of differences on user satisfaction and job performance. Results of the research indicated that significant differences in perceptions of importance of written, oral, and interpersonal communication skills existed between IS staff and users and between IS staff and managers. Also, the results indicated that the greater the difference in perceptions of IS staff and users with respect to written and oral communications, the lower that user satisfaction was and that the greater the difference in perceptions with respect to interpersonal skills. Findings indicated that IS staff and managers differed significantly in their perceptions of importance of written, oral, and interpersonal communication skills and that the greater the difference, the lower job performance evaluations were.

Song Ju, Dalun Zhang, and Jacqueline Pacha (2000) conducted a study on employability skills valued by employers as important for entry-level employees with and without disabilities. Individuals with disabilities face persistent challenges in gaining meaningful employment. One of the barriers to successful employment is a lack of employability skills. The purpose of this study was to identify employability skills that employers value as being important and to examine whether employers have different expectations for individuals with and without disabilities. One hundred sixty-eight employers from different industries participated in this survey study. Employers considered certain skills as essential for all entry-level employees; however, there were noticeable differences between employers’ expectations for
employees with and without disabilities. Different expectations were also found between male and female respondents and between employers from service/business areas and those from science/technology areas.

Chen et al. (2001) conducted a study on Achievement, attributions, self-efficacy, and goal setting by accounting undergraduates. Correlations were examined between two measures of accounting self-efficacy achievement goal setting, attributions, and scores on the Accounting Practice Achievement Test, obtained 1 yr. apart for 124 freshmen in junior college. Analysis indicated favourable attribution contributed to a higher mean score on accounting self-efficacy. Students with higher perceived self-efficacy performed better on the proficiency tests. Those with higher self-efficacy also set higher goals for subsequent achievement tests. Moreover, students who set higher achievement goals performed better. Goal setting mediated the relation of initial self-efficacy with subsequent test performance. However, the amount of variance accounted for by self-efficacy was small. An effective method for enhancing performance on an accounting achievement test might be to increase beneficial attributions, self-efficacy in accounting, and to encourage setting reasonable achievement goals.

Kanfer Ruth, Wanberg Connie and Kantrowitz, Tracy (2001) study investigated the relationships between personality, expectancies, self, social, motive, and biographical variables and individual differences in job search behaviour and employment outcomes. Meta-analytic results indicated that all antecedent variables, except optimism, were significantly related to job search behaviour, with estimated population correlations ranging from $-0.15$ to $0.46$. As expected, job search behaviour was significantly and positively related to finding employment. Several antecedents of job search were also significantly related to employment success, although the size of these relationships was consistently smaller than those obtained for job search. Moderator analyses showed significant differences in the size of variable relationships.
for type of job search measure (effort vs. intensity) and sample type (job loser vs. employed job seeker vs. new entrant).

**Bynner and Parson (2002)** explored the hypothesis that a lack of basic skills is increasingly related to unemployment in the contemporary UK context. He argued that the transformation or disappearance of whole swathes of industry in the 1970s and 1980s led to a reduction in demand for unskilled manual labour. Under these circumstances, young people who chose not to continue in education but who sought to find jobs in the traditional way post compulsory education found their employment options limited. Bynner’s study explored the perception that those without even the basic skills provided by compulsory schooling are becoming increasingly disadvantaged in the UK. By analysing two national longitudinal studies (the 1958 Child Development Study and the 1970 British Cohort Study), he demonstrated that better numeracy and literacy are associated with shorter unemployment spells. An interesting finding was that women tended to display a weaker numeracy performance compared to men and that they “appear to be particularly disadvantaged by this lack of competence in an area that seems to be of growing importance in the modern economy” (Bynner, 2002: 26). Furthermore, the study showed a decline between earlier and later cohorts in employment status for those with and without basic skills, thus providing support to the idea that individuals with poor basic skills are less employable in the current labour market than would have been the case a few decades ago.

**Chia, Ho-Beng et al. (2003)** conducted two studies that investigated the impact of learning and performance goal orientations using a complex investment management task. Study 1 focused on individuals' willingness to assume risk, the returns obtained, and the returns-to-risk efficiency attained. At the extremely difficult level of three goal levels, individuals high in either learning or performance goal orientation assumed higher risk and achieved higher returns. However, performance goal orientation was negatively associated with return-to-risk efficiency. In Study 2,
goal difficulty was kept at the extremely difficult level while task complexity was increased over three stages. Participants were given the option to undertake more practice, proceed to more challenging stages, or to quit. Learning orientation was positively associated with taking more practice trials and progressing to more complex stages. Performance goal orientation, however, was not related to these outcomes.

Fauth, Whitney Brooke et al. (2003) explored the relationship of various emotions to the ethical decision-making of 189 college students who completed a managerial decision-making task as part of an in-basket exercise. Prior research regarding emotion influences on ethical decision-making and linkages between emotions and cognition informed hypotheses about how different types of emotions impact ethical decisions. Findings confirmed our expectations that positive and negative emotions classified as active would contribute to interpersonally direct ethical decisions, but not to organizationally direct ones, and that passive emotions would not contribute at all.

Lei-Da Chen, Achita Muthitaacharoen and Mark Frolick (2003) investigated the use of role play training to improve the communication skills of IS professionals. Today one of the most sought after skills among IS professionals is effective communication. The lack of communication skills of IS professionals has resulted in IT failures in a number of crucial areas including information requirement determination, knowledge discovery and end-used support. Although it has long been acknowledged that the communication skills of IS professionals is critical to information system success, little effort has been made to investigate how to improve such important skills. This study investigated the effectiveness of the role play exercise, an active training strategy that has been proven successful in many different fields, for the communication skills improvement of IS professionals. Ninety-three role plays exercised aiming to improve the two dimensions of the communication skills, content and process related skills were conducted among ninety-two graduate
students enrolled in systems analysis and design courses between 1998 and 2000. The analysis of the data collected from these exercises suggests that role play is a viable training method that can yield measurable results of communication skill improvement. Repeated measure results demonstrate a significant improvement in both content and process related skills after the role play exercises and ANOVA results additionally illustrate the improvement patterns of the two types of skills.

Margaret Patrickson and Robert Ranzijn (2003) examined the concept of employability as applied to older workers. It argues that much of the lack of success experienced by older job seekers in securing employment may be based on the mismatch between what older job seekers believe employers want and what employers are seeking. It reports data from a small sample of older South Australians who were interviewed concerning their perceived employment choices, now and in the past, their self-assessed skill currency, their judgments as to their employability, and their explanation for success or failure in seeking employment. Overwhelmingly interviewees believed themselves employable and their skills current, yet these optimistic beliefs are seldom confirmed by labour market success. Those who were successful seemed distinguished in two ways- either they had been able to tap into opportunities through personal networks or they had developed a new skill where the competition was less intense and this enables them to command an income. Taking charge of their lives, analyzing their situation in a strategic way, initiating actions where the likelihood of a successful outcome was higher, creating demand for what they could offer were all strategies that led to employment. However, such behaviours may not be typical of this age group. Interview data clearly showed that it was the more resilient individuals who coped more effectively and that these individuals were more successful in securing re-employment.

Phillip Brown, Anthony Hesketh and Sara Williams (2003) conducted a research on employability in a knowledge-driven economy which examined the concept of employability. The recent policy emphasis on employability rests on the
assumption that the economic welfare of individuals and the competitive advantage of nations have come to depend on the knowledge, skills and enterprise of the workforce. Those with qualification of degree are seen to play a particularly important role in managing the ‘knowledge-driven’ economy of the future. But the rhetoric that shrouds the idea of employability has been subjected to little conceptual examination. The purpose of this article is to show that the way employability is typically described in official statements is seriously flawed because it ignores what will be called the ‘duality of employability’. It also introduces ‘positional conflict theory’ as a way of conceptualising the changing relationship between education, employment and the labour market.

Somech, Anit and Drach-Zahavy, Anat (2003) studied the relationships of participative leadership with relational demography (age, tenure, education, and gender) and with a contextual variable (learning culture) were explored in an integrated model, which aligned the ALS (Average Leadership Style) and the LMX (Leader-Member Exchange) approaches to leadership. Data were collected from 561 school staff members from 36 schools. The results of the RWG and the WABA (within- and between- analyses) analyses indicated the prevalence of the LMX model in explaining the relationships of leader’s participative behaviours with relational demography and with the contextual variable. In addition, consistent with the study hypotheses, the negative relationship between demographic dissimilarity and PDM was stronger in short superior-subordinate relationships than in longer relationships. These results should encourage researchers to theorize and then test for levels of analysis when studying participative leadership. Future research should expand the network of personal and contextual variables that may have potential relevance with participative leadership.

Tjosvold, Dean et al (2003) conducted a study on learning from mistakes and the role of team problem solving and cooperative goals. Although mistakes may have considerable potential for learning, previous research has emphasized that
organizational members are often defensive and continue with their present course of action despite growing costs. Recent research has shown that team-level variables such as psychological safety and shared mental model can help overcome barriers to learning from mistakes. Structural equation analyses on teams working in a sample of enterprises in Shanghai, China, suggested that teams were able to learn from their mistakes to the extent that they took a problem solving orientation and that this orientation in turn was based on developing cooperative but not competitive interdependence within the team. Although competitive and independent goals induced blaming, blaming itself was not significantly related to learning. Blaming, especially when conducted openly, may hold individual team members accountable as well as provoke defensiveness. Findings empirically link the theory of cooperation and competition with the organizational learning literature. Results were interpreted as suggesting that cooperative goals and problem solving promote learning from mistakes.

**Anne Green, Ian Shuttleworth and Stuart Lavery (2004) studied about “Young People, Job Search and Local Labour Markets: The Example of Belfast”** In debates about employability, the role of area perceptions in shaping the labour market behaviour of individuals has been neglected. This paper sets out to gain an understanding of what relatively disadvantaged young people in Belfast know about the geography of labour market opportunities in the city and the locations where they are prepared to work. Using secondary data analysis and primary research methods, it is shown that most young people have a highly localised outlook. Factors of limited mobility, lack of confidence and religion intertwine in complex ways to limit perceived opportunities. It is concluded that geography does play a role in shaping access to employment and training opportunities.

**Ranjitha et al (2003) examined the relationships among 4 constructs – life stress (primary stressor), academic stressor (secondary stressor), perceived social support (stress mediator) and reactions to stressor (stresses outcome) – among 143**
international students. Structural equation modelling was used to assess the relationships among latent and measured variables in the conceptual model. Results indicated no significant difference in academic and life stressors by gender. However, women exhibited higher reactions to stressor life than men. Higher levels of academic stressor were predicted by higher levels of stress and by lower levels of social support. Higher academic stressors predicted greater reactions to stressors. All of the regression weights in the model were statistically significant, and the model’s predictors accounted for 82% of the variance in reactions to stressor.

Chitnis, Ketan (2005) studied on mass communications and communication for Empowerment and Participatory Development in Jamkhed, India. The study was carried out to understand how communication can facilitate participatory development to improve poor people’s lives using the Comprehensive Rural Health Project (CRHP) in Jamkhed, Ahmednagar, Maharashtra, India as a case study. For three and a half decades, CRHP has been using a holistic development approach for enhancing people’s health and well-being. CRHP helps poor families improve health through promotion and diffusion of new information and through different communication practice empowers communities. Thus, communication is used at two levels: to provide new information and to engage people in a dialogue that leads to positive community action. The research used theoretical constructs guiding participatory communication such as critical thinking and problematization as a means for empowerment (Freire, 1970, 1973), the role of the communicator as a facilitator in orchestrating social change (White, 1999) and the role of para-professional aides and change agents in fostering the diffusion of new information and ideas for social change (Rogers, 2003). Two-months of fieldwork, conducted in six villages in the Jamkhed region, used multiple ethnographic methods. The research concluded that communication processes using Freirean principles can contribute towards empowering poor people if conducted over a long period. Participatory communication and collective action can be successful if change agents act as
facilitators and are sensitive to people’s needs. Furthermore, the research indicates that genuine participation is slow and social change is even slower. It also concludes that participatory development and empowerment are dialectical processes that rely on dissemination of expert knowledge and an open dialogue between experts and local people. CRHP shows that empowerment is possible if the project staff, change agents and community members are motivated and willing to continually change and adapt to the environment, and also challenge oppressive social and political practices. The research concluded that communication practices are important in organizing people to come together and to seek social change, but larger political and structural changes are also necessary to complement individual and community-level actions.

Gregory Hall Patton (2005) studied on developing business communication skills by examining the Transtheoretical Model forwarded by James Prochaska with a particular application to the enhancement of communication skills in a business context. Specifically, individual Processes of Change were sought, generally and within individual Stages of Change, which account for the greatest overall variance in targeted communication skill development. Five processes were examined (consciousness raising, self-re-evaluation, commitment, social liberation and helping relationships). The study incorporated a diverse sample of 67 managers and professionals, representing more than 50 corporations. Individuals were enrolled in a program that integrated individual processes of change into its communication curriculum. Longitudinal data, covering a 10 month period, was collected from participants, including the completion of multi-rater assessments using the Professional Communication Inventory (PCI). The study suggested that up to 69 percent of the variance in communication skill development can be accounted for by usage levels of individual processes of change. The findings also suggest that targeted, individual processes of behavioural change, used in stage-based applications, are up to eight times more effective than traditional, global, non-stage based approaches to communication skill development. Overall, four processes of change
were supported in this business communication context (consciousness raising, self-re-evaluation, commitment and helping relationships). Three additional findings related to supervisory assessments and training transfer were also found. First, the present study found the processes of change leading to self- and supervisor-identified skill enhancement is different. Next, when compared to traditional conceptualizations of the stage placement of processes, the processes of change in this business context were accelerated for self-identified change and delayed for supervisor identified change. Finally, a strong training transfer gap was identified suggesting that supervisor recognition of improvements serves as a trailing indicator of change activity. In the business context, and with an eye to training and development, the present study provides an initial roadmap for enhancing training effectiveness and gaining greater returns from M.B.A. and employee-sponsored training programs. Based on these findings, far more attention is warranted to understanding these processes of change and their role as an accelerator in the skill-building process in communication and business applications.

Ken Lodewyk and Philip (2005) studied the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement, the structure of learning tasks, and changes in self-efficacy as students engage with a single, complex, authentic task and changes in Students’ Self-Efficacy for Learning (SEL) and for Performance (SEP) as they worked on well and ill structured tasks during their regular class. Students reported higher SEL and SEP for well-structured task. Moderate achievers reported significantly more difficulty with ill-structured task. SEP was higher and more stable that SEL, especially in early phases of both tasks. After accounting for overall academic achievement, self efficacy was a negligible predictor of achievement. Students perceived various features of each task’s structure as difficult.

Ronald McQuaid (2005) conducted a study on “The Concept of Employability.” The concept of 'employability' plays a crucial role in informing labour market policy in the UK, the EU and beyond. This paper analyses current and
previous applications of the term and discusses its value as an exploratory concept and a framework for policy analysis. It then traces the development of the concept, discusses its role in current labour market and training strategies (with particular reference to the UK) and seeks to identify an approach to defining employability that can better inform labour market policy, by transcending explanations of employment and unemployment that focus solely on either supply-side or demand-side factors.

Although the literature offers a range of definitions of 'employability', many policymakers have recently used the term as shorthand for 'the individual's employability skills and attributes'. It is argued that this 'narrow' usage can lead to a 'hollowing out' of the concept of employability. The paper concludes by presenting a broad framework for analysing employability built around individual factors, personal circumstances and external factors, which acknowledges the importance of both supply- and demand-side factors.

Erik Berntson, Magnus Sverke and Staffan Marklund (2006) study investigates whether factors associated with human capital and the dual labour market predicts perceived employability. Two national representative Swedish samples are used, representing economic recession (1993, N ¼ 4952) and prosperity (1999, N ¼ 6696). Employability was perceived as higher during prosperity, but human capital factors as well as dual labour market factors predicted perceived employability, irrespective of the time period. These findings indicate that the understanding of employability is enhanced by considering both structural and individual dimensions.

Andrew Rothwell, John Arnold (2007) conducted a study on the development of a self-report measure of individuals' perceived employability. It also seeks to examine its construct validity and correlates. Based on the analysis of relevant literature, this study developed 16 items which were intended collectively to reflect employability within and outside the person's current organisation, based on his or her personal and occupational attributes. This study administered these items by questionnaire to 200 human resources professionals in the UK, along with established
measures of career success and professional commitment, as well as questions reflecting demographic variables. This article retained 11 of the 16 items for assessing self-perceived employability. Self-perceived employability can usefully be thought of as either a unitary construct, or one with two related components – internal (to the organisation) and external employability. The measure very successfully distinguished employability from professional commitment, and fairly successfully from career success. Only slight variations in employability could be attributed to demographic characteristics. This research has begun to address the gap in the literature for a brief yet psychometrically adequate measure of self-perceived individual employability. This author believes that the scale can be applied to other occupational groups, in organisational consultancy, and in individual career development. It can be used either as one scale or two, depending on the purpose of the investigation. The study concludes that this research represents a psychometrically adequate contribution in an under-researched field, and will lead to future research with other occupational samples, and in other settings.

Clarke and Winch (2007) cites two studies providing evidence of employers ranking qualification (in terms of importance) below a list of other qualities such as honesty, punctuality, experience, conscientiousness, adaptability, drive, values fit, communication skills and job knowledge. Nonetheless, at least at the professional level, employers extract information about participants from their educational experience including technical expertise, capacity, personality and motivation.

McArdle et al. (2007) tested Fugate et al.’s model using a sample of unemployed Australians and explored the relationship between employability and 1) self-esteem; 2) job search; and 3) reemployment. They found that employability explains “20% of the variance of self-esteem and 42% of the variance in job search” and also “16% of the variance in re-employment”. They also found that adaptability, career identity and social support contribute significantly to employability. This of course needs to be explained in relation to the measures used: adaptability was
measured by in terms of ‘proactive personality’ and ‘boundary less mindset’ using established scales which include items such as “I excel at identifying opportunities” and “I enjoy jobs that require me to interact with people in many different organisations”, respectively. Similarly, career identity was measured using a career self-efficacy scale. Education was used as a proxy for human capital, and social capital was measured using two items regarding attendance to networking events and being in contact with knowledgeable individuals in the area of interest.

**Berntson et al. (2008)** contended the idea that (perceived) employability and self-efficacy are related by exploring the relationship between these two concepts. The study made use of data gathered through a longitudinal survey that collected data from Swedish individuals at two points in time, one year apart (n=1,730). The study showed that although employability and self-efficacy reflect related qualities, the qualities that define them are distinct. While self-efficacy reflects a “the general feeling of how to perform tasks”, employability “is closely connected to specific knowledge (e.g., skills that are the result of education and training)”. The authors argue that this general feeling of being able to perform tasks does not contribute to a person’s perceived employability. The model presented is limited since it does not consider individual circumstances such as type of employment, or external factors such as the socio-economic environment. However, the study provides some evidence on the difference between employability and self-efficacy.

**Bharati Rao Pothukuchi (2008)** studied the relationship between personality and time management skills. Globalization and liberalization of the economy has resulted in drastic changes in the working environment. There is an ever increasing demand to perform at higher and higher levels resulting in greater pressure on time. In this scenario the importance of time management cannot be overemphasized. With good time management a person can be in control of his/her life. One can make better progress at work and achieve balance between work and non-work life. This may lead to lesser stress which in turn may be beneficial not only to the individual but also to
the society. Fortunately, time management skills are trainable. Better time management means reduction in the time spent on tasks that are less important. Douglass and Douglass (1992) have pointed out that personality influences the way in which time is managed. The present study examines the relationship between time management skills and personality. According to Maddi (1989), personality comprises stable tendencies and characteristics that determine the differences and commonalities of human behaviour. There are several theories of personality. These can be grouped under type or trait theories that focus on the people's characteristics and how these characteristics are organized. Cattell's Factor Theory (Cattell, 1946) is a prominent trait theory. It views personality as a complex structure of traits. Cattell factor-analyzed traits of personality derived a much smaller number of secondary factors like Introversion-Extroversion, Low Anxiety-High Anxiety, etc., from a very large number of primary factors. The study examined the differences in personality between the good and poor groups in time management skills. Data on eight secondary order personality factors and time management skills was obtained from 40 students of a business school, using 16 Personality Factors Test and Thomas Personal Profile Analysis respectively. The sample was divided into two groups, depending on the level of time management skills being poor or good (based on training needs report generated as a result of Thomas Personal Profile Analysis). 't' test on means was performed for each secondary order personality factor to detect significant differences between the two groups. It was found that the group poor in time management had higher anxiety and was more creative.

Erik Berntson (2008) study is aimed to increase in understanding of perceived employability. Employability perceptions refer to individuals’ beliefs about their possibilities of finding new, equal, or better employment. How people perceive their possibilities of getting employment is important in a labour market characterised by flexibility and uncertainty, and the present thesis sets out to investigate the nature, determinants, and implications of employability perceptions, using two population-
based samples. In Study I, the aim was to study if employability and self-efficacy are two distinct but related constructs and, along with this, to investigate the nature of their association. The results from this study indicated that employability was distinct from self-efficacy and, furthermore, that employability predicted subsequent self-efficacy. In Study II, the aim was to identify predictors of perceived employability. The combination of situational and individual factors was identified as important for employability perceptions. National economic prosperity, living/working in metropolitan areas, poor physical and good psychological work environments, formal education, and competency development were found to be positively associated with perceived employability. The aim of Study III was to investigate if employability could predict subsequent health and well-being. The results from this study implied that individuals who reported higher levels of employability also reported better global health and mental well-being, but not physical complaints, one year later, after controlling for work environment variables and previous health status. In conclusion, the present thesis has implications for theory as well as practice when it concludes that employability is not primarily a self-evaluation, that it is dependent on individual as well as situational factors, and that it has implications for health and well-being.

Erik Berntson et. al (2008) studied on investigating the relationship between employability and self-efficacy: a cross-lagged analysis in European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology (Impact Factor: 1.96). The construct of employability has been conceptually related to self-efficacy in different ways. Employability has sometimes been regarded as an equivalent to self-efficacy, or as a distinct but related phenomenon. Since the relationship between the two phenomena has not been subjected to empirical scrutiny, the aim of the present study is to analyze whether self-efficacy and employability are two distinct but related constructs, and if they are, to investigate the direction of their relationship. The data (N = 1730) were collected through a two-wave longitudinal survey with one year between each data collection (2005 and 2006). The results of confirmatory factor analysis showed that the
measures of employability and self-efficacy were distinct from one another, within and over measurement points, indicating that these are related but separate constructs. The results of latent variable cross-lagged analysis showed that employability predicted subsequent self-efficacy, even after controlling for age, gender, educational level, and regional differences. Thus, employability is not an expression of efficacy beliefs, but rather, the strengthening of employability perceptions may have beneficial effects on more general efficacy beliefs.

Rob Martin et al (2008) investigated the views of the post-16 education sector on the skills people need to be employable, current policy that is driving the focus on the acquisition of skills and a shared definition of employability skills. Working with You Gov, LSN then surveyed 1137 employers to get their views on skills and what they consider necessary for employment. The key findings from the expert seminar concluded that any definition of employability skills must reflect the mix of skills, attributes and behaviours necessary to find and sustain employment. They also strongly held the view that the acquisition of employability skills should be seen as a continuum of learning that supports job progression, not just entry into the workforce. The survey revealed that 80% of employers said young people must be good at timekeeping; 79% said they must have fully developed literacy skills; 77% prioritised numeracy skills and 75% said enthusiasm and commitment. The survey moved on to ask employers which skills they consider the most critical in a young person looking for a job, and rank them according to priority. The results mirrored those from the previous questions: communication was ranked first, literacy second, numeracy third and enthusiasm/commitment fourth. The study revealed that after five years of education employers expect employees to have developed a more sophisticated set of skills. Eighty-six per cent of employers said that personal presentation should be fully developed, suggesting they want to employ people who appear to be professional. Seventy-seven per cent of employers want people to have fully developed team-working skills and 71% want people to have fully developed
problem-solving skills. The survey results showed that over half of the Employers are struggling to recruit school and college leavers with the skills they need for their businesses and only 13.8% had always been successful. The top four reasons reflected the early findings in the study. Nineteen per cent of the total reasons given by employers for why they were not able to recruit young people related to literacy problems and 18% related to numeracy problems. Attitudinal reasons, such as motivation and work ethics, accounted for 16% of the reasons given, with poor communication skills accounting for 12%. The research suggested that training must be provided to enhance the lacking skills as well as the development must be from the grassroots rather than providing it for college students right around the turn of placements.

Gracia, Louise. (2009) studied about “Employability and higher education: contextualising female students' workplace experiences to enhance understanding of employability development.” Current political and economic discourses position employability as a responsibility of higher education, which deploys mechanisms such as supervised work experience (SWE) to embed employability skills development into the undergraduate curriculum. However, workplaces are socially constructed complex arenas of embodied knowledge that are gendered. Understanding the usefulness of SWE therefore requires consideration of the contextualised experiences of it, within these complex environments. This study considers higher education's use of SWE as a mechanism of employability skills development through exploration of female students' experiences of accounting SWE, and its subsequent shaping of their views of employment. Findings suggest that women experience numerous, indirect gender-based inequalities within their accounting SWE about which higher education is silent, perpetuating the framing of employability as a set of individual skills and abilities. This may limit the potential of SWE to provide equality of employability development. The studies concludes by briefly considering how insights provided by this research could better inform higher education’s engagement
with SWE within the employability discourse, and contribute to equality of employability development opportunity.

Mary Bambacas and Margaret Patrickson (2009) assessed the communication skills in manager selection and to what extent organisations specifically use communication skills as a key criterion in their selection and subsequent development of managerial staff. Study revealed presents empirical findings from semi-structured qualitative interviews conducted with senior HR managers in large to medium sized organisations in Southern Australia. The study further suggested that HR practitioner regard communication skills as subsumed under a generic idea of leadership. There were no specific programs reported that explicitly targeted communication skills. The findings contribute to knowledge concerning the nature of communication skills for managerial staff such as, interpersonal, verbal, written and listening skills. Further, time needs to be allocated to the audit of training in the development of communication skills so that HR professionals are clear on the action that needs to be taken. The main finding is that despite repeated claims that communication skills are important for successful managerial performance, HR managers only assess these informally during managerial selection and rarely target these skills in training staff for managerial positions. It is recommended that HR staff need to review these practices towards a more targeted communication skills appraisal that would measure the extent to which these skills are already apparent at selection and develop further following additional training.

Ruby, Christy & Celeste (2009) conducted a study on Stress, Sex Differences, and Coping Strategies Among College Students. The sources of stress (academics, financial, family, social, and daily hassles) and coping strategies (self-help, approach, accommodation, avoidance, and self-punishment) of 166 college students were examined. The relationship between sex, specific sources of stress, and coping strategies was also investigated. Students completed a stress assessment
inventory and a stress coping inventory based on a 5-factor revised COPE model (Zuckerman and Gagne 2003). Results found that college women reported a higher overall level of stress and greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies than college men. College men and women also reported different coping strategies for different stressors; however the use of emotion-focused coping strategies dominated over problem-solving strategies for both men and women. These results have implications for designing stress reduction workshops that build on the existing adaptive emotion-focused strategies of college students.

Gillian Maxwell et al. (2010) studied about Employers as stakeholders in postgraduate employability skills development and thus explored the position and views of employers as a critical stakeholder group in postgraduates’ employability skills. The intention is to raise the important issue of the gap between the skills developed on postgraduate programmes and employers’ stated needs of postgraduates. Also, it is hoped the paper contributes modestly to narrowing the gap in this. The focus of the generative research design has its foundations in a professionally accredited M.Sc. in Human Resource Management. While the primary work is limited in sample size, it offers some insights. The ten core employability skills that emerge for this postgraduate programme from the authors’ primary work on employers’ expectations are prioritized by employer line managers. Overall, communication and problem-solving emerge as the two core skills most important to employers. The key point made in conclusion is that employers themselves can increase their stake in employability skills development in two ways: by working in partnership with universities on the core and component skills they seek from postgraduates; and, by assuming their share of responsibility for the development of these skills. In balancing employer expectations in such a way, it is levelled that the general standard of postgraduates’ employability skills may be enhanced.
Hans De Witte (2010) conducted a study on “Temporary Employment and Perceived Employability: Mediation by Impression Management.” Perceived employability (PE) has been advanced as the upcoming resource for career development, particularly for temporary workers. The question is how temporary workers become employable. Our hypothesis is that temporary workers more than permanent workers use impression management to become employable, both on the internal and the external labour market. This hypothesis was tested with a sample of 371 Belgian temporary and permanent workers from the educational sector and using structural equation modelling (SEM). The results suggest that (a) temporary workers were more likely than permanent workers to use impression management; (b) impression management related positively to the worker’s perception of being employable, both on the internal and the external labour market, which; (c) in turn, related to the perception of availability of better job opportunities. That is to say, impression management is an important mechanism available to temporary workers to first secure their labour market position and then for career advancement.

Madhavi Waddar and Vijayalakshmi Amniabhavi (2010) study aimed at investigating whether PG student staying at home and hostel do differ significantly from each other in some of the important personality variables such as self-efficacy and emotional intelligence? The study was conducted on a sample of 200 PG students, out of which 100 students staying at home and 100 students staying at hostel were a part of it. Both groups (consisting of 50 female and 50 male students) were selected from different departments from Karnataka University, Dharwad. General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) by Jerusalem and Schwarzer and Self-Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale by Brackett and Rivers were used to collect the data. The data were analyzed and the results revealed that PG students staying at home have significantly higher self-efficacy and overall emotional intelligence compared to hostelites. An incidental analysis also revealed that demographic variables such as age, gender,
order of birth and caste have significantly contributed to the self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of PG students at home and hostel.

**Vathsala Wickramasinghe Lasantha Perera, (2010)** explored the employability skills that employers, university lecturers and graduates value to bring to the workplace, when graduates are applying for entry-level graduate jobs. A total of three samples were selected for this exploratory study, namely, graduates, employers, and university lecturers. Three self-administered survey questionnaires were developed targeting the three groups. In addition to descriptive statistics, paired sample t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and correlation analysis were used for the data analysis. The findings suggested that there are differences in the priorities given for employability skills by the four groups – male graduates, female graduates, employers, and university lecturers. Further, the findings suggest that employability skills are influenced by the gender of the graduates. Overall, the findings of the study could be used to assist universities, graduates, employers, and career advisers in applying strategic decisions in managing graduates' careers. Although a considerable amount of the literature addresses employability skills, much of the information is theoretical in nature and offers policy recommendations and prescriptive advice. Further, a majority of the research studies has primarily examined the experiences of a particular higher educational institute where remedial actions were taken to impart employability skills. The paper presents findings of a survey that investigated and compared employability skills that employers, university lecturers and graduates value to bring to the workplace when graduates are applying for entry-level graduate jobs.

**Wittekind et al. (2010)** conducted a longitudinal study of determinants of perceived employability. This study examines 413 engineer students’ ESE and its influencing factors. The results show that students’ career resilience (CR) has a significant direct effect on employability self-efficacy (ESE), and perceived labour
market competition (PLMC) has a significant effect on ESE through CR. The influence pattern and empirical data of PLMC and CR on ESE has a good fit.

Anthony Machin and Peter Creed (2011) conducted a study that examined the connection between background variables (such as length of unemployment and number of previous training courses), contextual variables (perceptions of training climate), dispositional variables (positive affect and negative affect), and psychological outcomes for unemployed trainees who attended either a 5-week occupational skills training program (control group) or the same 5-week program with an additional 2-day intervention before the start of the program (treatment group). The trainees in both the treatment and control conditions were found to reduce their levels of psychological distress over the course of a 5-week training program. Trainees in the treatment condition who started with the lowest levels of general self-efficacy and the highest levels of psychological distress showed the greatest improvements at time 2 (T2). The measures of length of unemployment, number of previous training courses, and the perceptions of the training climate (with one exception) did not account for any unique variance in either of the well-being measures at time 3 (T3). Positive and negative affect (PA and NA respectively) accounted for 30% of the variance in initial levels of general self-efficacy and 43% of the variance in initial levels of psychological distress. However, PA and NA measured at T1 did not account for any unique variance in the T3 levels of general self-efficacy and psychological distress, after the initial levels of each of the variables were controlled. It was concluded that components of dispositional affect are the main influences on how individuals perceive stimuli in the environment and subsequently regulate their emotional response.

Bimrose et al (2011) conducted a study and recognised that in the current labour market, individuals need to be better equipped to be more resilient and to manage risk and uncertainty. Individuals were then found to be able to learn to develop and effectively apply career adaptive competencies. With career adaptability
skills, young people and adults (at all stages of their career) were able to engage in learning and development activities, plus manage the increasingly demanding contexts within in which they worked and learnt.

Ishfaq Ahmed, Tehmina Fiaz Qazi and Shaista Jabeen (2011) studied Self-efficacy as the predictor of educational performance among university students. The basic intention of the research was to explore the association between perceived academic performance and self-efficacy level of the students as it has been an unexplored research area in the Pakistan. Students were selected as an obvious target population. Sample consisted of 250 university students. Questionnaire was used as a data collection instrument. Major portion of the questionnaire had been taken from the research work done by Sherer et al. (1982). Out of 250 students, 212 students contributed in the data collection comprising 85% response rate for the study. SPSS 16.0 was used to analyze data. Findings of the study establish a weak positive association between level of self-efficacy (IV) and DV (perceived academic performance) as IV causes only 3.6% (.036) change in DV (academic performance). Hence, there is a weak dependency of perceived academic performance of students upon their level of self-efficacy.

Messum, Wilkes and Jackson (2011) studied on employability skills as essential requirements in health manager vacancy advertisements. Common understandings of what constitutes employability skills (ES), for graduate entry level jobs in health services management, are not well articulated. The Australian Department of Science and Training (DEST) provides a generic profile only which changes over time. In health, this is compounded by endemic reform. What is agreed is that a degree is not enough. Recruitment and personnel policies/practices have been found inconsistent, and wish lists for ES unreliable. In addition, different levels of managers in an organisation require different attributes for the same position. Higher education shows interest in generic skills because of pressure from employers. As public documents, job advertisements provide accessible data on employer skill
requirements listed as essential requirements. Using predefined search criteria, 100 consecutive advertisements for health managers in New South Wales were collected from two major Australian newspapers and two internet sites, mid-September to December 2009. A total of 35 different essential requirements were identified. Communication skills were the most frequently listed followed by prior experience, tertiary qualifications and knowledge of the healthcare system. Findings were consistent with the DEST top three ES. Comparative analysis with competency requirements of the Australasian College of Health Service Management and overseas organizations is discussed. Although ES are stated in vacancy advertisements for health management, understanding of some terms needs to be agreed and sufficient detail provided to help identify suitable applicants. Key ES are consistent with generic listings but there are also health profession specific requirements. Higher education providers can use these findings to inform curriculum development and improve graduate employment outcomes.

Patricia Forbus, John Newbold, Sanjay Mehta (2011) conducted a study of non-traditional and traditional students in terms of their time management behaviours, stress factors, and coping strategies. Non-traditional students have been returning to colleges and universities at a rapidly growing rate. This study investigated the stress factors and methods of coping of these non-traditional students during their university experience as compared to traditional students. A survey was conducted at a four-year south-western state university that was projectable to the entire student population. Respondents were queried with regard to demographics, attitudes, behaviours and outcomes, such as grade point average, levels of stress and coping strategies in the college experience. The research indicates that non-traditional students bring different expectations for the college experience, were less involved in various college social activities and were less interested in “having a good time” in college than traditional students. Non-traditional students experienced differing levels of motivation, campus involvement, and participation in social activities from their traditional counterparts.
which related to time management issues and lead to differing levels of stress and methods of coping between the two groups of students.

**Rosemary Barrow (2011)** conducted an extensive study on “Embedding Employability into a Classics Curriculum.” Employability has become a global buzzword: instructors in higher education are increasingly being called upon to produce highly employable students who will in turn contribute to the financial capital of the country’s economy. For vocational subjects and degrees for which clear links to industry may be envisaged (such as IT, Business, Technology and Science) the challenge is surmountable. However, it remains for non-vocational subjects, and especially degree programmes in the Arts and Humanities, to prove their merit in this demand-based climate. While sceptics may be worried that endeavours to adapt an academic discipline to the needs of economic utility may effectively dilute the academic content of a degree programme, this article suggests that this need not be the case. By focusing on modules which utilize non-traditional forms of assessment and delivery, the article will demonstrate that embedding employability can actually enhance academic standards while simultaneously offering students a broader choice of learning and teaching experiences.

**Shalini, Srinivasa and Deepti Pathak (2011)** conducted a study is to explore the moderating effect of locus of control on relationship between general role stress and personal effectiveness of management graduates. The present study was done on a sample of 186 management students belonging to different management institutes.

Variables in the study were assessed using three validated instruments. Descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and regression analysis were used to analyze the data. It was found that general stress was negatively related to personal effectiveness and locus of control moderates the relationship between the two. Results confirmed the importance of personality dimension as factor affecting personal effectiveness. It shows that the intensity of stress is reduced if the student focuses on locus of control thus making him more effective. By understanding the relationship
between these variables the management institute should conduct and deliver training programmes to actively manage the budding managers. This study is the first of its kind to study the moderating effect of locus of control on the relationship between general role stress and personal effectiveness.

Wei-Ching Wang, et al. (2011) studied the relationship between free time management and quality of life, exploring whether the amount of free time or the way people using their free time relates to their quality of life. Data were collected from National Pingtung University of Science and Technology in Taiwan. Of the 500 questionnaires distributed, 403 usable questionnaires were received with an 81% response rate. The result has found a positive relationship between free time management and quality of life. Contrary to this, there was no significant relationship between time allocation and quality of life. Results might indicate that people who manage their free time well lead to better quality of life.

Andreas Blom and Hiroshi Saeki (2012) studied on employability and skill sets of newly graduated engineers in India. Study revealed that shortage of skills remains one of the major constraints to continued growth of the Indian economy. This employer survey seeks to address this knowledge-gap by answering three questions: (1) Which skills do employers consider important when hiring new engineering graduates? (2) How satisfied are the employers with the skills of engineering graduates? and (3) In which important skills are the engineers falling short? The results confirm a widespread dissatisfaction with the current graduates. After classifying all skills by factor analysis, the authors conclude that employers perceive soft skills (core employability skills and communication skills) to be very important. The findings suggest that engineering education institutions should seek to improve the skill set of graduates, recognize the importance of soft skills, refocus the assessments, teaching-learning process and curricula from lower-order thinking skills, such as remembering and understanding, toward higher-order skills, such as analyzing
and solving engineering problems, as well as creativity, and interact more with employers to understand the particular demand for skills in that region and sector.

**Report of Aspiring Minds (2012),** based on its third year of assessing MBA students across the Nation on a standardized multi-dimensional assessments and matching them to an array of jobs in different industrial sectors and profiles. Amassed substantial learnings - both conceptual and empirical - with regard to what makes someone employable in a management or business role in a company and what skills MBA graduates bring to the table. Defining employability in these roles, which require people interaction and people management, is not straightforward. As opposed to engineering roles, where cognitive and functional skills are enough to succeed in a role, a complex mix of personality trait and spoken and written language skills (apart from cognitive and functional skills) become important in quantifying employability in the management space. The study was conducted using an audit of students from over 3300 management schools and following are the key findings of the research that was carried out. Aspiring Minds based its conclusions on a so-called “employability test” it conducted on 32,000 MBA graduates from 220 business schools across India. The test, which quizzed graduates on topics ranging from grammar to quantitative analysis, found that only 10% of those tested had skills that recruiters typically look for while hiring management graduates. The study found that less than half of the students tested had some knowledge of key industry terms and concepts in their areas of specialty. Results portrayed that Employability of management graduates in functional domains in the field of HR, Marketing or Finance remains below 10%. Only 7.69% MBA-finance students are employable in the BFSI sector, which has created a very large number of jobs in the last decade. Whereas 32% management graduates lose out because of lack of English and Cognitive skills, at least 50% students are not employable in functional domains for lack of knowledge and conceptual understanding of the domain. Gender ratio in Indian management schools compares to that in global top management schools as the study revealed that the
male-to-female ratio in business schools is pegged at 1.64, better than that in engineering schools (1.98) and worse than that for graduates (3-year degree courses, 1.09). This is similar to the male–female ratio in global top management schools, which have 30-40% of their students as females. Within the discipline of management, highest proportion of women are in the HR (MFR: 0.36) domain and least in marketing (MFR: 5.97). Even though the employability of males and females is similar, females have a dismal representation of 23% (MFR: 3.76) in business in India. Other findings suggested that at least 40% of employable management graduates are invisible to enterprises. Out of 3300 management schools in the country, more than 40–55% employable candidates study beyond the top 1000 campuses. Given a total of 1.5 lakh management students, at least 48% employable candidates are in the latter 2300 campuses. Given that no corporation has a campus recruitment plan beyond the top campuses, these candidates form an 'invisible pool'. Corporations should build mechanisms to tap into this untapped talent pool to fulfil their ever increasing talent requirements. Not only would that improve the quality of employees in companies, but also would provide a healing touch to this disadvantaged group, leading to trickle-down effects. Suggestions revealed that there was an immediate realization and call for intervention in areas such as language and finance.

**Erkan Isik (2012)** examined the relationship of career decision self-efficacy, trait anxiety and affectivity among undergraduate students. The study examined the relationship between career decision self-efficacy and personal-emotional life, including trait anxiety and positive and negative affect in a sample of 249 undergraduate students. Turkish versions of Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale–Short Form, Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, and Trait Anxiety Inventory were administrated. Higher career decision self-efficacy was associated with higher positive affectivity and lower trait anxiety and negative affectivity. Trait anxiety and positive affect were the significant predictors of career decision self-efficacy.
Potgieter (2012) conducted a research on the relationship between the self-esteem and employability attributes of postgraduate business management students. The effects of challenges (like decreased employment opportunities, increased personal responsibility to keep up with changes, current skill shortages and of retaining talented and skilled staff) have led to an emphasis on career meta-competencies to improve employability attributes. The objectives of the study were to determine the relationship between self-esteem (as the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory measures it) and employability attributes (as the Employability Attributes Scale measures it); to determine whether people’s biographical details significantly predict their self-esteem and employability attributes; and whether men and women differ significantly in their self-esteem and employability attributes. There seems to be a paucity of studies that investigate how people’s self-esteem relates to their employability attributes in South Africa’s multi-cultural context. The researcher conducted a quantitative survey on a convenience sample of 304 employed adults enrolled for an honours degree in business management in a higher education institution. She used correlational statistics, multiple regression analyses, categorical regressions and independent t-tests to analyse the data. The researcher found a number of significant relationships between the participants’ self-esteem and employability. The results showed that biographical details significantly predicted participants’ employability attributes. The major implications were that career counsellors and human resource practitioners need to recognise how people’s self-esteem and their biographical details influence their employability attributes. The findings add to the literature on the skills, abilities and biographical information that influence employability and give valuable information that organisations can use during career development support and career counselling practices in the contemporary world of work.

Shadiya, Mohamad and Moukhtar Mai (2012) conducted a study on stress, strain and coping mechanisms: an Experimental study of fresh college. This paper
discusses the stress, strain and coping mechanisms among fresh college students. The purpose is to understand stress related problems, and suggest suitable solutions. Simple Random Sampling was assigned to all 120 first year students of a university (Matriculation Centre), they were equally divided into experimental and control group. Classes were given only to experimental group on how to cope with academic stress. Hence, their levels of stress were measured twice, before and after the experiment. The findings of this study indicate that there are significant differences between the experimental and the control group in relation to stress, strain and coping mechanisms. Eventually, the experimental group proved to cope with academic stress better than the control group, and they were satisfied with their academic performance during the experimentation. After a period of four years, a follow-up study was performed on both groups in order to inquire into the students’ academic results and CGPA at undergraduate level. The results were very encouraging for the experimental group.

Denise Jackson (2013) conducted a study on ‘Business graduate performance in oral communication skills and strategies for improvement.’ Global competitiveness and increased knowledge sharing have accelerated the importance of oral communication skills in today's graduates. Accordingly, oral communication dominates assurance of learning standards and is frequently cited as one of the most desired graduate employability skills. Previous research, typically focused on employer perceptions, largely indicates graduate oral communication skills do not meet industry expectations. The study investigates how 674 recent business graduates perceived their own capabilities in oral communication skills, noting variations by background/demographic characteristics. Overall, business graduates rated their capabilities in oral communication highly although mean ratings for the 14 sub-behaviours varied. Certain sub-behaviours varied with graduate age and time spent working since graduation. Findings suggest a disparity between graduate and employer perceptions on the standard of oral communication skills upon graduation.
Participants also considered the effectiveness of different learning activities for developing oral communication skills during their undergraduate studies. Popular learning activities were individual/group presentations and small group projects. The number of activity types engaged in during degree studies did not significantly impact perceived capabilities and only peer feedback, individual and group presentations caused significant variations in certain sub-behaviours. Despite graduates reporting opportunities for a wide range of learning activities, these are not always effective.

Lorraine Dacre Pool and Pamela Qualter (2013) studied emotional self-efficacy, graduate employability, and career satisfaction—testing the associations. Graduate employability has been the subject of little empirical research. There are a number of difficulties in defining and measuring graduate employability, which means that there is a paucity of research that looks at its predictors and outcomes. Previous work has proposed that emotional competence improves graduate employability, and this study further investigates this idea by examining the association between emotional self-efficacy and employability. Also investigated is the association between employability and career satisfaction. Working graduates ($N=306$) completed measures of emotional self-efficacy, self-perceived employability, and career satisfaction, and the data were analysed using structural equation modelling. We found emotional self-efficacy to be an important predictor of graduate employability. Additionally, we found that graduate employability mediates the relationship between emotional self-efficacy and career satisfaction.

Mei-hua Chen and Jui-Lin Liao (2013) studied the correlations among learning motivation, life stress, learning satisfaction, and self-efficacy for Ph.D. Students. In recent years, the number of people seeking Ph.D. degrees in Taiwan has increased, despite a shrinking job market. The types of pressure these students experience and the gravity of this situation are critical topics. Therefore, this study explores the correlations among students’ learning motivations, life stress, learning satisfaction, and self-efficacy. The results can be used as a reference for the career
development of Ph.D. students. We use a survey comprising a set of questions concerning Ph.D. students’ learning motivations, life stress, learning satisfaction, and self-efficacy. The results show that learning motivation was strongly and negatively correlated with interpersonal stress and self-development stress, and the motivation for career development was positively correlated with learning stress and self-development stress. Motivation based on others’ expectations was positively correlated with learning stress, interpersonal stress, and self-development stress; learning motivation was positively correlated with learning satisfaction; and interpersonal stress was negatively correlated with learning satisfaction. Learning stress, economic stress, and self-development stress affected general self-efficacy; and interpersonal stress affected learning efficacy. However, learning motivation affected self-efficacy, and motivation based on others’ expectations and social motivation affected learning self-efficacy.
2.24 SUMMARY OF REVIEWS

Ellis, Rebecca and Taylor, Susan (1983) study revealed that of all the variables, global self-esteem proved a better predictor of search outcomes dependent on subjects' social skills, whereas task-specific self-esteem was more strongly related to search motivation and satisfaction.

Srinivasan and Kamalanabhan (1986) conducted a research which revealed that the three leadership styles Autocratic, Democratic and Laissez faire differ significantly; with democratic style being the most adopted and autocratic the least. Job involvement was found to have no influence on the level of leadership behaviour.

Nindru Lehal and Promila Vasudeva (1987) conducted a study which revealed that sex-role attitudes were significantly related to mothers occupation and educational level, structure of family and subject’s own intention to take up a job or not. No significant relationship was found between socio-economic status, fathers’ education, occupation and sex-role attitudes.

Multon et al. (1991) results revealed positive and statistically significant relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance and persistence outcomes across a wide variety of subjects, experimental designs, and assessment methods and the relationships were found to be heterogeneous across studies, and the variance in reported effect sizes was partially explained by certain study characteristics.

Hackett et al. (1992) through their studies revealed that outcome expectations, vocational interests, and low level of stress were in turn the strongest predictors of academic self efficacy.

Hiltrop (1995) study defines psychological contracts of employment as the understandings people have regarding the commitments implicit between themselves and their organization; they reflect what employees and employers want and expect from each other, and consist of a belief in, and interpretation of, a promissory contract, whether written or unwritten.
Carey (1997) study provides evidence that the employability skills are not those specific to a particular sector or job description but transferable across different contexts.

Park, Crystal and Folkman, Susan (1997) present a framework for understanding diverse conceptual and operational definitions of meaning of stress and coping by distinguishing 2 levels of meaning, termed global meaning and situational meaning.

Atkins (1999) findings revealed that in the absence of major changes to the funding regime there is unlikely to be a radical change to the curriculum and that more attention should now be paid to the post-graduation/induction period than to the pre-graduation stages.

Meena Sehgal (1999) conducted a cross gender perspective research which revealed higher scores of boys on self-efficacy and stress and almost equal scores on well-being.

Srivastava (1999) revealed that psychosocial stress experienced by the subjects significantly correlates with their emotional responses, symptoms of neuroticism, maladaptive and pathological behaviour and somatic pathologies (psychosomatic diseases).

Albert Bandura (2000) study revealed that perceived collective efficacy fosters groups' motivational commitment to their missions, resilience to adversity, and performance accomplishments.

Dunne and Rawlins (2000) study revealed that training students in team work skills would seem to have a broader impact than just enabling them to work in teams more effectively.

Ruth Spurlock Miller (2000) studied the importance of communication skills with respect to the perceptions of is professionals, is managers and users and results of the research indicated that significant differences in perceptions of importance of
written, oral, and interpersonal communication skills existed between IS staff and users and between IS staff and managers.

**Song Ju, Dalun Zhang, and Jacqueline Pacha (2000)** different expectations regarding employability skills were found between male and female respondents and between employers from service/business areas and those from science/technology areas.

**Chen et al. (2001)** study revealed that students with higher perceived self-efficacy performed better on the proficiency tests and that those with higher self-efficacy also set higher goals for subsequent achievement tests. Moreover, it also suggested that students who set higher achievement goals performed better. Goal setting mediated the relation of initial self-efficacy with subsequent test performance.

**Kanfer Ruth, Wanberg Connie and Kantrowitz, Tracy (2001)** study revealed that all antecedent variables such as relationships between personality, expectancies, self, social, motive, and biographical variables and individual differences in job search behaviour and employment outcomes except optimism were significantly related to job search behaviour.

**Bynner and Parson (2002)** study demonstrated that better numeracy and literacy are associated with shorter unemployment spells and that women tended to display a weaker numeracy performance compared to men. Furthermore, the study showed a decline between earlier and later cohorts in employment status for those with and without basic skills, thus providing support to the idea that individuals with poor basic skills are less employable in the current labour market than would have been the case a few decades ago.

**Chia, Ho-Beng et al. (2003)** findings revealed that individuals high in either learning or performance goal orientation assumed higher risk and achieved higher returns. However, performance goal orientation was negatively associated with return-to-risk efficiency. It also revealed that learning orientation was positively associated with taking more practice trials and progressing to more complex stages.
Fauth, Whitney Brooke et al. (2003) study confirmed that positive and negative emotions classified as active would contribute to interpersonally direct ethical decisions, but not to organizationally direct ones, and that passive emotions would not contribute at all.

Lei-Da Chen, Achita Muthitaacharoen and Mark Frolick (2003) revealed through their study that role play is a viable training method that can yield measurable results of communication skill improvement.

Margaret Patrickson and Robert Ranzijn (2003) examined through a study and revealed that interviewees believed themselves employable and their skills current, but that these optimistic beliefs were seldom confirmed by labour market success and that the more resilient individuals who coped more effectively were more successful in securing re-employment.

Phillip Brown, Anthony Hesketh and Sara Williams (2003) conducted a research on employability in a knowledge-driven economy which examined the concept of employability. The recent policy emphasis on employability rests on the assumption that the economic welfare of individuals and the competitive advantage of nations have come to depend on the knowledge, skills and enterprise of the workforce. Those with qualifications of degree-level are seen to play a particularly important role in managing the ‘knowledge-driven’ economy of the future.

Somech, Anit and Drach-Zahavy, Anat (2003) studied the relationships of participative leadership with relational demography (age, tenure, education, and gender) and with a contextual variable (learning culture) were explored in an integrated model, and the results indicated the prevalence of the Leader Member exchange approach to leadership model in explaining the relationships of leader’s participative behaviours with relational demography and with the contextual variable.
Tjosvold, Dean et al (2003) research showed that team-level variables such as psychological safety and shared mental model can help overcome barriers to learning from mistakes.

Anne Green, Ian Shuttleworth and Stuart Lavery (2004) study revealed that most young people have a highly localised outlook and that the factors of limited mobility, lack of confidence and religion intertwine in complex ways were the factors that limit perceived opportunities and it was thus concluded that geography does play a role in shaping access to employment and training opportunities.

Ranjita et al (2003) conducted a study in which results indicated no significant difference in academic and life stressors by gender however, women exhibited higher reactions to stressor life than men. Higher levels of academic stressor were predicted by higher levels of stress and by lower levels of social support. Higher academic stressors predicted greater reactions to stressors.

Chitnis, Ketan (2005) findings suggest that participatory communication and collective action can be successful if change agents act as facilitators and are sensitive to people’s needs and that genuine participation is slow and social change is even slower. It thus concluded that communication practices are important in organizing people to come together and to seek social change, but larger political and structural changes are also necessary to complement individual and community-level actions.

Gregory Hall Patton (2005) study provides an initial roadmap for enhancing training effectiveness and gaining greater returns from MBA and employee-sponsored training program.

Ken Lodewyk and Philip (2005) findings revealed that for overall academic achievement, self efficacy was a negligible predictor of achievement.

Ronald McQuaid (2005) paper presents a broad framework for analysing employability built around individual factors, personal circumstances and external factors, which acknowledges the importance of both supply- and demand-side factors.
Erik Berntson, Magnus Sverke and Staffan Marklund (2006) revealed in their study that employability was perceived as higher during prosperity, but human capital factors as well as dual labour market factors predicted perceived employability, irrespective of the time period.

Andrew Rothwell, John Arnold (2007) conducted a study from which the conclusion was drawn that self-perceived employability can usefully be thought of as either a unitary construct, or one with two related components – internal (to the organisation) and external employability.

Clarke and Winch (2007) study revealed that at the professional level, employers extract information about participants from their educational experience including technical expertise, capacity, personality and motivation.

McArdle et al. (2007) found that adaptability, career identity and social support contribute significantly to employability.

Berntson et al. (2008) study showed that although employability and self-efficacy reflect related qualities, the qualities that define them are distinct. While self-efficacy reflects a “the general feeling of how to perform tasks”, employability “is closely connected to specific knowledge (e.g., skills that are the result of education and training)”.

Bharati Rao Pothukuchi (2008) findings revealed that the group poor in time management had higher anxiety and needs to be more creative.

Erik Berntson (2008) study indicated that employability is not primarily a self-evaluation, that it is dependent on individual as well as situational factors, and that it has implications for health and well-being.

Erik Berntson et. al (2008) provides evidence through their study that employability is not an expression of efficacy beliefs, but rather, the strengthening of employability perceptions may have beneficial effects on more general efficacy beliefs.
Rob Martin et al (2008) investigation revealed the key findings that any definition of employability skills must reflect the mix of skills, attributes and behaviours necessary to find and sustain employment. They also strongly held the view that the acquisition of employability skills should be seen as a continuum of learning that supports job progression, not just entry into the workforce. The results mirrored that communication was ranked first, literacy second, numeracy third and enthusiasm/commitment fourth. The survey results showed that over half of the Employers are struggling to recruit school and college leavers with the skills they need for their businesses and only 13.8% had always been successful. Nineteen per cent of the total reasons given by employers for why they were not able to recruit young people related to literacy problems and 18% related to numeracy problems. Attitudinal reasons, such as motivation and work ethics, accounted for 16% of the reasons given, with poor communication skills accounting for 12%.

Gracia, Louise. (2009) through the findings of their study suggest that women experience numerous, indirect gender-based inequalities within their accounting SWE about which higher education is silent, perpetuating the framing of employability as a set of individual skills and abilities and that this may limit the potential of SWE to provide equality of employability development.

Mary Bambacas and Margaret Patrickson (2009) study suggested that HR practitioners regard communication skills as subsumed under a generic idea of leadership and that HR managers only assess these informally during managerial selection and rarely target these skills in training staff for managerial positions.

Ruby ,Christy & Celeste (2009) conducted a study that revealed that college women reported a higher overall level of stress and greater use of emotion-focused coping strategies than college men. College men and women also reported different coping strategies for different stressors; however the use of emotion-focused coping strategies dominated over problem-solving strategies for both men and women.
Gillian Maxwell et al. (2010) through their study revealed that communication and problem-solving emerge as the two core skills most important to employers.

Hans De Witte (2010) conducted study that revealed that impression management is an important mechanism available to temporary workers to first secure their labour market position and then for career advancement.

Madhavi Waddar and Vijayalakshmi Amniabhavi (2010) study revealed that PG students staying at home have significantly higher self-efficacy and overall emotional intelligence compared to hostelites and that demographic variables such as age, gender, order of birth and caste have significantly contributed to the self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of PG students at home and hostel.

Vathsala Wickramasinghe Lasantha Perera, (2010) findings suggested that there are differences in the priorities given for employability skills by the four groups – male graduates, female graduates, employers, and university lecturers and those employability skills are influenced by the gender of the graduates.

Wittekind et al. (2010) research results show that students’ career resilience (CR) has a significant direct effect on employability self-efficacy (ESE), and perceived labour market competition (PLMC) has a significant effect on ESE through CR.

Anthony Machin and Peter Creed (2011) study revealed that the trainees who started with the lowest levels of general self-efficacy and the highest levels of psychological distress showed the greatest improvements after training. Positive and negative affect accounted for 30% of the variance in initial levels of general self-efficacy and 43% of the variance in initial levels of psychological distress. It was concluded that components of dispositional affect are the main influences on how individuals perceive stimuli in the environment and subsequently regulate their emotional response.
Bimrose et al (2011) study revealed that individuals were found to be able to learn to develop and effectively apply career adaptive competencies and also manage the increasingly demanding contexts within in which they worked and learnt.

Ishfaq Ahmed, Tehmina Fiaz Qazi and Shaista Jabeen (2011) revealed through their studies that there is a weak dependency of perceived academic performance of students upon their level of self-efficacy.

Messum, Wilkes and Jackson (2011) studies revealed that higher education shows interest in generic skills because of pressure from employers.

Patricia Forbus, John Newbold, Sanjay Mehta (2011) conducted research which indicates that non-traditional students bring different expectations for the college experience, and were less involved in various college social activities and were less interested in “having a good time” in college than traditional students. It also revealed that non-traditional students experienced differing levels of motivation, campus involvement, and participation in social activities from their traditional counterparts which related to time management issues and lead to differing levels of stress and methods of coping between the two groups of students.

Rosemary Barrow (2011) article demonstrated that embedding employability can actually enhance academic standards while simultaneously offering students a broader choice of learning and teaching experiences.

Shalini Srinivasa, Deepti Pathak (2011) research results confirmed the importance of personality dimension as factor affecting personal effectiveness and thus show that the intensity of stress is reduced if the student focuses on locus of control thus making him more effective.

Wei-Ching Wang et al. (2011) study revealed a positive relationship between free time management and quality of life which further indicated that people who manage their free time well lead to better quality of life.
Andreas Blom and Hiroshi Saeki (2012) study revealed that shortage of skills remains one of the major constraints to continued growth of the Indian economy. The results confirmed a widespread dissatisfaction with the current graduates.

Report of Aspiring Minds (2012) study found that less than half of the students tested had some knowledge of key industry terms and concepts in their areas of specialty. Results portrayed that Employability of management graduates in functional domains in the field of HR, Marketing or Finance remains below 10%. Only 7.69% MBA-finance students are employable in the BFSI sector, which has created a very large number of jobs in the last decade. Whereas 32% management graduates lose out because of lack of English and Cognitive skills, at least 50% students are not employable in functional domains for lack of knowledge and conceptual understanding of the domain.

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Mei-hua Chen and Jui-Lin Liao (2013) research results show that learning stress, economic stress, and self-development stress affected general self-efficacy; and interpersonal stress affected learning efficacy and that learning motivation affected self-efficacy, and motivation based on others’ expectations and social motivation affected learning self-efficacy.

Over all, the reviews of literature were useful in the development of objectives and formulation of hypotheses in the present study, which are presented in the following pages.