CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Before conducting a research study, it is mandatory to the researcher to get thorough knowledge and deep insight on the focal theme of the study. In order to proceed the research, identifying the problem is more important, this can be identified only after systematic reviewing of various research work contributed by the subject experts and the researcher. Hence, the researcher has collected end number of books related to interpersonal relationship and also collected adequate number of research articles published in reputed journal at national and international level. The main essence of the authors research contributions are presented in the following.

Early group development research had an inherent focus on temporal issues. Both the group dynamics and the phase approach to group problem solving lines of research attempted to describe the evolution of group behaviors throughout the life of the group. The group dynamics tradition, beginning in the 1940s, culminated with synthesizing the work of such researchers. Tuckman (1965)\(^1\) identified forming, storming, norming, and performing as developmental sequences groups in most contexts could be expected to experience.

Wallace (1967)\(^2\) argued that a person’s tendency to enact an interpersonal behavior depends on her ability to perform the behavior (i.e., skill) impacted by the situational context. Especially, an individual may not typically exhibit dominant behavior because they are incapable of such behavior (i.e., they lack the necessary skill) or their ability to dominate is usually inhibited. In other words, an employee may be reluctant to dominate a peer in the presence of a supervisor. Conversely, an employee could be capable of hostile behaviors but may lack the necessary motivation to enact such a
style. The Battery of Interpersonal Capabilities was constructed as a state rating of interpersonal behaviors to eliminate the assumption that an individual only possesses one mode of interpersonal behavior.

Interpersonal behaviors elicit or invite specific types of reactions from another person and vice versa Carson (1969). According to interpersonal theory, a behavior and its most likely reaction are considered complementary. Complementary behaviors are similar in terms of the hostile-friendly axes and reciprocal in terms of the dominant-submissive axes. In this manner, submissive-hostile behaviors invite dominant-hostile responses, whereas dominant-friendly behaviors tend to elicit submissive-friendly responses. The IPC has been supported in more than 40 years of theorizing and psychological research.

Some early theorist Hackman and Morris (1975) postulating that organizational conflict has detrimental consequences for organizational functioning inspired a tradition of investigations which examined the negative impact of conflict. In this tradition, decreases in member satisfaction, member commitment, team productivity, team cohesion, and increases in hostility have each been linked to the presence of conflict. Based on this literature, it was surmised that conflict results in tension, antagonism, and distracts employees from executing their job responsibilities.

Renwick (1975) described conflict as a pervasive aspect of organizations that is often present in dyadic and group relationships, the effects of which can seep into coordination, decision-making, and other important organizational behavior domains.

Cook and Wall (1980) found positive relationships between interpersonal trust and overall job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. They also found a negative relationship between interpersonal trust and self rated anxiety.
Kotter (1982)\(^7\) found that emotional stability, optimism, intelligence, analytical ability, intuition, and finally, the ability to relate interpersonally and professionally to a broad set of business specialists are especially important. Virtually all general managers were both personable and good at building relationships with people. This interpersonal skill helped managers accomplish their mission by communicating and influencing people from diverse backgrounds and in diverse fields.

Seeger (1983)\(^8\) has acknowledged the limitations of static stage models in describing group development over time. The influence of temporal factors on work team contexts represents an important consideration for researchers seeking to examine team variables. Time as a confounding variable in work team research further complicates the context. However, utilization of measurement models that ignore time when evaluating team variables that ebb and flow over time such as conflict, team effectiveness, member satisfaction, or member commitment have the potential to result in oversimplified data and interpretations.

Rainnie (1984)\(^9\) reveals that important note that even within existing research there are considerable differences of opinion and interpretation. Challenges earlier assertions which claim that industrial relations in small firms tend to promote co-operation, mutual respect and moral attachment among owner/managers and their employees. According to him, “industrial harmony” in printing and clothing small firms amounted to nothing more than wishful thinking on behalf of the promoters of this doctrine.

Burns and Bass (1985)\(^10\) expanded on Burns’ idea of transformational and transactional leadership and moved the study into the organizational realm from the political realm. Burns and Bass moved leadership toward a process model that involves high interaction, motivation, and the movement of leader and follower beyond their own self interest to the interest of the larger group, organization or community. It is through this process that leadership is able to address the needs of today’s complex and dynamic organizations and to mobilize knowledge and abilities in people.
In addition, utilization of the Battery of Interpersonal Capabilities Paulhus and Martin (1987)\(^1\), which provides the Functional Flexibility Index, offers multiple advantages over traditional interpersonal style instruments and has the potential to demonstrate an important connection between member interpersonal flexibility and the occurrence of work team conflict.

Gersick (1988)\(^2\) introduced the concept of punctuated equilibrium. to describe temporal phases that emerge in groups characterized by activity and inactivity. In this model, the first meeting for a team results in the construction of a framework for behavioral patterns and assumptions regarding the manner by which the team will approach its project. The initial framework remains intact through the first half of the team project’s life. During the first phase teams may make little visible progress but appear to be operating on inertia instigated from the first meeting. However, an important transition occurs at the midpoint of the team’s project calendar whereby the learning from the first phase becomes crystallized and the team has the opportunity to alter its original framework. The second phase of the team’s project life is also fueled by inertia but is directed by the revised plans crystallized at the midpoint. Toward the end of the project or task, the team makes its final efforts to satisfy external expectations and the consequences generated from choices made at the transition point are realized.

The Inventory of Interpersonal Problems-Circumplex (IIP-C), a later derivation of the original IIP Alden, Wiggins, and Pincus (1990)\(^3\), measure the eight octants of the interpersonal circumplex model but are better described as trait measures. A major limitation of trait ratings of interpersonal style is that an individual is necessarily relegated to one primary mode of interpersonal response irrespective of the situational context. For example, an individual receiving a high rating on the dominance attribute cannot simultaneously receive a high rating on the nurturance attribute. As a result, an individual’s interpersonal flexibility (i.e., the degree to which an individual can enact the
full repertoire of interpersonal behaviors) cannot be accurately determined. Some personality theorists have suggested that personality characteristics are more accurately interpreted as abilities than traits.

A focus on interpersonal exchanges requires a solid knowledge base on which a strong measurement model could be constructed. Interpersonal theory, with a focus on the verbal and nonverbal interactions that occur between individuals, represents a popular and widely generalizable model for understanding interpersonal interactions and behaviors. Two postulates occupy a central role within the theory. The first assumption is that all social interactions can be characterized in terms of specific interpersonal behaviors depicted in the interpersonal circumplex model (IPC). The IPC, serving as a comprehensive model of interpersonal tendencies, seeks to describe social interactions in terms of overt behavioral negotiations Gurtman (1992)\textsuperscript{14}

Within the IPC, interpersonal behaviors can best be characterized as falling within a two dimensional space. The affiliation dimension describes interpersonal behaviors on a continuum of hostile (cold) to friendly (warm), whereas the power or status axis ranges from dominating to submissive behaviors.

Ram (1994)\textsuperscript{15} highlights a detailed account of industrial relations in small firms operating in the clothing industry has further highlighted the simplistic and arbitrary nature of Rainnie's view that working conditions in small businesses are dangerous and autocratic. The author points out that such treatment of the clothing sector are unduly simplistic and fail to pay sufficient attention to the complex, informal and often contradictory nature of workplace relations, even in this most competitive of industries. Importantly, however, research that focused specifically on industrial relations in micro-businesses was conspicuously missing from the specialist literature.
Keaveney (1995) Even though it could be argued that there is a fuzzy line between business and personal relationships given that conflict about business issues often destroys the personal chemistry between individuals, the previous examples indicate that the way the supplier’s representative behaves may be a failure in itself, eliciting negative emotions and leading the customer to exit. This suggests that there is always going to be a better way of treating the customer. It may also mean that the negative emotions arising from business issues may differ in intensity or content depending on how people from the supplier side behave, which may signal that the problematic situation rests on these intense feelings and not on the problem as such.

Attempting to delve deeper into the nature of conflict, undertook a series of studies that attempted to discern which type of conflict and in what context team conflict was beneficial. Jehn (1995) examined the links between group structure (task type, task interdependence, and group norms), conflict type, and group and individual performance in 105 work groups and management teams. The type of task performed by the team (routine versus non-routine) affected the impact of conflict. Task conflict was beneficial for teams focused on non-routine tasks, but detrimental for groups performing routine tasks. A curvilinear relationship was found between task conflict and team performance for non-routine task groups suggesting that task conflict is beneficial only up to a point. Relationship conflict was detrimental regardless of the task.

McGrath Berdahl, and Arrow (1995) defined diversity as ranging from values or gender to interpersonal style. In fact, the inherent interpersonal exchange within the team context has stimulated interest in the moderating impact of interpersonal factors on the relationship of diversity issues with team performance.

Disagreements regarding resource allocation, project procedures, or interpretations of facts are examples of task conflict. Relationship conflict has been defined as discord based on personal or social issues unrelated to the team
Examples of relationship conflict include differences in personal taste, political views, and interpersonal styles. More recently, a third conflict domain has received attention. Process conflict is concerned with how the team performs its work. Divergence of opinion regarding determination of task strategies, delegation of roles or responsibilities, and development of project schedules are representative of process conflict.

Seers et al. (1995) made a distinction between traditional work groups and self-managing teams based on decision influence members are expected to exert. According to these authors, traditional work groups are those in which little decision influence is expected. Conversely, self-managing teams are expected to assume the responsibility for deciding the what and how of team tasks. Various writers have put forth other definitions of work groups and teams.

The concept of interpersonal flexibility, the degree to which an individual can move around. The interpersonal circumplex enacting each of the sixteen behaviors when the situation requires it and the accurate measurement of flexibility occupied a central role within the present investigation. Although several measures of interpersonal style are in existence today, most interpersonal instruments can be categorized as trait or state measures and completely ignore a person’s interpersonal flexibility. According to Wagner, Kiesler, and Schmidt (1995) the most widely utilized measures in interpersonal research are the Interpersonal adjectives Scale.

Scase (1996) an extensive literature review on employee relations in small firms has identified a relatively small number of empirical studies on this pertinent topic. Although there exists an extensive literature on industrial relations in large organisations, the state of knowledge of employee relations in micro-businesses remains very limited.
Brossart, Patton, and Wood (1998)\textsuperscript{23} highlighted the inherent difficulty in examining the stability or course of a group phenomenon over time in any context, particularly when the characteristics of the phenomenon are unknown. In the context of longitudinal data it can be helpful to proceed with an exploratory, descriptive approach that places few demands on the nature of the data (such as normality) followed by additional analyses informed by the descriptive approach. An ideal exploratory approach would not require that the data be normally distributed; it would also be able to deal with nonlinear data and account for intra individual (individual variability) and inter individual (variability between groups of people) differences.

Ford (1998)\textsuperscript{24} the good personal relationship between senior people from the two sides can also be used when the buyer decides to change the supplier. Conflict may also be easier to handle and solve when people interact socially outside the working environment and get closer.

Stewart (1998)\textsuperscript{25} found that it was not the problem per se that made the customer exit but what it signified to him. The attitude of the service provider made the customer feel that his personal integrity was compromised. Moreover, there is a distinction between task conflict and relationship or emotional conflict.

Boote and Pressey (1999)\textsuperscript{26} seem also to suggest the same indicating that close interaction between individuals in each organization encourages the resolution of conflict. These findings suggest that people do not only act as agents of their organisation but they are also human beings with feelings about other people and with the willingness to help and make favours. It has also been shown that the good personal relationship with employees from the supplier side makes the customer more reluctant to leave when they experience unpleasant events.
Dreu, (1999)\textsuperscript{27} found that, a majority of the work team investigations to date have assumed a cross-sectional approach and almost completely ignored the influence of member interpersonal characteristics as antecedents to team conflict. Given the increase in team designs within business and the inherent interpersonal nature of work team tasks, research that explores the connection between interpersonal flexibility and work team conflict from a longitudinal perspective is warranted. A solid understanding of the literature in the work team area coupled with a strong model for explaining interpersonal behavior is needed to provide support for the present study. Toward this end, this chapter systematically reviews classic and contemporary literature regarding work teams, conflict occurrence, and interpersonal theory.

Jehn, Norcraft, and Neale, (1999)\textsuperscript{28} although each of the three conflict types was demonstrated to represent distinct constructs, relationship and task conflict have received the majority of attention within the work team literature. In the present study, the conflict variable was assessed along with multiple other team outcome variables at several time points. The streamlining of survey instruments was of utmost importance. As a result, only relationship and task conflict were assessed at each measurement point. Total conflict was also determined by aggregating participant’s reports of task and relationship conflict at each time.

Social skills are so vital to effectiveness that some have considered it to be a distinct form of intelligence Gardner (1999)\textsuperscript{29}. Along with linguistic, kinesthetic, logical, musical, spatial and naturalist intelligences, two other intelligences that define an individual’s social skill include interpersonal intelligence (one’s ability to interact with others in a positive and effective manner) and intrapersonal intelligence (is one’s ability to understand self).

Matlay (1999)\textsuperscript{30} despite the growing interest in small firms, few academics or practitioners would be prepared to undertake research in this long neglected area due to a number of inherent difficulties. These include
definitional problems, the number and diversity of firms in this sector, standard error margins in the classification and conceptualisation of research samples and access data collection difficulties.

Aspects of team effectiveness abound in the literature. Descriptors of effectiveness have ranged from member satisfaction to subjective leader ratings. Team conflict investigators Alper et al., (2000)\textsuperscript{31} have consistently examined members' attitudes toward the team (i.e., satisfaction and commitment), cohesion, and productivity in relation to the presence and type of conflict. Results from these and other team conflict studies suggest that member attitudes, cohesion, and productivity are reasonable indicators of the team effectiveness construct.

Alesina and Ferrara (2000)\textsuperscript{32} observe that the determinants of trust are rooted in individual and community characteristics. They find that both individual and community characteristics contribute to the choice to trust by the factors that reduce trust: recent traumatic experiences, belonging to a racially discriminated group, low income or educational attainment, and high racial disparity or income inequality in communities. They also find that religious beliefs and ethnic backgrounds do not significantly affect trust. In conclusion, most existing literature focuses on observing the effects of trust, and recently more focus has been directed towards the determinants of trust. In addition, most literature reviews factors that foster low trust among certain groups of individuals. The aim of this paper is also to observe the determinants of trust. However, we control for expectation of trust by others, which is made possible by a model that allows for social interactions. This allows us to examine ways in which trust can be increased to help attain a social equilibrium.

Consistent with Jehn and Chatman (2000)\textsuperscript{33} the present investigation examined the team effectiveness construct by way of team performance, member commitment, and member satisfaction. Team performance was
composed of two separate ratings. First, each member was asked to evaluate her/his team’s effectiveness at each measurement point. In addition, team performance data was also collected from an internal project evaluator. Member commitment was defined as the members’ willingness to remain in their respective team at present and continue with the team in the future. Member satisfaction was represented as a member’s level of satisfaction with his/her team membership. The aforementioned factors have appeared within the team conflict literature and are arguably among the most important indicators of functionality for the majority of task performing work teams.

**Kuhn and Poole (2000)** examined the influence of group conflict management style and effectiveness of decision-making in naturally occurring organizational teams. The examined styles included: avoidant (actively ignoring or shifting focus from conflict), distributive (confronting the other party while actively arguing for one’s own position), and integrative (cooperatively addressing the conflict by attempting to reach a mutually favorable resolution). Results indicated that conflict management styles exert a differential influence on decision-making effectiveness.

Later investigations **Simons and Peterson (2000)** supported the notion that task conflict can positively impact team performance, while relationship conflict always impedes healthy team functioning. Drawing from the conflict literature, surmised that task conflict has a beneficial impact because it stimulates increased cognitive understanding of the facts and issues. Conversely, relationship conflict reduces the processing of information by causing members to focus on each other rather than issues related to the team’s project.

**Halinen and Salmi (2001)** used an example from Tahtinen’s dissolution study to demonstrate that at some point the conflict between two managers turned into personal conflict. However, within study it was evident that there was tension and a disagreement which suggests that there might be a
threshold as to when business issues become personal issues as have also argued. Nevertheless, it has been identified that higher levels of affective conflict lead to lower levels of loyalty to the relationship. On the other hand, personal relationships may also serve a crisis insurance role. For instance, maintaining a positive contact with a person may result in preferential treatment and favours in urgent situations. The good personal relationship between senior individuals may play a crisis insurance role and result in a mutually satisfactory solution to a serious performance failure of the supplier.

**Jehn and Mannix, (2001)** highlighted that the teams exerted little or no influence on identification of the overall task or project. Examination of such teams appears in the literature and represents a close approximation of organizational work teams. In order to ease communication, the term "work team" is utilized throughout the remainder of the present paper.

**Halinen and Salmi (2001)** also provide evidence of people who felt humiliated by the way the supplier side behaved and the ending of the business relationship had long-lasting consequences for the supplier company. In a service provider-consumer setting the behaviour of the service employee towards the consumer has been identified as one of the causes of consumer switching. For instance, when the employee behaved in an impolite way towards the consumer then he switched to another service provider.

**Wathne et al. (2001)** identify a negative association between social bonds and the customer’s tendency to switch. In a sense those studies that explore why the business relationship is maintained also contribute to understanding the mechanism behind the switching dilemma that business actors may face during the life of the relationship.

**Gilliland and Bello (2002)** suggest that the customer’s loyalty-based commitment means that the customer feels a psychological attachment to the supplier that resists change and would not break the relationship when a competitor supplier offers superior economic benefits.
Gilliland and Bello, (2002)\textsuperscript{41} identified that there are economic and non-economic elements supporting the life of the relationship. Those non-economic elements reflect social resources and social benefits which relate not only to being nice and friendly to the customer. They also refer to resources that are personalised by the receiving part such as prompt reaction, being responsive, providing support and help.

Polzer, Milton and Swann (2002)\textsuperscript{42} examined the connection of interpersonal congruence (the degree to which group members see others in the group as others see themselves) in small work groups to issues of diversity and team performance. The longitudinal investigation of 83 work groups revealed that teams with high interpersonal congruence experienced improved creative task performance as a result of diversity. The performance of low interpersonal congruent teams was undermined by the same diversity factors. Notwithstanding the ambiguity in diversity research results, demonstrated the potential benefit of continued examination of interpersonal issues. Indeed, the central role interpersonal interactions occupy in team contexts, the inevitable presence of diversity regarding team member interpersonal flexibility, and the potential for poor outcome due to an abundance of team conflict suggests the importance of examining interpersonal flexibility as an antecedent to work team conflict.

Some research investigations have provided empirical support for the notion that member differences within a team context encourage the sharing of diverse perspectives, ideas, and skills that increase the team ability to develop creative solutions to problems. Conversely, others have argued that member differences are disruptive because members are apt to only view each other through the lens of stereotypes and thus impede team communication and cohesion Polzer, Milton, & Swann (2002)\textsuperscript{43}.

Bijlsma and Koopman (2003)\textsuperscript{44} refer to studies which have found that trust between organizational members can promote voluntary cooperation, extra role behaviours and performance as well as individual and team satisfaction and both organizational and decision commitment.
Bloemer and Odekerken-Schroder (2003)\textsuperscript{45} distinguishing between affective commitment which reflects a deep and emotional attachment and cognitive/calculative commitment which reflects a rational, economic calculation behind the maintenance of the relationship.

Relationships have been found between high levels of trust and various dimensions of individual and organizational performance. Connell et al. (2003)\textsuperscript{46} found positive relationships between trust and individual well being, job satisfaction and commitment and they referred to the influence of trust in determining organizational success.

De Dreu and Weingart (2003)\textsuperscript{47} recognized the contradictions present in the conflict research and sought to resolve the issue through publication of a meta-analytic study of conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction gleaned from cross sectional investigation results. Thirty published and unpublished studies that measured (a) relationship and/or task conflict (b) team performance and/or member satisfaction were included in the meta-analysis. Surprisingly, results suggested that both task and relationship conflict were equally troublesome for effective team performance. In addition, no positive correlations were noted for the conflict type-team performance relationships when consideration of complexity and non routiness of team task were included as moderator variables. However, team member satisfaction is more negatively impacted by relationship conflict than task conflict.

An exemplar in this alternative diversity line of research concluded that value dissimilarity was positively associated with team conflict and negatively related to team involvement. Perceived group openness to diversity moderated the relationship between visible and informational dissimilarity and work team involvement, as well as between value dissimilarity and task conflict Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois (2003)\textsuperscript{48}.  

Please purchase PDF Split-Merge on www.verypdf.com to remove this watermark.
Pressey and Mathews (2003)\textsuperscript{49} the inter-organisational literature the importance of personal relationships in buyer-supplier relationships is attracting increased attention. Indeed, some authors have observed that the loss of a personal relationship may sometimes result in the ending of a business relationship. For example, when a sales representative moves to another company customers may move with them.

Vaaland and Hakansson (2003)\textsuperscript{50} state that conflict can sometimes be personalised. They suggest that the battle between organisations may cause serious pressure on individuals that increases the risk of personalising the conflict. However, it may be that more effort is required to explain the dynamics of conflict because from a static approach it is not evident when task conflict turns into affective conflict and when disagreements over business issues become personal conflicts.

Falk and Kosfeld (2004)\textsuperscript{51} on the effects of trust in the work place, experimentally investigate trust through the implementation of control exerted by employers on employees. The intuition behind their design is that employers may choose to impose control over employees so as to ensure that a certain amount of production be met. However, since control implies distrust on the employer’s part, it inhibits an employee’s ability, or willingness, to perform beyond their prescribed responsibility. They find that there are hidden costs associated with controlling or distrusting individuals, which are reflected negatively in individual performance. They also observe that even though the reaction to control varies within each group being tested, the majority of each group reacts negatively to control, and that the net benefits of control vary depending on the compensation for the job. Their results provide further support to the importance of trust in determining the economic outcomes of a community; if observations can be drawn about the trust level of individuals in a community, and thus about the ability for those individuals to perform successfully, then something can also be said about the likelihood of that community performing successfully.
On the effects of trust in the workplace, **Falk and Kosfeld (2004)** experimentally investigate trust through the implementation of control exerted by employers on employees. The intuition behind their design is that employers may choose to impose control over employees so as to ensure that a certain amount of production be met. However, since control implies distrust on the employer’s part, it inhibits an employee’s ability, or willingness, to perform beyond their prescribed responsibility. They find that there are hidden costs associated with controlling or distrusting individuals, which are reflected negatively in individual performance. They also observe that even though the reaction to control varies within each group being tested, the majority of each group reacts negatively to control, and that the net benefits of control vary depending on the compensation for the job. Their results provide further support to the importance of trust in determining the economic outcomes of a community; if observations can be drawn about the trust level of individuals in a community, and thus about the ability for those individuals to perform successfully, then something can also be said about the likelihood of that community performing successfully.

**Rose and Shoham (2004)** Emotional conflict refers to the existence of inter-personal incompatibilities between a salesperson and a buyer that may include tension, animosity or annoyance. Task conflict refers to disagreements between a salesperson and a buyer about the content of the task to be performed. These disagreements could relate to differences in viewpoints, ideas and opinions. It has thus been suggested that the two parties may think differently about the task but not feel animosity towards each other. There is also the question of when task conflict turns to relationship conflict, indicating that buyers are professionals but also humans and when the buyer does not like the salesperson any more it is very difficult to get that person to change their mind.

**Andersen and Kumar (2006)** suggest that the lack of a positive personal chemistry is seen as a reason that business relationships fail to develop and/or fail to be sustained.
Brueckner (2006)\textsuperscript{55} develops a model of friendship formation, where the likelihood of friendship formation is modeled on the exogenously-chosen effort levels of individuals. Brueckner’s model shows first, that the equilibrium level of individual effort in friendship formation is lower than the socially optimal effort level, and that, second, under an asymmetrical setting where individuals are not identical, friendships are more likely to form when an individual with “magnetism,” or high attractiveness, is involved. He poses that the gap between the actual and optimal equilibrium effort level allows for the possibility of a low-cost policy or device to help push the actual equilibrium effort investment to a more socially-optimal level. We advocate online social networking sites as an example of such a difference-bridging tool. At a more fundamental level, interpersonal trust has been mainly studied in its effects on interactions within organizations, and in its determinants. There have also been external factors introduced to examine how its causes and effects are altered by elements such as risk.

Brueckner (2006)\textsuperscript{56} develops a model of friendship formation, where the likelihood of friendship formation is modeled on the exogenously-chosen effort levels of individuals. Brueckner’s model shows first, that the equilibrium level of individual effort in friendship formation is lower than the socially optimal effort level, and that, second, under an asymmetrical setting where individuals are not identical, friendships are more likely to form when an individual with “magnetism,” or high attractiveness, is involved. He poses that the gap between the actual and optimal equilibrium effort level allows for the possibility of a low-cost policy or device to help push the actual equilibrium effort investment to a more socially-optimal level.

Interpersonal citizenship Personality and Interpersonal Relations behavior occurs when coworkers assist one another beyond their job requirements Bowler and Brass (2006)\textsuperscript{57} Coworkers who are friends are more likely to help one another than coworkers who are not friends. Given our
supposition that differences in personality should predispose individuals to create and value social connections in the workplace differently, thus influencing one’s level of interpersonal relationships and in turn impacting their work behavior, our exploration of personality, relationships, and OCBI proceeds from an intermediary variable framework.

2.2 CONCLUSION

It is obvious to note that many of the academicians and researcher have conducted many studies of interpersonal relationship on various dimensions and most of the study highlight the displeasures on the relationship and emergence of conflict. None of the study had focused on positive impact of interpersonal relationship, in general and in particular to the employees in sugar industries. Hence, the researcher has identified the research gap of the thorough review of the literature consolidated by various experts in this field. In order to fulfill the gap the researcher has selected this particular topic entitled “A Study on Interpersonal Relationship practiced in Sugar Industries” hence, this study.
2.3 REFERENCES


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