Introduction
An organization is a social arrangement which pursues collective goals, controls its own performance and has a boundary separating it from its environment. The word itself is derived from the Greek word organon, itself derived from the better-known word ergon. There are a variety of legal types of organizations, including: corporations, governments, non-governmental organizations, international organizations, armed forces, charities, not-for-profit corporations, partnerships, cooperatives and universities. A hybrid organization is a body that operates in both the public sector and the private sector simultaneously fulfilling public duties and developing commercial market activities. As a result the hybrid organization becomes a mixture of a government and a corporate organization.

In the social sciences, organizations are the object of analysis for a number of disciplines, such as sociology, economics, political science, psychology, management and organizational communication. The broader analysis of organizations is commonly referred to as organizational structure, organizational studies, organizational behaviour or organization analysis. A number of different perspectives exist, some of which are compatible:

- From a process-related perspective, an organization is viewed as an entity is being (re-)organized and the focus is on the organization as a set of tasks or actions.
• From a functional perspective, the focus is on how entities like businesses or state authorities are used.

• From an institutional perspective, an organization is viewed as a purposeful structure within a social context.

**Challenges of IT Sector in India**

The IT sector is growing very fast and providing vast opportunities of employment in India. However, the psychological problems i.e. stress, strain, anxiety, etc., may break the growth of the IT sector. The empirical observation reveals that there is common the overloading and extreme burden of work, competition at workplace, strictly time pressure of completion of tasks, more than 12 hours of work duration, odd working hours, long travel, fear of termination of job, etc. As a result, we observe that employees suffer in extremely high level of stress. Despite the researchers have produced numerous programs for prevention of workplace stress in developed countries, which are also being implemented but developing countries like India, we are so far behind. In India, the numerous reforms’ programs are just limited to improve the performance, innovation of new products, improve the building infrastructure, espouse the modern practices, the different training programs, etc., but they are yet to start any reform program, which is relevant to employees’ psychological problems.

It is common to observe too frustrated employees in IT sector due to increasing work pressure and they just do the job for their financial problem
and to support family. This situation, in which the employees have little or no sense of identification with their job, can cause an individual looking for another job or don’t perform efficiently their own.

Information Technology professionals are also faced with rapidly and continuously changing technologies and methodologies, a phenomenon likely not evidenced in history. The professionals are frequently forced to change the working languages, equipments and even entire development paradigm, amidst comprehensive re-structuring with its initial ambiguities and amidst ever increasing demands and they perceive this as a prerequisite for their very existence.

Few professionals are faced with much direct obsolescence of key skills. Moreover, the change required in skills and in entire mind set is not a one-time occurrence. A famous information system consultant E.D. Yourdon (1994) commented in his “Career Survival” newsletter, “What’s the point in learning to be really good at something if it’s going to become obsolete at the rate of 20% per year.

In this juncture, the present study is undertaken to address specific issues of IT professionals related to Organizational citizenship behaviour and Quality of work life. The study will be helpful to drawn up further policy on the related fields and act as a secondary data for further research.
The aforecited findings evoked a deep interest to undertake a comprehensive study of psychodynamics of Information Technology Professionals keeping in mind the corporate sector with the aim to investigate Emotional Intelligence, Optimism and Self-efficacy in relation to Organizational citizenship behaviour and Quality of work life.

**Positive Psychology**

Positive Psychology is a recent branch of psychology that “studies the strengths and virtues that enable individuals and communities to thrive”. Positive psychologists seek “to find and nurture genius and talent” and “to make normal life more fulfilling”, not simply treat mental illness. It seeks to understand positive emotions such as joy, optimism and contentment. Positive psychology is interested in the conditions that allow individuals, groups and organizations to flourish.

Positive psychology began as a new area of psychology in 1998 when Martin Seligman, considered the father of the modern positive psychology movement, chose it as the theme for his term as president of the American Psychological Association, though the term originates with Maslow, in his 1954 book Motivation and Personality. Seligman pointed out that for the half century clinical psychology “has been consumed by a single topic only – mental illness”, echoing Maslow’s comments. He urged psychologists to continue the earlier missions of psychology of nurturing talent and improving normal life.
Martin Seligman is widely viewed as the father of contemporary positive psychology. The first positive psychology summit took place in 1999. In 2002, the first International Conference on Positive Psychology was held. In 2009, the first World Congress on Positive Psychology took place in Philadelphia and featured talks by Martin Seligman and Philip Zimbardo.

The aim of Positive Psychology is to use scientific methodology to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals, groups, organizations and communities to thrive. It is concerned with optimal human functioning instead of pathological human functioning. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi have summarized the field of Positive Psychology as follows:
The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about valued subjective experience: well-being, contentment and satisfaction (past), hope and optimism (future), and flow and happiness (present). At the individual level it is about positive individual traits -- the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future-mindedness, spirituality, high talent and wisdom. At the group level it is about the civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship: responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance and work ethic.

The Positive Psychology Centre promotes research, training, education and the dissemination of Positive Psychology. This field is founded on the belief that people want to lead meaningful and fulfilling lives, to cultivate what is best within them and to enhance their experience of love, work and play.

Positive Psychology has three central concerns: positive emotions, positive individual traits and positive institutions. Understanding positive emotions entails the study of contentment with the past, happiness in the present and hope for the future. Understanding positive individual traits consists of the study of the strengths and virtues, such as the capacity for love and work, courage, compassion, resilience, creativity, curiosity, integrity, self-knowledge, moderation, self-control and wisdom. Understanding positive institutions entails the study of the strengths that foster better communities,
such as justice, responsibility, civility, parenting, nurturance, work ethic, leadership, teamwork, purpose and tolerance.

Some of the goals of Positive Psychology are to build a science that supports:

- Families and schools that allow children to flourish.
- Workplaces that foster satisfaction and high productivity.
- Communities that encourage civic engagement.
- Therapists who identify and nurture their patient’s strength.
- The teaching of Positive Psychology.
- Dissemination of Positive Psychology interventions on organizations & Communities.

The Significance of Positive Psychology at Work Place

In today’s world of nonstop change, managers need a highly positive workforce. In the past, managers ran stable, efficient organizations, which operated for decades without much change. Private-sector workers did what their managers told them to do and were evaluated on how well they followed their job descriptions.

Today’s managers must implement deep reorganization and constant change on reduced budgets while trying to meet required objectives. In most of the companies every branch has shifted from needing cooperative, compliant employees, to needing self-motivated, change-proficient, adaptable
workers capable of performing in new ways without up-to-date job descriptions. This demand distresses many managers and workers.

When employees list their challenges and difficulties, most report that they feel pressured to do more work, of better quality, in less time, with fewer people, in new ways, with a reduced budget—while worrying whether their jobs are safe. This leads them to pessimism. Some succumb to this pressure, some don’t.

Pessimists might think they'll lead to uncertainty and decreased job security, while others may see a time of opportunity presented in the current difficult situation. Spending cuts mean big changes in the way services are delivered.

Business leaders can take seemingly small steps to improve the psyche of their employees—changing the overall working environment.

**Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability, capacity, skill or in the case of the trait Emotional intelligence model a self-perceived ability to identify, assess and control the emotions of oneself, of others and of groups. It is the ability to identify, use, understand and manage your emotions in positive and constructive ways. It's about recognizing your own emotional state and the emotional states of others. Emotional intelligence is also about engaging with others in ways that draw people to you. It is defined as a set of competencies
demonstrating the ability one has to recognize his or her behaviour, moods and impulses and to manage them best according to the situation. It is the ability to see one’s own emotions, understand what they are telling you and realize how your emotions affect people around you. It is also your perception of others; understanding how they feel and gives you the power to manage relationships more effectively.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) aims to comprise emotional understanding; attention to and acumen of one's emotions. Precise recognition of one's own and others' moods; control over emotions; response with the most appropriate, enduring emotions and behaviour in various life situations and conditions. This especially relates to stress and difficult situations and balancing of honest expression of emotions aligned with courtesy, thoughtfulness and respect. This includes the possession of good social skills and communication skills.

There have been three largely popular approaches to emotional intelligence, Bar-On, Goleman, and Mayer & Salovey. “Each theory has been put forward in an attempt to better understand and explain the skills, traits and abilities associated with social and emotional intelligence,” (Emmerling, Goleman, 2003). “While there might be some agreement between advocates of the concept at a macro level, one does not have to look far before disagreements appear. Some authors describe Emotional intelligence as an intelligence, others see it as a trait, perhaps linked to personality or as a set of
competencies or even as something similar to a coping strategy,” (Smewing, 2004). While these three approaches have somewhat different measures, all of them seek to understand how emotions are used and if used appropriately, can increase success when dealing with others. “The existence of several theoretical viewpoints within the emotional intelligence paradigm does not indicate a weakness but rather the robustness of the field,” (Emmerling, Goleman, 2003).

A problem many organizations have today is that emotional intelligence is not regarded as a significant skill in their working environment. Organizations constantly accrue the cost of training new employees because of retention problems. Emotional intelligence is not defined or understood in many human resources departments. “Many managers are not aware of how to assess emotional intelligence of their staff members or the job applicants,” (Fleming, 1999). Countless people are unfamiliar with the different traits that make up the term emotional intelligence. According to Miller, “The components of Emotional intelligence - self awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills are the qualities of a well-rounded person” (1999). Thus, if recruiting professionals measured the emotional intelligence of job applicants, doing so could help in finding people who would fit well in their work environment.

Goleman (1998) notes the following: Since emotional intelligence is not nearly as great a factor as Intelligence quotient in selection for entering
such fields, there is more variation in this “soft” domain than there is in Intelligence quotient among these professionals. The difference between those at the high and low ends of the emotional intelligence scale is very large and being at the top confers a major competitive advantage. Thus, “soft” skills matter even more for success in ‘hard’ fields.

Emotional intelligence is a skill that can be learned and improved. “Simply being high in emotional intelligence does not guarantee that a person will have learned the emotional competencies that matter for work; it means only that they have excellent potential to learn them” (Goleman, 1998). Thus, training and development of emotional intelligence in organizations must be taken seriously for it to be effective.

Emotional intelligence is a combination of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. These are also the skills people are able to work on and improve upon, if they take the time. “Emotional intelligence is not a journey with a clear path, not one that should be embarked upon lightly,” (Smewing, 2004).

These five skills were the recurring Emotional intelligence qualities in most of the research. These skills are discussed in greater detail below:

**Self-awareness** is the ability to recognize and understand personal moods and emotions. This skill is essential for anyone in a working environment who has to deal with people. “Emotional awareness stars with attunement to the stream
of feeling that is a constant presence in all of us and with a recognition of how these emotions share what we perceive, think and do. From that awareness comes another one: that our feelings affect those we deal with,” (Goleman, 1998). To be able to react appropriately in working situations with another person, people need to be able to know how to express their emotions and understand when and why they get any type of emotion. Each person should know themselves well enough to assume they will act a certain way when a situation that produces similar emotions comes up at work. This skill is helpful for people when they get frustrated or stressed.

**Self-regulation** is the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods and to suspend judgment and think before acting. “The principle of remaining clam despite provocation applies to anyone who routinely faces obnoxious or agitated people on the job,” (Goleman, 1998). People in jobs with any type of service aspect could benefit from learning how to better self-regulate. Lawyers, doctors, customer service representatives, are some of the many occupations where it could be advantageous to be familiar with this skill.

**Motivation** is a passion to work for reasons that go beyond money and status. Having the ability to motivate one-self is a great ability for any leader or future leader to know. People usually believe in the people that motivate them to get something done or to start something new. This person is also usually good at looking at the big picture and explaining their thoughts to others. Usually excitement and optimism are also strong in people that are
great at motivating. “They are persistent with their questions about why things are done one way rather than another; they are eager to explore new approaches to their work,” (Goleman, Harvard Business Review, 1998). People who are motivated are usually very committed to their work and organizations and are proud when they have completed a job well done.

**Empathy** is the ability to understand the emotional make up of other people, a skill that may be used in treating people according to their emotional reactions. “For a leader it doesn’t mean adopting other people’s emotions as one’s own and trying to please everybody. Rather, empathy means thoughtfully considering employees’ feelings in the process of making intelligent decisions. A team’s leader must be able to sense and understand the viewpoints of everyone around the table, (Goleman, Harvard Business Review, 1998). Empathy is also important for leaders to have when dealing with retention of great employees. It is vital to be able to understand what the effective, hard-working people around need to stay with the company.

**Social skills** often ensure proficiency in managing relationships and building networks and enhance an ability to find common ground and build rapport with others. Goleman (Harvard Business Review, 1998) explains social skills as friendliness with a purpose: moving people in the direction that you desire, whether that’s agreement on a new marketing strategy or enthusiasm about a new product. Like emotional intelligence, social skills entail more than just being friendly. It is more about knowing how to talk to different
people within an organization to get to the same goal. They are able to build
bonds with all different types of people so everyone understands each other
when something comes up in an organization. “The leader’s task is to get work
done through other people, and social skill makes that possible” (Goleman,

The Significance of Emotional Intelligence at Workplace

Work rules are in a constant state of flux with new yardsticks by which
employees are being evaluated. In today’s corporate world it is increasingly
being recognized that impressive curriculum vitae, good credentials and
technical expertise does not have the desired impact in someone with low
Emotional intelligence (EI). The workplace is about people and relationships
and an employee with a high Emotional intelligence as opposed to only a high
Intelligence quotient (IQ) should be seen as a valuable asset.

Emotional Intelligence is extremely useful at work. Most workplaces
rely on different people working together to create a product or service. The
workplace is not “all business.” It is a social network and as such, it is a
hotbed of emotions, egos, stress and conflict. Emotional Intelligence can help
you develop robust relationships, solve problems using both logic and feelings,
maintain an optimistic and positive outlook, cultivate flexibility in stressful
situations, help others express their needs, respond to difficult people and
situations calmly and thoughtfully and respond to change with grace and calm.
Many people assume that a high IQ is more important than high EI skills. While both are important, many studies show that EI is a much more accurate determinant for success and career growth than technical skills or a high IQ. Today's workplaces are fast moving and full of change. The ability to roll with the punches is huge. You'll get the best out of your employees if you create an emotionally intelligent workplace and you'll be a better employer or leader if you use your EI.

Emotional Intelligence really comes into play when it comes to managing and dealing with difficult people, including customers, employees, colleagues and bosses. Your ability to understand and empathize goes a long way. EI is important for managing change, understanding the political landscape for a new project, dealing well with setbacks or workplace obstacles, motivating and influencing others and working with or for a team with different personalities.

Emotional intelligence is indeed significant in the workplace and is not only limited to it being a desirable quality in employees. Its uses are varied. Other examples of using Emotional intelligence include the following (Foote: 2001):

- Recruitment: Emotional intelligence measurement is invaluable in selecting and recruiting “desirable, high-performance workers”.
- Predicting performance: Some companies are blending Intelligence quotient testing with scientific measurement of Emotional intelligence
to predict job performance and direct workers to jobs where they are most likely to succeed.

- Negotiation: Whether you’re dealing with a trading partner, competitor, customer or colleague, being able to empathize and be creative in finding win-win solutions will consistently pay off.

- Performance management: 360-degree feedback is a common tool for assessing Emotional intelligence. Knowing how your self-perception compares with others’ views about your performance provides focus for career development and positive behavioural changes.

- Peer relationships: Good networking skills are a staple of job effectiveness for the average worker. Networking has too often been associated with “using” other people, but a heightened Emotional intelligence ensures a mutually beneficial approach to others.

Emotional intelligence is a set of competencies, which direct and control one's feelings towards work and performance at work. The set of competencies is the ability of the individual being to control and manage his or her moods and impulses, which contribute to best of situational outcomes. Understanding one’s own moods and impulses of others or any situation helps one to respond and behave accordance with expectations. In a work situation workers effective use of skill and knowledge in time depends on the effective regulation of emotions at work and his readiness to contribute to best in their target accomplishment. Knowing one's emotions and feelings as they occur,
and tuning one's self to the charged situation, requires the emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity that determine the success of adaptability and adjustment with the change scenario. In a work situation, since it involves group of people with different ideas, suggestions and opinions, effective conglomeration of all these determine the best outcome. Thus the emotional intelligence plays a significant role at work.

**Optimism**

Optimism is the propensity to look at the bright side of any situation and expect the best possible outcome from any series of events. People who feel optimism live their lives expecting positive outcomes and events. Optimism is powerfully motivational; optimism is one of the cornerstones of success.

Optimism is "an inclination to put the most favorable construction upon actions and events or to anticipate the best possible outcome". It is the philosophical opposite of pessimism. Optimists generally believe that people and events are inherently good, so that most situations work out in the end for the best.

Alternatively, some optimists believe that regardless of the external world or situation, one should choose to feel good about it and make the most of it. This kind of optimism doesn't say anything about the quality of the external world; it's an internal optimism about one's own feelings.
A common conundrum illustrates optimism-versus-pessimism with the question; does one regard a given glass of water, filled to half its capacity, as half full or half empty? Conventional wisdom expects optimists to reply, "Half full," and pessimists to respond, "Half empty" (assuming that "full" is considered good, and "empty", bad).

Another paradox sometimes associated with optimism is that the only thing an optimist cannot view as positive is a pessimist. Pessimism, however, as it acts as a check to recklessness, may even then be viewed in a positive light.

Optimism is an aspect of cognition (how one’s mind works, or how one thinks) and as part of one’s personality. In the first half of the twentieth century, prominent psychologists such as Sigmund Freud and the developmental psychologist Erik Erikson established the idea of optimism as an innate human characteristic. They also argued, however, that optimism was in essence a human characteristic to be controlled and guarded against because it encouraged the illusion of positive outcomes that could not always be demonstrated in real life. Being optimistic, they insisted, was dangerous for one’s mental well-being because it encouraged a skewed perception of reality. Following this idea psychologists of the early twentieth century initially discouraged ‘looking on the bright side’ in favor of a more measured, if slightly gloomier and pragmatic outlook on the world. Similarly, therapists encouraged patients to think realistically, shunning the idea that optimistic thinking in itself could lead to positive outcomes.
In the second half of the twentieth century, in contrast, an increasingly large body of psychological research related to optimism and mental health began to move away from this negative perspective, instead focusing on the positive impact of optimism for well-being in many different aspects of life – from mental and physical health to job satisfaction and emotional balance. Psychologists began to argue that people are naturally inclined to think about life in a positive way, regardless of the objective evidence that might suggest otherwise. This, they suggested, was essentially a ‘good thing’ because it motivated us to achieve positive outcomes. We continue to think positively, for example, about the idea of marriage, despite the increasing rate of divorce. Similarly, people generally underplay the likelihood of contracting particular diseases despite the statistical probability of this occurring. In a seminal study of attitudes among smokers conducted by the psychologist Neil Weinstein, for example, participants regularly considered themselves less likely than the average smoker to contract lung cancer, in spite of evidence to the contrary.

This positive outlook on optimism remains popular among psychologists today, although most also recognize that optimism can be experienced in varying degrees, not all of which are beneficial to one’s mental well-being. In her book *Positive Illusions: Creative Self-Deception and the Healthy Mind*, for example, the UCLA psychologist Shelley Taylor points to the important difference between *illusion* and *delusion* in optimistic thought. While positive self-deception (our ability to remember selectively the best bits of our lives)
can have beneficial outcomes, this is only the case when such illusions are based in some way on reality. When we begin to *delude* ourselves about completely unrealistic positive future outcomes, optimism – what we refer to below as *delusional optimism* – can begin to have a negative effect on mental and emotional well-being. Similarly, a measured realism or pessimism might complement our natural tendency towards looking on the bright side, while an overwhelmingly negative outlook on the future is often associated with various forms of depression and mental health issues.

Optimism plays an important role in the human experience, either a) as a positive aspect of thinking about the future and achieving goals, b) as a negative influence on unrealistic hopes and aspirations, or c) in its absence, as the missing psychological element leading to depression and over-riding pessimism.

**Learned Optimism**

The psychologist Martin Seligman has championed the field of *learned* optimism, or the process by which the less optimistic individuals can train their minds to seek out positive outcomes for the future. This, he suggests, involves a positive move against *learned helplessness* or the tendency to think pessimistically when faced with successive negative situations in which one appears to have no control over outcomes. Pessimists, Seligman argues, are prone to blaming themselves for bad things, while optimists are naturally
inclined to be less affected by negative events, recognizing the possible external factors involved. By using his positive thinking techniques, Seligman suggests, optimism can be learned in order to improve mental well-being (which, ironically, implies that pessimists are rather optimistic about the curative powers of Seligman’s solution to their negative thinking).

Whether or not people can be divided into such clearly identifiable, innate categories of ‘optimist’ and ‘pessimist’ remains debatable, as does the notion that optimistic thoughts can quite so easily be traced back to a particular part of the brain. The idea of optimism as an innate human quality, however, is certainly an interesting one. Taking an evolutionary perspective some social scientists, including optimism expert and SIRC advisor Dr. Lionel Tiger, suggest that ‘hard-wired’ optimism is one of the distinguishing factors that has allowed humans to progress and evolve. He argues that it is Man’s inability to assess risks accurately – our tendency to think that we are better than we really are – that allows us to be innovative, creative and adventurous.

The power of positive thinking is to assume the best and, by virtue of taking this chance, to advance our hopes or aspirations which, in the final analysis, enables us to evolve. Without this rather self-aggrandizing and reckless aspect of our socio-biological make-up we would not have taken the risk to climb down from the trees, settle in agrarian communities, or mess around with dangerous things such as steam, electricity or computer chips. Of
course, taking these chances still involves an assessment of risk of some kind and overcoming fears about failure, defeat and individual or social disadvantage.

Tiger, L. (1985) suggests that optimism became an important part of human life at the point when we began to develop a perception of future time and, as a result, of our own mortality as well. In order to counteract the rather depressing inevitability of our own deaths we began to favor positive, optimistic thinking as a way of visualizing future events. This also becomes an important aspect of social organization as individual members must share, or be coerced into sharing, in a common goal for the future in order for society to function. The division of labour and the organization of resources are in this sense tied up in important ways with the ability to think positively about the outcomes of a communal activity that, in the short-run at least, might not seem the most beneficial option for a particular individual.

**Socially contagious optimism**

Thinking about optimism as a social phenomenon also allows us to consider how people experience optimism in relation to the people around them. This can be seen at a national level in terms of different aspects of social life, from collective or contagious optimism about the political future to the national economy, to sports, weather, the impact of the media, etc. On a smaller scale, optimism plays an integral role in our social interactions with others, from motivating or being motivated by colleagues at work to nurturing positive social exchanges with friends or family.
The learned aspect of optimism was linked in focus group discussions to the notion of optimism being socially ‘contagious’ – that optimistic people are able to ‘infect’ others with their positive outlook of the future. The national poll data confirmed this view with nearly 60% of respondents taking the view that optimistic people can make those around them optimistic as well. A further 40%, however, noted that pessimism could also be ‘contagious’ in this sense. In line with these poll data, most focus group participants agreed that both optimism and pessimism could be contagious, but optimism rather more so.

The Significance of Optimism at Workplace

Optimism in the workplace involves not only expecting positive outcomes but also explaining them in a manner coherent with such outcomes. Leading others with optimism means dealing with the chaos of uncertainty by formulating a successful expectation despite the uncertainty. Life is full of uncertainty and that's as true for the workplace as it is for any aspect of life. Optimistic leaders have a strong perceived sense of self-efficacy; they believe in their teams as well. Uncertainty for the pessimist can lead to "paralysis of analysis," so worried about the uncertain details that there is more fear than courage. The optimist, on the other hand, takes charge and "creates" success out of uncertainty.

- Optimism convinces us our actions matter, we matter. Optimists believe that what we do can make a difference. We become more motivated to make changes that affect our world for the better.
Introduction

- Optimists feel like the captains of their own ships. Instead of being tossed about in the rudderless boat of life, they are confident they can navigate the stormiest seas. Their confidence leads to perseverance.

- Optimists persevere. In her book, Half Empty, Half Full, Susan C. Vaughan explains that by persevering, even in the face of adversity, optimists increase the chances of their success, thereby creating yet more optimism. Since others respond positively to them, optimists enjoy further advantages in work, love and play.

- Optimists are patient. They are able to work steadily towards a goal, confident they are inching closer with every step they take.

- Optimists look for a more meaningful explanation.

- Optimists are more resilient. They experience many of the problems and tragedies everyone experiences, but they’re never afraid they’ll get trapped in a state of unhappiness. They may suffer the death of a loved one, but instead of focusing solely on the loss, they’re able to see the spirit of that loved one all around them, and to celebrate his or her life

- Optimists are proactive. They make choices about the way they feel and the actions they take. They see problems as opportunities for positive change, and take steps to effect that change. Ann Kramer, an educator and counselor and the author of Life Puzzle –Putting the Pieces Together, explains that optimists are aware of their inner state, whether
physical, emotional, rational, sexual or spiritual. “As a result,” she says, “their “self” is able to make proactive, conscious choices in managing their inner states.”

- Optimism feels better! You enjoy life more. You spend more time feeling involved with the world around you, more time laughing, more time enjoying yourself. Even if your pleasures are simple, they seem to have greater richness, depth and meaning.

- Less Stress: Optimists also tend to experience less stress than pessimists or realists. Because they believe in themselves and their abilities, they expect good things to happen. They see negative events as minor setbacks to be easily overcome, and view positive events as evidence of further good things to come. Believing in themselves, they also take more risks and create more positive events in their lives.

**Self-Efficacy**

**Self-efficacy** has been defined as the belief that one is capable of performing in a certain manner to attain certain goals, as a person’s belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. It is a belief that one has the capabilities to execute the courses of actions required to manage prospective situations. Unlike efficacy, which is the power to produce an effect (in essence, competence), self-efficacy is the belief (whether or not accurate) that
one has the power to produce that effect by completing a given task or activity related to that competency. For example, a person with high self-efficacy may engage in a more health-related activity when an illness occurs, whereas a person with low self-efficacy would harbor feelings of hopelessness.

Two decades have now passed since Bandura (1977) first introduced the construct of self-efficacy with the seminal publication of "Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change." A decade later, Bandura (1986) situated the construct within a social cognitive theory of human behaviour that diverged from the prevalent cognitivism of the day and embedded cognitive development within a socio-structural network of influences. More recently, Bandura (1997) published Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control, in which he further situated self-efficacy within a theory of personal and collective agency that operates in concert with other socio-cognitive factors in regulating human well-being and attainment. In this volume, Bandura also addressed the major facets of agency -- the nature and structure of self-efficacy beliefs, their origins and effects, the processes through which such self-beliefs operate and the modes by which they can be created and strengthened.

Psychologist Albert Bandura has defined Self-efficacy as one's belief in one's ability to succeed in specific situations. One's sense of Self-efficacy can play a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges. The concept of Self-efficacy lies at the center of Bandura’s social cognitive theory
which emphasizes the role of observational learning and social experience in the development of personality. The main concept in social cognitive theory is that an individual’s actions and reaction in almost every situation is influenced by the actions that individual has observed in others. People observe others acting within an environment whether natural or social. These observations are remembered by an individual and help shape social behaviour and cognitive processes. This theoretical approach purposes the idea that by changing how an individual learns their behaviour in the early stages of mental development could have a large impact on their mental processes in later stages of development. Since Self-efficacy is developed from external experiences and self-perception and is influential in determining the outcome of many events, it is an important aspect of social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy represents the personal perception of external social factors. According to Bandura’s theory, people with high self-efficacy—that is, those who believe they can perform well—are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided.

Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their
capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression.

In contrast, people who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks. Because they view insufficient performance as deficient aptitude it does not require much failure for them to lose faith in their capabilities. They fall easy victim to stress and depression.
Sources of Self-Efficacy

The case for the contextual and meditational role of self-efficacy in human behaviour can be made by exploring the four sources from which these beliefs are developed. The originator of the theory, Albert Bandura names four sources of efficacy beliefs.

1) Mastery Experiences:

The first and foremost source of Self-efficacy is through mastery experiences. However nothing is more powerful than having a direct experience of mastery to increase self-efficacy. To have a resilient sense of self-efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through effort and perseverance.
It is the most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy. Successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy. Failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established.

If people experience only easy successes they come to expect quick results and are easily discouraged by failure. A resilient sense of efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. Some setbacks and difficulties in human pursuits serve a useful purpose in teaching that success usually requires sustained effort. After people become convinced they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks. By sticking it out through tough times, they emerge stronger from adversity.

2) **Vicarious Experiences**

The second way of creating and strengthening self-beliefs of efficacy is through the vicarious experiences provided by social models. Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities to master comparable activities required to succeed. By the same token, observing others' fail despite high effort lowers observers' judgments of their own efficacy and undermines their efforts. The impact of modeling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models. The greater the assumed similarities the more persuasive are the models' successes and failures. If people see the
models as very different from themselves their perceived self-efficacy is not much influenced by the models' behaviour and the results its produces.

3) **Verbal Persuasion**

It is the third way of strengthening people's beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. Influential people in our lives such as parents, teachers, managers or coaches can strengthen our beliefs that we have what it takes to succeed. Being persuaded that we possess the capabilities to master certain activities means that we are more likely to put in the effort and sustain it when problems arise.

People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when problems arise. To the extent that persuasive boosts in perceived self-efficacy lead people to try hard enough to succeed, they promote development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy.

4) **Emotional and Physiological States**

The state you're in will influence how you judge your self-efficacy. Depression, for example, can dampen confidence in our capabilities. Stress reactions or tension are interpreted as signs of vulnerability to poor performance whereas positive emotions can boost our confidence in our skills.
Successful efficacy builders do more than convey positive appraisals. In addition to raising people's beliefs in their capabilities, they structure situations for them in ways that bring success and avoid placing people in situations prematurely where they are likely to fail often. They measure success in terms of self-improvement rather than by triumphs over others.

People also rely partly on their somatic and emotional states in judging their capabilities. They interpret their stress reactions and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance. In activities involving strength and stamina, people judge their fatigue, aches and pains as signs of physical debility. Mood also affects people's judgments of their personal efficacy. Positive mood enhances perceived self-efficacy, despondent mood diminishes it.

Psychologist James Maddux has suggested a fifth route to self-efficacy through "imaginal experiences", the art of visualizing you behaving effectively or successfully in a given situation.

The Significance of Self-efficacy at Workplace

Bandura devotes considerable attention to the workplace in his groundbreaking book, Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control. More recently, he provided an extensive review of the growing body of research dealing with the direct and indirect influence of self-efficacy on work-related personal and organizational effectiveness (Bandura, 2004). This research review of the impact of self-efficacy includes a wide range of topics such as training and
development, teaming (i.e., collective efficacy), change and innovation, leadership, and stress. From this considerable body of theory and research on self-efficacy, the following managerial and organizational implications are provided (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2011; Luthans, Yuussef, & Avolio, 2007):

- **Selection/Promotion Decisions**
  Organizations should select individuals who have high levels of self-efficacy. These people will be motivated to engage in the behaviours that will help them perform well in the workplace. A measure of self-efficacy can be administered during the hiring/promotion process.

- **Training and Development**
  Organizations should consider employee levels of self-efficacy when choosing among candidates for training and development programs. If the training budget is limited, then greater return (i.e., job performance) on training investment can be realized by sending only those employees high in self-efficacy. These people will tend to learn more from the training and, ultimately, will be more likely to use that learning to enhance their job performance.

- **Goal Setting and Performance**
  Organizations can encourage higher performance goals from employees who have high levels of self-efficacy. This will lead to higher levels of job
performance from employees, which is critical for many organizations in an era of high competition.

Self-efficacy helps us to identify what we have achieved – at work or in other areas of our life. It makes us look at what we have done and acknowledge that we have skills, and that we are valuable. It helps to identify our comfort zone, the boundaries of our skills and do we lose our self confidence or not. For example, we may be happy speaking in front of colleagues at a staff meeting, but not at a conference of 500 people. It helps us to find ways to apply the skills we have to the boundaries of our comfort zone in order to extend it out further. It list ways that we could improve in specific areas by developing new skills. It aims to put our self in the situations in manageable ways in order to increase our comfort zone without being too stressed.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) are a special type of work behaviour that are defined as individual behaviour that are beneficial to the organization and are discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system. These behaviours are rather a matter of personal choice, such that their omission is not generally understood as punishable. OCBs are thought to have an important impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of work teams and organizations, therefore contributing to the overall productivity of the organization.
Organizational citizenship behaviour has been linked to overall organizational effectiveness, thus these types of employee behaviours have important consequences in the workplace. It implies more of a "good soldier" or "good citizen" syndrome of doing things that are "right and proper", but doing them for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons.

Dennis Organ is generally considered the father of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Organ expanded upon Katz's (1964) original work. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is a unique aspect of individual activity at work, first mentioned in the early 1980s. According to Organ's (1988) definition, it represents "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization". This special behaviour has become a lively research field investigated by organizational sociologists, psychologists, and management researchers. However, whereas most of the studies appear to deal with the phenomenon from a behavioural-functional perspective the natural orientation of citizenship to the political science arena is overlooked.
Organ’s definition of OCB includes three critical aspects that are central to this construct. First, OCBs are thought of as discretionary behaviours, which are not part of the job description, and are performed by the employee as a result of personal choice. Second, OCBs go above and beyond that which is an enforceable requirement of the job description. Finally, OCBs contribute positively to overall organizational effectiveness.

Organ’s (1988) definition of OCB has generated a great deal of criticism. The very nature of the construct makes it difficult to operationally define. Critics started questioning whether or not OCBs, as defined by Organ, were discretionary in nature. Organ (1997), in response to criticisms, notes that since his original definition, jobs have moved away from a clearly defined set of tasks and responsibilities and have evolved into much more ambiguous roles. Without a defined role, it quickly becomes difficult to define what is.

The construct of OCB, from its conception, has been considered multidimensional. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) first proposed two dimensions: altruism and general compliance. These two dimensions serve to improve organizational effectiveness in different ways. Altruism in the workplace consists essentially of helping behaviours. These behaviours can both be directed within or outside of the organization. There is no direct link, or one-to-one relationship, between every instance of helping behaviour and a specific gain for the organization. The idea is that over time, the compilation
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of employees helping behaviour will eventually be advantageous for the organization (Organ et al., 2006).

General compliance behaviour serves to benefit the organization in several ways. Low rates of absenteeism and rule following help to keep the organization running efficiently. A compliant employee does not engage in behaviours such as taking excessive breaks or using work time for personal matters. When these types of behaviours are minimized the workforce is naturally more productive.

Later, Organ (1988) deconstructed the dimension of general compliance and added additional dimensions of OCB. This deconstruction resulted in a five-factor model consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The definition of altruism remained much as it was, defined by discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific work colleague with an organizationally relevant task or problem. Conscientiousness consists of behaviours that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization (Law, Wong, & Chen, 2005). These behaviours indicate that employees accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization.

Civic virtue is characterized by behaviours that indicate the employee’s deep concerns and active interest in the life of the organization (Law et al., 2005). This dimension also encompasses positive involvement in
the concerns of the organization (Organ et al., 2006). Examples of civic virtue can be seen in daily affairs such as attending meetings and keeping up with what is going on with the organization in general. Civic virtue can also be demonstrated on a larger scale by defending the organization’s policies and practices when they are challenged by an outside source.

![Image of a group of people]

**Courtes y** has been defined as discretionary behaviours that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with others (Law et al., 2005). This dimension is a form of helping behaviour, but one that works to prevent problems from arising. It also includes the word’s literal definition of being polite and considerate of others (Organ et al., 2006). Examples of courteous behaviours are asking fellow employees if they would like a cup of coffee while you are getting one for yourself, making extra copies of the meeting agenda for your teammates, and giving a colleague ample notice when you alter something that will affect them.
Finally, **sportsmanship** has been defined as willingness on the part of the employee that signifies the employee’s tolerance of less-than-ideal organizational circumstances without complaining and blowing problems out of proportion. Organ further define sportsmanship as an employee’s “ability to roll with the punches” even if they do not like or agree with the changes that are occurring within the organization (Organ et al. 2006). By reducing the amount of complaints from employees that administrators have to deal with, sportsmanship conserves time and energy.

It has been proven empirically that the factors listed above are the most robust and distinct factors in assessing OCB. However, in a meta-analysis of the OCB literature, LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) found that these five dimensions are very highly correlated and to not have much differentiation among antecedents, indicating some overlap in the dimensions.

Currently, OCB is conceptualized as synonymous with the concept of contextual performance, defined as ‘performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place’ (Organ, 1997). While this reflects the flexible nature of workers’ roles in the modern workplace, and acknowledges the fact that employees do get recognized and rewarded for engaging in OCB (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000; Werner, 1994), the colloquial understanding of OCB as going ‘the extra mile’ or ‘above and beyond’ to help others at work is an idea that many are familiar
with, and these ideas continue to be a popular way of conceptualizing OCB. Typical examples of OCB include offering to help a newcomer become familiar with his/her role and the office, a colleague who may be struggling with deadlines, or volunteering to change shifts. Importantly, OCB also encompasses organizational-related acts such as working overtime without (expectation of) remuneration, or volunteering to organize office-wide functions.

**Organizational Citizenship Behaviour in Practice:** Encouraging OCB in the workplace.

The antecedents of OCB can be used as guidelines to improve the rate of OCB – through motivating employees for example or promoting better relationships between supervisors and staff and among staff in general.

- **Social environment of office**

  Certain types of group norms (e.g. everyone should only do the minimum amount of work required, everyone should mind his/her own business, no one should talk to the supervisor) can stifle worker initiative and spontaneity and this will decrease incidents of OCB. Group norms may be difficult to break but other things can be done to make workers more social – such as encouraging staff to attend office functions or having more office functions, or office-wide birthday lunches.
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• **Supervisor awareness**

Training or educating management about OCB will make them more aware of employee displays of OCB. They may choose to include OCB in their performance appraisals, or devise their own casual/informal reward system to encourage OCB.

• **Hiring practices**

Though the impact of personality on OCB is small, an outgoing, attentive, enthusiastic employee with a positive outlook and ‘can do’ attitude will be more inclined to engage in OCB. If psychometric testing is a part of your interview/hiring process, consider looking out for traits related to OCB and have these staff motivate others to perform OCB.

The Significance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour at Workplace

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has been shown to have a positive impact on employee performance and wellbeing, and this in turn has noticeable flow-on effects on the organization. Benefits from organizational citizenship behaviour that can be instrumental in organizational success are as follows:

• Increased efficiency of management and employees.

• Releasing organizational resources that can be utilized for more industrious purposes

• Reduced needs to allocate scarce resources for functions that only maintain the status quo
• Helping coordinating activities within and outside work groups
• Increased organizational ability to recruit and retain efficient employee
• Increased sustainability of organizational performance
• Improved effectiveness and efficiency of organizational performance

(Organ, 1990; 1998; Ryan, 2002).

The correlations between OCB and job satisfaction is approximately 0.4 (Organ, 1988). There is empirical evidence for the widely-held belief that satisfied workers perform better, but this is co-relational, not causal. However, certain types of performance – primarily those related to citizenship behaviour – will be affected by job satisfaction. Think of workers who are co-operative with their superiors and colleagues, willing to make compromises and sacrifices and are ‘easier to work with’, workers who ‘help out with the extra little things’ without complaining (or even offering to do so without being asked) – these behaviours are all encompassed within OCB.

The effects on employee performance are threefold. Firstly, workers who engage in OCB tend to receive better performance ratings by their managers (Podsakoff et al., 2009). This could be because employees who engage in OCB are simply liked more and perceived more favourably (this has become known as the ‘halo effect’), or it may be due to more work-related reasons such as the manager’s belief that OCB plays a significant role in the organization’s overall success, or perception of OCB as a form of employee
commitment due to its voluntary nature (Organ et al., 2006). Regardless of the reason, the second effect is that a better performance rating is linked to gaining rewards (Podsakoff et al., 2009) – such as pay increments, bonuses, promotions or work-related benefits. Thirdly, because these employees have better performance ratings and receive greater rewards, when the company is downsizing e.g. during an economic recession, these employees will have a lower chance of being made redundant (Organ et al., 2006).

Citizenship behaviours come in many distinct shapes and forms. Traditionally thought of as the worker who ‘goes above and beyond’ the minimum requirements, it can also be the employee who takes the initiative and always offers to lend a hand; the knowledgeable, helpful and cooperative colleague; the senior staff member who is able to roll with the punches; or the friendly, approachable manager who shows the new employees around the office and introduces them to other staff. All of these types of OCB should be actively encouraged – employees support the organization through enhancing each other’s performance and well-being and this is reflected in reduced costs and increased profitability at the organizational level.

Quality of Work Life

The success of any organization depends on how it attracts, recruits, motivates and retains its workforce. Organizations need to be more flexible so that they develop their talented workforce and gain their commitment. Thus,
organizations are required to retain employees by addressing their work life issues.

Quality of Work Life was the term actually introduced in the late 1960’s. From that period till now the term is gaining more and more importance everywhere, at every work place. Initially quality of work life was focusing on the effects of employment on the general well being and the health of the workers. But now its focus has been changed. Every organization needs to give good environment to their workers including all financial and non financial incentives so that they can retain their employees for the longer period and for the achievement of the organization’s goals and quality of working. The term Quality of Work Life refers to the favourableness or unfavourableness of a total job environment for people.

Quality of work life (QWL) is viewed as an alternative to the control approach of managing people. The Quality of Work Life approach considers people as an ‘asset’ to the organization rather than as ‘costs'. It believes that people perform better when they are allowed to participate in managing their work and make decisions.

This approach motivates people by satisfying not only their economic needs but also their social and psychological ones. To satisfy the new generation workforce, organizations need to concentrate on job designs and organization of work. Further, today's workforce is realizing the importance of relationships and is trying to strike a balance between career and personal lives.
Successful organizations support and provide facilities to their people to help them to balance the scales. In this process, organizations are coming up with new and innovative ideas to improve the quality of work and quality of work life of every individual in the organization. Various programs like flex time, alternative work schedules, compressed work weeks, telecommuting etc., are being adopted by these organizations.

Technological advances further help organizations to implement these programs successfully. Organizations are enjoying the fruits of implementing Quality of Work Life programs in the form of increased productivity and an efficient, satisfied and committed workforce which aims to achieve organizational objectives. The future work world will also have more women entrepreneurs and they will encourage and adopt Quality of Work Life programs.

Quality of Work Life programs can be evaluated on the basis of following points:

- **Fair compensation and job security**: The economic interests of people drive them to work at a job and employee satisfaction depends at least partially, on the compensation offered. Pay should be fixed on the basis of the work done, responsibilities undertaken, individual skills, performance and accomplishments. Job security is another factor that is of concern to employees. Permanent employment provides security to the employees and improves their Quality of Work Life.
• **Health is wealth:** Organizations should realize that their true wealth lies in their employees and so providing a healthy work environment for employees should be their primary objective.

• **Provide personal and career growth opportunities:** An organization should provide employees with opportunities for personal/professional development and growth and to prepare them to accept responsibilities at higher levels.

• **Participative management style and recognition:** Flat organizational structures help organizations facilitate employee participation. A participative management style improves the quality of work life. Workers feel that they have control over their work processes and they also offer innovative ideas to improve them. Recognition also helps to motivate employees to perform better. Recognition can be in the form of rewarding employees for jobs well done.

• **Work-life balance:** Organizations should provide relaxation time for the employees and offer tips to balance their personal and professional lives. They should not strain employee’s personal and social life by forcing on them demanding working hours, overtime work, business travel, untimely transfers etc.

• **Fun at workplace:** This is growing trend adopted by today’s organizations to make their offices a fun place to work.
The aim of Quality of Work Life is to identify and implement alternative programs to improve the quality of professional as well as personal life of an organization’s employees.

As the work culture changes drastically in the recent years, the traditional concept of work to fulfil humans’ basic needs are also facing out. The basic needs are continued to diversify and change according to the evolution of the work system and standards of living of a workforce.

Generally jobs in the contemporary work environment offer sufficient rewards, benefits, recognition and control to employees over their actions. Although to some extent contemporary workforce are compensated appropriately, their personal spending practices, lifestyles, leisure activities, individual value systems, health and so forth can affect their levels of need. It is similar to the argument posted in the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in which each individual has different level of needs because in reality what is important to some employees may not be important to others although they are being treated equally in the same organization. This definition, focusing on personal needs has neglected the fact that the construct of Quality of work life is subjective and continuously evolves due to an ever growing need of each and every employee.

To summarise, Quality of work life is viewed as a wide-ranging concept, which includes adequate and fair remuneration, safe and healthy working
conditions and social integration in the work organization that enables an individual to develop and use all his or her capacities. Most of the definitions aim at achieving the effective work environment that meets with the organizational and personal needs and values that promote health, well being, job security, job satisfaction, competency development and balance between work and non-work life. The definitions also emphasize the good feeling perceived from the interaction between the individuals and the work environment.

Understanding the nature of work in the contemporary environment, we define Quality of work life as the effectiveness of work environment that transmit to the meaningful organizational and personal needs in shaping the values of the employees that support and promote better health and well-being, job security, job satisfaction, competency development and balance between work and non-work life. This definition quantifies the Quality of work life among professionals with the aim to gain leverage in recruiting, motivating and retaining the valuable professionals as the nature of work continues to diversify.

The factors that influence and decide the Quality of work life are:

**Attitude:** The person who is entrusted with a particular job needs to have sufficient knowledge, required skill and expertise, enough experience, enthusiasm, energy level, willingness to learn new things, dynamism, sense of
belongingness in the organization, involvement in the job, inter personnel relations, adaptability to changes in situation, openness for innovative ideas, competitiveness, zeal, ability to work under pressure, leadership qualities and team-spirit.

**Environment:** The job may involve dealing with customers who have varied tolerance level, preferences, behavioural patterns, level of understanding; or it may involve working with dangerous machines like drilling pipes, cranes, lathe machines, welding and soldering machines or even with animals where maximum safety precautions have to be observed which need lot of concentration, alertness, presence of mind, quick with involuntary actions, synchronization of eyes, hand land body, sometimes high level of patience, tactfulness, empathy and compassion and control over emotions.

**Opportunities:** Some jobs offer opportunities for learning, research, discovery, self development, enhancement of skills, room for innovation, public recognition, exploration, celebrity- status and loads and loads of fame. Others are monotonous, repetitive, dull, routine, no room for improvement and in every sense boring. Naturally the former ones are interesting and very much rewarding also.

**Nature of Job:** Some jobs need soft skills, leadership qualities, intelligence, decision making abilities, abilities to train and extract work from others; other jobs need forethought, vision and yet other jobs need motor skills, perfection
and extreme carefulness. For example, a driller in the oil drilling unit, a diver, a fire-fighter, a traffic policeman, train engine driver, a construction laborer, welder, miner, lathe mechanic have to do dangerous jobs and have to be more alert in order to avoid any loss of limb, or loss of life which is irreparable; where as a pilot, doctor, judge, journalist, have to be more prudent and tactful in handling the situation; a CEO, a professor, a teacher have more responsibility and accountability but safe working environment; a cashier or a security guard cannot afford to be careless in his job as it involves loss of money, property and wealth; a politician or a public figure cannot afford to be careless, for his goodwill and reputation is at stake.

**People:** Almost everyone has to deal with three set of people in the workplace. Those are namely boss, co-workers in the same level and subordinates. Apart from this, some professions need interaction with people like patients, media persons, public, customers, thieves, robbers, physically disabled people, mentally challenged, children, foreign delegates, gangsters, politicians, public figures and celebrities. These situations demand high level of prudence, cool temper, tactfulness, humor, kindness, diplomacy and sensitiveness.

**Stress Level:** All these above mentioned factors are inter-related and inter-dependant. Stress levels need not be directly proportional to the compensation. Stress is of different types – mental stress / physical stress and psychological or emotional stress. A Managing Director of a company will have mental
stress, a laborer will have physical stress, and a psychiatrist will have emotional stress. Mental stress and Emotional stress causes more damage than physical stress.

**Career Prospects:** Every job should offer career development. That is an important factor which decides the **quality of work life.** Status improvement, more recognition from the Management, and appreciations are the motivating factors for anyone to take keen interest in his job. The work atmosphere should be conducive to achieve organizational goal as well as individual development. It is a win – win situation for both the parties; an employee should be rewarded appropriately for his good work, extra efforts, sincerity and at the same time a lethargic and careless employee should be penalized suitably; this will motivate the former to work with more zeal and deter the latter from being so and strive for better performance.

**Challenges:** The job should offer some challenges at least to make it interesting; That enables the employee to upgrade his knowledge and skill and capabilities; whereas the monotony of the job makes a person dull, non-enthusiastic, dissatisfied, frustrating, complacent, initiative – less and uninteresting. Challenge is the fire that keeps the innovation and thrill alive. A well – accomplished challenging job yields greater satisfaction than a monetary perk; it boosts self – confidence also.
**Growth and Development:** If an organization does not give chance for growth and personal development then it is very difficult to retain the talented personnel and also to find new talent with experience and skill.

**Risk Involved and Reward:** Generally reward or compensation is directly proportional to the quantum of work, man-hours, nature and extent of responsibility, accountability, delegated powers, authority of position in the organizational chart, risk involved, level of expected commitment, deadlines and targets, industry, country, demand and supply of skilled manpower and even political stability and economic policies of a nation. Although risk is involved in every job its nature and degree varies in them; all said and done, reward is the key criteria to lure a prospective worker to accept the offer.

A happy and healthy employee will give better turnover, make good decisions and positively contribute to the organizational goal. An assured good **quality of work life** will not only attract young and new talent but also retain the existing experienced talent.