CHAPTER I

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During the past decade the organizations had undergone rapid and striking changes such as policy changes due to globalization, increased competition due to the emergence of a number of private organizations, downsizing, implementation of new technologies, etc. These changes become the reason of high level of stress among the employees working in the organizations. The technological changes, especially extensive use of computers in organizations has changed the patterns of doing work by the employees. These types of changes affected the social, economical and psychological domain of the employees and relations with other employees. From the previous studies it is evident that more than 80% of the employees have one or other problem directly or indirectly related to these drastic changes. Along with other sectors the insurance companies also leaning towards the policy of appointing contract labours. They are also using various compulsive and rewarding options for their employees.

As far as the insurance companies are concerned, there are only few studies conducted to show the impact of various organizational stressors on the employees. There is a need to keep employees from leaving and going to work for other companies. To retain employees in the same company it is necessary to provide them job satisfaction and opportunities for advancement in their careers. The present research is aimed to study the “impact of role efficacy and interpersonal trust on organizational role stress and job satisfaction of employees”. The researcher is attempted to analyze those factors which are necessary to enhance the effectiveness and trust of the employees so that they overcome the organizational role stress and achieve more satisfaction from their jobs.
Organizational Role Stress

The term stress in psychology was first coined in the 1930s. According to Lazarus (1960), stress is a feeling experienced when a person thinks that "the demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize."

According to Mechanic (1962) "stress is the discomforting responses of persons in particular situations". In the words of Spielberger (1971) "stress is the external forces that act on an individual, that is the objective properties of environmental or stimulus conditions that are characterized by some degree of objective danger".

Mason (1975) discussed stress in various terms:

- Stimulus or external force acting on the organism,
- Response or changes in the physiological functions,
- Interaction between an external force and resistance opposed to it, and
- More comprehensive combination of the above factors.

Mc Grath (1976) suggested that, "there is a potential for stress when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person’s capacities and resources for meeting it, under conditions where he has expected a substantial differential in the rewards and the costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting it".

According to Schuler (1980), "stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraints, or demands related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important".

A key to understand the aspects of stress is the concept of ‘milieu interieur’, the internal environment of the body, which was first given by the great French
physiologist Claude Bernard (1854). He described stress by using the principles of dynamic equilibrium. In dynamic equilibrium he explains that to survive it is essential to acquire a steady state in the internal environment, this is called as constancy. Therefore, external forces that change the internal balance must be reacted to and compensated for if the organism is to survive. Some of the examples of this type of external forces include temperature, oxygen concentration in the air, the expenditure of energy, and the presence of predators.

Walter Cannon (1929) a great neurologist coined the term homeostasis to further define the dynamic equilibrium that was described by Bernard. He also was the first person to recognize that stressors could be emotional as well as physical. Through his experiments, he demonstrated the "fight or flight" response that man and other animals share when threatened. Cannon also pointed out that during stressful situations powerful neurotransmitters released from a part of the adrenal gland which is called as the medulla. The adrenal medulla secretes two neurotransmitters, epinephrine (adrenaline) and norepinephrine (noradrenalin), in the response to stress. The release of these neurotransmitters leads to the physiological effects seen in the fight or flight response, for example, a rapid heart rate, increased alertness, etc.

Hans Selye extended the work of Cannon. He introduced the term stress from physics and engineering and defined it as "mutual actions of forces that take place across any section of the body, physical or psychological." Hans Selye (1983) suggested that psychologists have different orientations for the term ‘stress’ as (a) stimulus oriented, (b) response oriented ( both physiological and behavioural ), and (c) depth oriented ( etiological and psychodynamic). According to Pestonjee (1987) it is natural and healthy to maintain an optimal level of stress and opined that success, achievement, higher productivity and effectiveness call for stress. When
stresses are left unchecked and unmanaged, they create problems in performance and, as a result, affect health and well being of the organism.

Pestonjee (1992), has identified three sectors of life in which stress originates-

(a) Job and the organization,
(b) Social sector, and
(c) Intra-psychic sector.

Job and organization sector is represented by all aspects of the work environment. The social sector consists of socio-cultural factors, that is, religion, caste, language etc. Intra-psychic sector consists of intimate and personal factors like attitudes, temperament, interest, health etc. It is pointed out that from any of these sectors stress comes out.

At present one of the major sources of stress is the organization. Every individual has his own capacity and potential to perform the assigned task. When an employee joins an organization he bounded under certain rules and regulations. It is very rare that he could work according to his own wishes due to which stress emerge. So stress at work or in the organization is not an uncommon thing.

Work related stress is a major concern today, than it was two decades ago. This has become a major problem not only for individuals working within an organization but also for the organization itself. Organizational stress can produce strain which is detrimental for the human resources in the organization. It has negative economic implications such as poor quality of work, low productivity, absenteeism, etc. Role stress is considered very important because it has a negative impact on organizational outcomes. The stress arising due to person's role is termed as role stress (Pareek, 1993). Role is defined as, “a set of functions, which an individual performs
in response to the expectations of others as well as his own expectations" (Kahn et al., 1964).

Frew and Bruning (1987) identified six categories of stressors which serve as a basis of organizational stress-

- **Task demands**: They are related with different aspects of the job occupied by the employee. For example, task variety, physical working conditions, opportunity to take decisions, freedom to choose their own method of working etc.

- **Interpersonal demands**: They consist of poor relations with co-workers, family members, friends etc. Inadequate interpersonal relationship with other workers. Pressure from the superiors and subordinates.

- **Role demand**: When a person occupied a role in the organization then certain forces exerted on it from that role, it is called as role demand. Role demands are generally occur in the form of role conflict, role overload and role ambiguity. Organization structure: It includes job hierarchies, rules and regulations, company policy and lack of industrial democracy.

- **Organizational leadership**: Factors which comes out from the functioning of top authorities are included in it. Due to power and prestige from the superiors an unrealistic pressure arises among the employees. their working style create depression and anxiety in the workers.

- **Organization’s life stage**: It includes the establishment, growth, and maturity and decline of the organization. These things sometimes create problems for the workers. Establishment and decline stage are more stressful because establishment produces more excitement and uncertainty, whereas decline stage consists of downsizing, layoffs and different other types of uncertainties.
There are inherent problems in the performance of a role in an organization which give rise to role stress. Classical organizational structure and control system form a potent source of stress because they demand dependency, hamper initiative and creativity, in role performance. The concept of role and the two role systems—role space and role set have a built-in potential for conflict and stress. An organizational role refers to the position holds by an individual within the organization. Organizational roles are the typical roles for access control purpose. It includes professional roles, domain expert roles, and administrative roles. These types of roles provide a meaningful classification of people.

**Role space**—Role Space has three main variables:

- Self,
- The role under question, and
- The other roles one occupies.

Any conflict among these is referred to as role space conflict. These conflicts may take several forms such as:

- **Self-role distance:** This type of stress arises when the role which a person occupies goes against his/her self-concept. This is essentially a conflict arising out of mismatch between the person and the job. When a role occupant perceived that a conflict arises between the self-concept and the expectations from the role. For example an extrovert, who is fond of meeting people and being social, may develop a self-role distance if he accepts the role of an author in a newspaper agency.

- **Intra role conflict:** Since an individual learns to develop expectations as a result of his socializing and identification with significant others, it is quite likely that he sees certain incompatibility between the different expectations
(functions) of his role. For example, it is incompatible for a professor to teach students and doing research. May be they are not inherently conflicting, but the individual may perceive these as incompatible.

- **Role stagnation:** When an individual grows older he becomes experienced. With the advancement of individual, the role also changes. When the role changes the need for taking on a new role becomes crucial. Problem arises when an individual occupies a role for a longer period of time and then step-into another role in which he feels insecure. The new role demands something new due to which the individual comes under stress. It means this kind of stress is the result of the gap between the demand to outgrow a previous role and to occupy a new role effectively. It is the feeling of being stuck in the same role. The individual bound to think that there is no opportunity for one’s career progression. In fast expending organizations, which do not have any systematic strategy of human resource development, it is seen that managers are likely to come under the stress of role stagnation, when they are promoted.

- **Inter-role distance:** It is experienced when there is a conflict between organizational and non-organizational roles. It means this type of role stress arises when an individual occupies more than one role. For example, a chairman who is performing the role of a chairman of the department, taking classes of MA students, and handle the work of research scholars. The demands on his time by students and research scholars may be incompatible with the demands of meeting people in the chairman office. In our modern society such inter-role conflicts are quite common.
Role set

Role set is the role system within the organization of which roles are part and by which individual roles are defined. The role set conflicts arises due to the incompatibility among these expectations by the significant other (and by the individual himself). Role set conflicts take the forms of:

- **Role Ambiguity**: When there are doubts within the individual regarding the expectations that people have from the role then he comes under the stress of role ambiguity. It may be due to the lack of information available to the role occupant, or may be he does not fully understand the provided information. Role ambiguity may be in relation to activities, responsibilities, norms or general expectations. It may operate at three stages:
  
  (a) When the role sender holds his/her expectations about the role,
  (b) When he/she sends it, and
  (c) When the occupant receives those expectations.

  Generally, role ambiguity is experienced by the persons who occupy new roles in the organization, roles that are undergoing change, or process roles i.e. less clear and less concrete activities.

- **Role expectation conflict**: The role occupant experiences this type of stress when there are conflicting expectations or demands by different role senders (persons having expectations from the role). This type of stress is generated by different expectations by different significant persons about the same role, and the role occupant think as to whom to please. These conflicting expectations may be from the boss, subordinates, peers or clients.

- **Role overload**: The role occupant feels role overload when there are too many expectations from the significant others in his role set. It has been measured by
asking questions regarding the feelings of the people. For example, can you finish the work during the modified work day or can the amount of work you do may interfere with how well it is done. The chances of role overload is greater where the role occupants have lack of power, where there are large variations in the expected outputs, and when delegations or assistance cannot procure more time. There are two aspect of this type of stress: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative aspect refers to having too much to do, while qualitative aspect refers to things being too difficult to do.

- **Role erosion:** When the role occupant feels that the functions he would like to perform are being done by some other role then the stress of role erosion emerges. It is the subjective feeling of the individual. He thought that some important expectations that he has from his role are shared by some other role within the role set. This also happen when the functions are performed by the role occupant but the credit goes to someone else. Another manifestation is in the form of underutilization in the role. Mostly it happens to those organizations which redesign their roles and create new roles. A number of studies show that in several such organizations the stress of role erosion is inevitable.

- **Resource inadequacy:** This type of stress is generated when the proper resources are not available for performing a role effectively. Some of the common resources are people, information, material, finance or facilities.

- **Personal inadequacy:** It happens when the role occupant feel that he does not have enough knowledge, skill or training to undertake a role effectively, or if he thought that he has not enough time to prepare the assigned task. Individuals who are assigned new roles without adequate preparations or
orientation are likely to experience feeling of personal inadequacy. It happens when the organizations do not impart periodic training to enable the employees to cope with the fast changes both within and outside the organization.

- **Role isolation:** This type of stress refers to the psychological distance between the role occupant’s role and other roles in the same role set. It is also defined as role distance which is different from inter-role distance, in the sense that while IRD refers to the distance among various roles occupied by the same individual, role isolation is characterized by feelings that others do not reach out easily. This indicates the absence of strong linkages of one’s role with other roles. When a role occupant feel that certain roles are psychologically closer to him, while others are at a great distance then the stress of role isolation comes up. The distance may be due to the frequency and ease of interaction. If the linkages are strong then the role isolation will be low and vice versa. Hence we can measure role isolation in terms of existing and desired linkages. The gap between them indicates the role isolation.

**Consequences of role stress:**

Organizational role stress has noted a number of dysfunctional outcomes resulting from stress, both physiological and psychological, which ultimately affect the functioning and effectiveness of the organization and its employees. Thus, the impact of work stressors not only assessed in terms of its effect on the organization, decreased productivity, and turnover and decreased job satisfaction, but also in terms of the emotional impact on the workers. Therefore, "burnout" is usually a consequence of long-term involvement in emotionally demanding situations and ineffective coping with long-term stress.
For health care professionals stress and burnout are important issues because they are considered as significant risks to health and well-being of physicians, and are also associated with reduced quality of health care, attrition, and reduced commitment to practice.

**Coping with role stress**

When an individual comes under stress, he tries to adopt ways of dealing or coping with it, because nobody wants to remain in a continual state of tension. The term coping has been used to indicate the ways of dealing with stress, and the effort to master harmful conditions, threat or challenges. Here, coping is used to deal with stress and distinguish between effective and ineffective coping.

Coping is primarily a psychological concept. There are different view points of different researchers in relation to coping but they all share a common theme i.e., the struggle with external and internal demands, conflicts and distressing emotions. According to Burke and Wier (1980), coping process refers to “any attempt to deal with stressful situations when a person feels he must do something about, but which tax or exceeds his existing adaptation response patterns”.

Lazarus (1975) suggested two categories of coping that is direct action and palliative modes. Direct action includes the behaviour or actions which are performed by the organism when he is in a stressful situation. Palliative modes of coping refer to those thoughts and actions which purports to relieve the organism of any emotional impact of stress. He concluded that effectiveness of coping strategies depends on controllability of the situation. Roth and Cohen (1986) suggested that approach coping behaviour was associated with increased distress and with non-productive worry, while avoidance coping behaviour can interfere with appropriate action when there is the possibility of affecting the nature of threat.
Generally, effective coping strategies are approach strategies; they confront with the problem of stress as a challenge, and increase the capability of dealing with it. Ineffective strategies are escape or avoidance strategies, which reduce the feeling of stress. For example, denying the reality of stress, use of alcohol, drugs or other aids to escapism.

Approach or effective strategies include efforts to increase physical and mental readiness to cope (through physical exercises, yoga and meditation, diet management), creative diversions for emotional enrichment (music, art, theatre, etc), strategies of dealing with the basic problems causing stress, and collaborative work to solve such problems.

Mullen and Suls (1992) found the avoidance strategies to be effective when outcome measures are immediate or short term, whereas approach strategies were more effective when measures were long term.

It is necessary for both individual as well as for the organization to examine the strategy that they use for cope the stress. The absence of an appropriate coping strategy may lead ineffectiveness. The style or strategy of coping seems to require some physical efforts. Coping style or strategy can either be seen as a general trait (a disposition applicable to most situations), or a disposition applicable to specific stress situations. It has been observed that social and emotional support helps a person to deal with stress effectively. Those persons who have maintained close interpersonal relationship with friends and family members are able to use more approach strategies. Social support includes material support (providing resources) and emotional support includes (listening to the person and encouraging him).

Lazaras and Launlier (1978) suggested that coping is the “effort, both action-oriented and intra-psychic, to manage (i.e., to master, tolerate, reduce and minimize)
environmental and internal demands and conflicts among them which exceeds a person’s resources”.

McGrath (1976) pointed out that coping is an array of covert and overt behaviour patterns, which can help, prevent, alleviate or respond to stressful experiences. Coping is dependent on the individual’s perception of the environment. It is the process of gathering information, generating alternatives, weighing and then selecting alternatives, implementing or evolving strategies. Thus coping requires an analysis of one’s own needs as well as of the situation.

 Basically people are divided into two groups to cope with their stress.

• Those who decide to suffer, deny experienced or avoidance strategies. It is termed as dysfunctional styles of coping with stress.
• Those who face the realities of stress consciously, and take some action to solve the problem either by themselves or with the help of other individuals. It is termed as functional style of dealing with stressful situations.

It is not necessary that people use any one among these two strategies; rather different people adopt different styles of coping. Same stressful situation is handling differently by different individuals. An issue that can be raised while discussing the effectiveness of various coping strategies is whether some ways of coping with stress are more effective than others. It depends upon the particular situation, the point of time (short or long run) and the levels (physiological, psychological or others) at which stress is being felt, i.e. what may be considered an optimal or a beneficial response in one situation at a particular time may be damaging (or ineffective) in some other situation or at a different time.

Generally, dysfunctional modes of coping may be damaging when they prevent essential direct action, but may be extremely useful in helping a person to
maintain a sense of well-being, integration or hope under conditions otherwise likely to lead to psychological disintegration.

Different approaches to the study of coping have been used in various investigations. Some have emphasized general coping traits, styles or dispositions, while others have preferred to study active, on-going coping strategies in particular stress situations. The former approach assumes that an individual will cope the same way in most of the stressful situations. A person’s coping style is typically assessed by personality tests. Whether the person actually behaves under stress as predicted by the tests depends largely on the adequacy of the personality assessed and many other internal and external factors that affect the person’s actions and reactions in any given situation.

In contrast to this approach, those who concentrate on active coping strategies prefer to observe an individual’s behaviour as it occurs in stressful situations and then proceed to infer the particular coping process implied by the behaviour.

Coping strategies can be conceptualized as a product of a combination of externality, internality and mode of coping.

Externality is the feeling that external factors are responsible for role stress, resulting in aggression towards, and blaming of, these external factors, it may also indicate the tendency to expect and get a solution for the stress from external sources. Externality may be high or low.

Internality is a kind of feeling in which the person perceive himself as responsible for the stress, and hence express aggression or blame himself. The person expects a solution for the stress for himself. Internality may be high or low. Coping may take the form of avoiding the situation (reactive strategy) or confronting and approaching the problem (proactive strategy). This is a mode of coping.
To summarize it can be said that stress is a normal part of life that can either help to learn and grow or it can causes significant problems. Stress releases powerful neurochemicals and hormones that prepare the person for action (to fight or flee). If one cannot take action, the stress response can create or worsen health problems. Prolonged, uninterrupted, unexpected, and unmanageable stresses are the most damaging types of stress. Stress can be managed by regular exercise, meditation or other relaxation techniques, structured time-outs, and learning new coping strategies. Most of the behaviours that increase in times of stress and maladaptive ways of coping with stress are drugs, pain medicines, alcohol, and smoking. These things worsen the stress and can make the person more reactive (sensitive) to further stress. While there are promising treatments for stress, the management of stress is mostly dependent on the willingness of a person to make the changes necessary for a healthy lifestyle.

**JOB SATISFACTION**

With the passage of time the life of the human beings become more and more complex. Their needs and requirements increased day by day. They want to satisfy their needs, but when these needs do not get fulfilled they become dissatisfied. Dissatisfied persons are likely to contribute less in comparison to those who are satisfied. To function successfully in the organization it is important to have a feeling of job satisfaction among the workers. Apart from managerial and technical aspects, employers can be considered as the back bones of any industrial development. To boost the satisfaction of the workers the management should provide good working conditions to the employees.

Organizations get success and peace only when the problem of satisfaction and dissatisfaction is accounted. It requires having social skills to solve the problem
of efficiency, absenteeism, labour turn over etc. Through scientific investigations these problems in the organizations can be solved.

Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as an attitude reflecting how well people like or dislike their job. Job satisfaction describes how contented an individual is with his or her job. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, but it is linked with it. Job design aims to enhance job satisfaction and performance. Certain methods such as job rotation, job enlargement and job enrichment increase the feeling of job satisfaction. Other factors which influence the satisfaction include the management style and culture, employee involvement, empowerment and autonomous work groups.

Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job; an affective reaction to one’s job; and an attitude towards one’s job. Weiss (2002) has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. The definition implies that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs, and our behaviours.

It is a sense of inner fulfilment and pride achieved when performing a particular job. Job satisfaction occurs when an employee feels that he has accomplished the given task which has importance and value.

The most used research definition of job satisfaction is given by Locke (1976). According to him job satisfaction is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. In this definition he gives importance to both affect or feeling, and cognition or thinking. It means if we think about something then we have feelings for that. Conversely we can say if we
have feelings then we think about what we feel. Hence cognition and affect are inter-linked with each other. Therefore when we evaluate the job then both thinking and feeling are involved.

Job satisfaction is generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal wellbeing. Job satisfaction means doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being suitably rewarded for one's efforts. Job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) sees job satisfaction as the keying radiant that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a general feeling of fulfilment.

One of the biggest achievements to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School. They sought to find the effects of various conditions on workers’ productivity. Hawthorne Effect is the novel changes in work conditions to temporarily increase the productivity. Later it was found that this increase in productivity is not due to the new conditions, but because of the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management i.e., Taylorism, also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Winslow Taylor’s (1911) argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work task. He contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labour and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers
were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied, and hence the necessity to find the answers regarding job satisfaction emerges. It should also be noted that the work of W.L. Bryan, Walter Dill Scott, and Hugo Munsterberg set the tone for Taylor’s work.

According to some researchers Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. In this theory he explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization.

**Models of job satisfaction:**

**Affect Theory:** Edwin A. Locke proposed The Affect Theory (1976). It is the most famous job satisfaction model. The purpose of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. The theory also states that how much one value a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) and how satisfied or dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are met or are not met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met). To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

**Dispositional Theory:** Another important theory of job satisfaction is the Dispositional Theory (template: Jakson, April, 2007). This theory suggested that human being have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a
certain level of satisfaction, regardless the job of the person. This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in the light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the Dispositional Theory was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge in 1998. He argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one’s disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem i.e., the value one places on his/her self, and general self-efficacy i.e., the belief in one’s own competence, lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control i.e., believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control, leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, the lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.

**Two-Factor Theory (Motivator-Hygiene Theory):** Two factor theory proposed by Frederick Herzberg (1968) it is also known as Motivator Hygiene Theory. This theory attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. According to this theory satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. The motivation of an employee to work is continually related to job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organization goals. Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that enhance the workers to perform the given task, and provide them satisfaction, for example achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.
**Job Characteristics Model:** The Job Characteristics Model is proposed by Hackman & Oldman (1976). It is widely used to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. These characteristics impact three critical psychological states i.e., experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results. These psychological states in turn influencing work outcomes i.e., job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc. These five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect the attitude and behaviour of an employee.

**Superior-Subordinate Communication**

It has an important influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinate perceive a supervisor’s behaviour can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behaviour such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is crucial to the superior-subordinate relationship. Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional expression. Nonverbal communication from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates and it is impacting job satisfaction. The way in which supervisors communicate their subordinates may be more important than the verbal content. Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate and have low level of motivation to work where as individuals who like and think positively about their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment.
The relationship of a subordinate with their supervisor is a very important aspect in the workplace. Therefore, a supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more willing to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate where as a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will receive negative feedback and very low job satisfaction from their subordinate’s in the workplace.

Job satisfaction is the positive and negative feelings and attitudes one can hold about his jobs. The related factors on which job satisfaction depends are the sense of fulfilment one can get from his daily tasks. Personal factors such as age, health, length of job experience, emotional stability, social status, leisure activities, and family and other social relationships also affect job satisfaction. In other words it is an emotional response to a job situation. It is influenced by how well outcomes meet or exceed personal expectations.

Lack of job satisfaction is one of the main reasons of daily stress. Some major factors through which employees get satisfaction are:

- **Salary**: Different needs of an individual are fulfilled through the source of money. A person can live a quality life if he has enough money in his pocket. Mostly employers see pay as reflection of organization.

- **Amount of variety in the job**: With a good salary the type of work is also important to contribute to the job satisfaction. The variety and control over work method and work place are the important aspect of work itself. A moderate amount of variety in the job can produce the appropriate level of satisfaction. If the work consists less variety then it will become the reason of boredom and fatigue while too much variety in the job can produces stress and burnout.
• **Promotional Opportunity:** Promotional opportunity is another factor that has an impact on job satisfaction. Jobs that are at upper level in the organization provide more freedom, more challenging work assignments and high salary to the workers.

• **Supervision:** Supervisors who have a good interpersonal relationship with subordinates and who take a personal interest in them provide satisfaction to the employees. A supervision that allows the workers to take good decisions can also enhance the job satisfaction.

• **Fellow Workers:** A friendly and co-operative work group is also a good source of job satisfaction. A good working group provides social support to the employees. A co-operative work group can share their problems with their co-workers.

• **Physical Work conditions:** Good working conditions provide more comfort to the workers. The working conditions are important to employees because they can influence life outside of work.

**The link between work approach and job satisfaction**

There are three perspectives to approach the work. Basically all three perspectives are important for getting job satisfaction, but one is often the priority:

• **A job:** If the worker approach work as a job, primarily he focus on the financial rewards. At that time he may not concern about the nature of the work rather he pays his attention towards the money. If a job with more pay comes in his way then he will likely to move on.

• **A career:** If the worker approach work as a career, it shows that he is interested in advancement. He wanted to climb the career ladder as far as
possible or be among the most highly regarded professionals in his field. He
motivated by the status, prestige and power that comes with the job.

- **A calling:** If the workers approach his job as a calling, he focuses on the work itself. He works less for the financial gain or career advancement but he work for the fulfilment that the work brings.

So it is important to recognize the approach to work. One approach is not necessarily better than the others. But it is helpful to identified if we are unsatisfied with our job and are ready to move on. We should think about what originally drew us to our current job, and whether it may be a factor in our lack of job satisfaction.

Depending on the underlying cause of lack of job satisfaction, there may be several ways through which one can increase his job satisfaction.

- **Set new challenges:** If an employee stuck in a job because of lack of education or a downturn in the economy, it does not mean that his work has to become worthless. Try to create new challenges and do his best for the job he has.

- **Improve job skills:** Imagining yourself in your dream job, you might envision yourself as an excellent project manager — a confident communicator and a highly organized person.

- **Develop own project:** Take on a project that can motivate you and give you a sense of control. Start small, such as organizing a work-related celebration, before moving on to larger goals. Working on something you care about that can boost your confidence.

- **Mentor a co-worker:** Once you've mastered a job, you may find it becoming routine. Helping a new co-worker or an intern advance his or her skills can restore the challenge and the satisfaction you desire.
• **Beat the boredom:** Break up the monotony that is take advantage of the work breaks, such as read something, go for a walk, etc. Do cross-training that is if the work consists of repetitive tasks, such as entering data or working on an assembly line then talk with the boss about training for a different task to overcome the boredom.

• **Be positive:** Make positive thinking about the job. Change the attitude about the work to increase the job satisfaction. Stop negative thoughts. Pay attention to the messages you give to yourself. When you find yourself thinking that your job is terrible, stop the thought in it way.

It is necessary to learn from the mistakes. Failure is one of the greatest learning tools, but many people take failure as the end of life. If somebody makes a mistake at work then learn from it and try to do the task again and again.

Organizations can help to create job satisfaction by putting systems in place that will ensure that workers are challenged and then rewarded for being successful. Organizations that aspire to creating a work environment that enhances job satisfaction need to incorporate the following:

• **Flexible work arrangements**

• **Training system and other professional growth opportunities**

• **Interesting work that consists variety and challenges**

• **Opportunities to use talents and creativity**

• **Opportunities to take responsibility and direct one's own work**

• **A stable and secure work environment that includes job security and continuity.**

Environments in which workers are supported by an accessible supervisor who provides timely feedback as well as congenial team members are include:
• Flexible benefits, such as child-care and exercise facilities
• Up-to-date technology
• Competitive salary and opportunities for promotion

Satisfaction and dissatisfaction varies from one worker to another. Apart from the factors mentioned above, job satisfaction is also influenced by the personal characteristics of the employees, the personal characteristics of the managers and the style of management, and the nature of the work itself. Managers who want to maintain job satisfaction in their teams they must try to understand the needs of each member of the work force. For example, when creating work teams, managers should take care that place people with similar backgrounds, experiences, or needs in the same workgroup. Also, managers can enhance job satisfaction by carefully matching workers abilities with the type of the work. For example, a person who is not able to pay attention to the details would hardly make a good inspector, and a worker who has shy nature unlikely to be a good salesperson. Try to match job tasks to the personalities of the employees.

Managers can also enhance the job satisfaction of workers by taking other deliberate steps such as job enrichment. Job enrichment usually includes increased responsibility, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning, and achievement.

So, job satisfaction is a product of the events and conditions that people experience on their jobs. Brief (1998) wrote: "If a person's work is interesting, her pay is fair, her promotional opportunities are good, her supervisor is supportive, and her co-workers are friendly, then a situational approach leads one to predict she is satisfied with her job". It means if the pleasures is associated with the job of the worker then it will increase the level of job satisfaction.
Role Efficacy

The word 'role' for the first time is recorded in English in 1606. Generally it came from French where it means "a part one has to play". Role can also be defined as a character or part played by a performer. A role is the characteristic and expected social behaviour of an individual, it is a function or position hold by an individual in different situations.

A role is a set of connected behaviours, rights and obligations as conceptualized by actors in a social situation. It is an expected behaviour for an individual, for his social status and for his social position. Social roles consist of the following factors about the social behaviour:

- People spend a large part of their lives in groups.
- Within these groups, they often take different positions.
- Each of these positions can be called a role, with a whole set of functions that are moulded by the expectations of others.
- Formalized expectations become norms when most of the people feel comfortable in providing punishments and rewards for the expected behaviour.
- Individuals are generally conformists, and insofar as that is true, they conform to roles.
- The anticipation of rewards and punishments inspire this conformity.

Banton (1965) has proposed the concept of basic, general and independent roles. Basic and general roles are related with each other. The term "Role Tree" used by Ruddock (1969) indicates a branching network concept. The trunk corresponds to the basic role, the main branches to the general roles, the secondary branches to the special roles and the leaves to the transient roles. Roles can be divided into two categories; one is achieved and the other is ascribed. An achieved role is a position
that a person assumes voluntarily. It reflects personal skills, abilities, and efforts. Roles are not forced upon the individual there is always a choice involved. An *ascribed role* is a position assigned to individuals or groups without regard for merit but because of certain traits beyond their control (Stark 2007).

Role development can be influenced by a number of additional factors, including social, genetic predisposition, cultural or situational.

- *Societal influence:* The roles of the individuals also based on the structure of the society, and the social situations they experience themselves. When parents enrol their children into some program then it will increase the chance that the children will follow that role in the future.

- *Genetic predisposition:* There are few roles which are genetically involved in the individual. For example, if we have leadership quality then we opt the role of a leader. Those with mental genius often take on roles devoted to education and knowledge. It does not indicate that people must choose only one role in his life, multiple roles can be taken on by single individual (e.g. David can be the captain of the Volleyball team and the editor of his school magazine).

- *Cultural influence:* Different cultures have different values on certain roles. It depends upon the lifestyle of the individual. For example, Indians are crazier for cricket in comparison to football.

- *Situational influence:* Roles can be created or altered according to the situation and also depend upon that how the person is put in outside his own influence.

Role theory is the sociological study of role development. It tries to explain the different forces that cause people to develop the expectations they have from their own and others' behaviours. According to sociologist Bruce Biddle (1986), the five major models of role theory include.
• Functional Role Theory - which examines role development as shared social norms for a given social position,
• Symbolic Interactionist Role Theory - which examines role development as the outcome of individual interpretation of responses to behaviour,
• Structural Role Theory - which emphasizes the influence of society rather than the individual in roles and utilizes mathematical models,
• Organizational Role Theory - which examines role development in organizations, and
• Cognitive Role Theory – it is summarized by Flynn and Lemay as "the relationship between expectations and behaviours.

Role is the position an individual holds in a social system. The concept of role is important for the integration of the individual with an organization. The organization has its own structure and goals. In the same way the individual has his personality and needs (motivations). All these aspects interact with each other and to some extent get integrated into a role. An organization can be defined as a system of roles. Generally there are two types of role system: the system of various roles that the individual carries and performs, and the system of various roles of which his role is a part. First one is called role space and the second one is called a role set. A person performs various roles that are centred around the self and they are at varying distances from the self (and from each other). These relationships define the role space. In the same way role set is the interrelationship between one role (called the focal role) among many others. As the concept of role is central to the concept of an organization, the concept of self is central to the concept of role.

The role of an individual in an organization is defined by the expectations of significant role senders in that organization, including the individual. The
expectations from the role by the individual himself are termed as “Reflexive Role Expectation (Kahn and Quinn 1970).

Roles are also frequently interconnected in a role set, that complement of role-relationships in which persons are involved by virtue of occupying a particular social status (Merton 1957).

Nowadays role behaviour is a centre of attraction for many behavioural scientists. Kahn et al. (1964) suggested that role behaviour is usually role taking behaviour of the people in the organizational context. Generally organizational system reinforced such types of behaviours. Role behaviour in reaction to role prescription causes stress in the individual due to which absenteeism, indifference, sickness and sudden or slow decrease of productivity in the organization takes place. Different researches carried out on the varied nature of role stress in relation to various personal, group and organizational variables (Pestonjee, 1992). It has been observed that role stress increase the level of fatigue and tiredness and decrease the job satisfaction in the individual. It also reduces the capacity of the individual to utilize his personal and organizational resources. To handle this situation both the organizations as well as the individual keep the role occupant plan for his own role.

When an individual joins an organization and he has assigned some role then he wanted to be effective in performing that particular role. He not only tries to fulfil the expectations of others but he himself generates certain expectations from that role. In this process some individuals get benefit from the organizational resources as well as from their own. On the other hand there are few people who neither utilize the organizational resources nor their personal resources properly. They perceive a kind of inadequacy in both organizations as well as in personal resources. Due to the interactions of personality, role and environment, an employee either achieves full
satisfaction, partial satisfaction, no satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It is very rare to get full satisfaction. In his work he feels stress because the roles are conflicted with the needs, values or abilities.

Role conflict is a kind of social conflict that takes place when an individual is forced to take two different and incompatible roles at the same time. Sometimes individual surrounded in such types of situations where his sets of behaviour that characterize roles may lead to cognitive dissonance in the individual. For example, a woman may find conflict between her role as a wife, as a mother, and her role as an employee of a company when her family member demands for time and attention distract her from the needs of her employer. In the same way sometimes individual face such situations in which it becomes difficult for him to decide which role he should perform.

A person's performance in an organization depends on his own potential effectiveness, technical competence, managerial experience, etc. It is the combination of the individual and the role. A person has appropriate knowledge, technical competence and skills required for the role. The designing of the role is also important to make the performance effective. If an employee is not able to use his competence and if he continuously feels frustration in the role then his performance goes down.

The concept of role efficacy is not new one. The holy book “Bhagwad Geeta” discussed this concept which preaches the individual to feel pleasure in each and every process of work (karma) and not bother for results. In Indian context Uday Pareek (1974, 1980a, 1980b, 1986, 1987, and 1993) pioneered the concept of role efficacy.

Effectiveness of a person in a given role in an organization, therefore, may depend on his own potential effectiveness, the potential effectiveness of the role and
the organizational climate. Hence efficacy is the potential effectiveness. Personal efficacy means potential effectiveness of a person in personal and interpersonal situations. Role efficacy means the potential effectiveness of an individual occupying a particular role in an organization. Role efficacy can be seen as the psychological factor underlying role effectiveness. In short, role efficacy is potential effectiveness of a role. Role efficacy is the process of enriching the role occupied by the role occupant.

Aspects of Role Efficacy

Role efficacy has several aspects. The more these aspects are present in a role, the higher the efficacy of that role is likely to be. These aspects can be classified into three groups, or dimensions. One dimension of role efficacy is called "role making", contrasted with role taking. Role making is an active attitude towards the role (to define and make the role as one likes), whereas role taking is a passive attitude (mainly responding to others' expectations). The aspects in the second dimension are concerned with increasing the power of the role, making it more important. This can be called "role centring", which can be contrasted with "role entering" (accepting the role as given and reconciling oneself to its present importance or unimportance). The third dimension is called "role linking" (extending the relationship of the role with other roles and groups), contrasted with "role shrinking" (making the role narrow, confined to work-related expectations).

Dimensions 1: Role Making

- **Self-Role Integration:** This dimension measures the perception of the integration between the self and the role. Every person has his strengths - his experience, his technical training, the special skills he may have, and some
unique contribution he may be able to make. If the role provide full opportunity to use the special strengths which a person have then his role efficacy goes high. This is called self-role integration. The self of the person and the role get integrated through the possibility of a person's use of his special strengths in the role. Suppose a person in an organization is promoted to a responsible position. It makes him happy, but after passing few days on this position he found that he is not be able to use his skills of training, counselling and organizational diagnosis. Though he work very hard in this new role but his efficacy is not as high as it was in previous role. Later, when the role was redesigned to enable him to use his rare skills, his efficacy went up. We all want to use our strengths in a particular role so that we can demonstrate our effectiveness. Integration, therefore, contributes to high role efficacy. If there is a distance between the self and the role then the role efficacy is likely to go down.

*Proactivity:* This dimension measures the perception of taking the initiative. A person who occupies a role responds to various expectations people in the organization have from that role. This thing gives him satisfaction, and it also satisfies others in the organization. However, if he is also to take initiative in starting some activity, his efficacy will be higher. Responding to the expectations of others i.e. reactive behaviour helps a person to be effective to some extent, but taking the initiative rather than only responding to other's expectations i.e. proactivity contributes much more to efficacy. If a person wants to take initiative but not getting full opportunity to do so then his role efficacy goes down.
Creativity: This dimension measures the perception that something new or innovative is being done by the role occupant. It is not only initiative which is important for efficacy. An opportunity to try new and unconventional ways of solving problems or an opportunity to be creative is equally important. Creativity and use of innovative ideas increase the role efficacy of the individual. It also improves the performance of the individual. If a person bounds to do routine task then it deteriorates its role efficacy. If the role does not allow him any time to be creative then his role efficacy is bound to be low.

Confrontation: This dimension measures the perception about the capacity of the individual to solve the problems. In general, if people in an organization avoid problems, or shift the problems to some other people to solve them, their role efficacy will be low. The general tendency to confront the problems to find relevant solutions contributes to efficacy. When people facing interpersonal problems then they should talk about them and try to find out the solutions. This will increase their efficacy. Now if they either deny having such problems or refer them to their higher officers then it will decrease their efficacy.

Dimension 2: Role Centring

Centrality: This dimension measures the perception of the importance of the role. If a person occupying a particular role in the organization generally feels that the role he/she occupies is central in the organization, his/her role efficacy is likely to be high. If people feel that their roles are not very important then their potential effectiveness will go down. For example, in large organizations, lowest level employees such as attendants had very high motivation when they
joined. However, after few months they realize that their role is not as much important as they thought. This thing deteriorates their effectiveness.

- **Influence:** This dimension measures the perception of the individual towards one's own capacity in making an impact on others. A related concept is that of influence or power. The more influence a person is able to exercise in the role, the higher the role efficacy is likely to be. One of the reasons is the opportunity to influence a large section of society. For example a gate-keeper in an organization was trained to screen visitors outside visiting hours. He used his own discretion in admitting them. Interviews with such employees showed that they were proud of their roles. One main reason for their higher motivation is the discretion given to the roles.

- **Personal growth:** This dimension measures the perception about opportunities to learn new things for personal growth. One factor which contributes effectively to role efficacy is the perception that the role provides the individual an opportunity to grow and develop. Many times it happen that people leaving one role and becoming effective in another one. This is due to the reason that they have more opportunity to grow in the second role. For example an executive despite of cut in his salary switch over to another position because this new role gives him more opportunity to grow. In many institutes of higher learning, the roles of the teaching staff pose problems of low efficacy. The main reason is the lack of opportunity for them to grow systematically in their roles. On the other hand institutes that are able to manage the growth of their employees in their roles will increase the efficacy of the roles, and in turn, obtain greater contribution from them.
Dimension 3: Role Linking

• *Inter-role Linkage*: This dimension measures the perception of interdependence with other roles. Linkage of one's role with other roles in the organization increases efficacy. If there is a joint effort in understanding problems, finding solutions, etc., the efficacy of the various roles involved is likely to be high. But, the presumption is that people know how to work effectively. Similarly, if a person is a member of a task group set up for a specific purpose, his efficacy, with other factors being common, is likely to be high. The feeling of isolation of a role (that a person works without any linkage with other roles) reduces role efficacy.

• *Helping Relationship*: This dimension measures the feeling of participant with regard to helping others and taking help from others. In addition to inter-role linkages, the opportunity for people to receive and give help also increases role efficacy. If persons performing a particular role feel that they can get help from some source in the organization whenever they have such a need, they are likely to have higher role efficacy. On the other hand, if there is a feeling that either no help is given when asked for, or that the respondents are hostile, role efficacy will be low. Helping relationship is of both kinds - feeling free to ask for help and expecting that help would be available when it is needed, as well as willingness to give help and respond to the needs of others.

• *Superordination*: This dimension measures the perception that something beyond the regular call of duty is being contributed to the larger society and the nation. A role may have linkages with systems, groups and entities beyond the organization. When a person performing a particular role feels that what he does as a part of his role is likely to be of value to a larger group, his efficacy
is likely to be high. The roles which give opportunities to role occupants to work for super ordinate goals have highest role efficacy. Super ordinate goals are goals of serving large groups with collaborative efforts. People at the top move towards public sector because they have the opportunity to work for larger goals, which is helpful for larger sections of society. Many employees accepted cuts in their salaries to move from the private to the public sector at the top level just because of superordination. Roles in which employees feel that what they are doing is helpful to the organizations, in which they work, have higher efficacy.

**Role Efficacy and Effectiveness**

Research shows that people who have high role efficacy experience less role stress, anxiety and work related tensions. They have confidence on their own strengths, they solve their problems by using more purposeful behaviour. They are active as well as interactive with people and environment. They have growth orientation, attitudinal commitment and positive approach behaviour. These types of people feel satisfaction with life, jobs and roles in the organizations.

Atmosphere which should be participative in nature, in which the employees get higher job satisfaction, contributes to high role efficacy. A climate which is promoting concern for excellence, use of expertise, and concern for the large issues also contributes to role efficacy. On the other side, a climate characterized by control and affiliation seems to lower role efficacy. An innovation-fostering climate was found to be a strong predictor of role efficacy.

It has also been reported that role efficacy is a strong moderator or mediating variable to enhance the organizational climate. Awareness with new knowledge and
technology is not only important for those who acquired higher position and have
greater skills but it became a need of every employee irrespective of the position he
acquired in the organization. Thus, it is the duty of the organization to provide better
knowledge and training to their employees. The Role Efficacy Profiles may be used to
identify aspects requiring strengthening. The concerned role occupants need to be
encouraged to think how they themselves can raise the levels of their own role
efficacy. This will help them to become proactive. Then the supervisors and higher
levels in the organization can think of various ways of increasing role efficacy of key
roles.

**Interpersonal Trust**

In our day to day life we encounter different situations that require
interpersonal decisions. We are forced to rely on our beliefs to resolve this dilemma.
An internal conflict between the hopes and fears bounds an individual to think about
these decisions. Side by side the opposing forces push us toward and pull away from
any particular decision. A sense of trust makes an individual confident to remove the
anxieties and take action.

The concept of interdependence and risk comprise the functional core for the
definitions of interpersonal trust. Interdependence refers to the extent to which a
person’s outcomes in an interaction are determined by another person’s action. Hence
an interdependent situation is one in which the other possesses some control over the
outcomes. Since the other person not always considers the needs and concerns, hence
the outcomes also creates an element of risk. The extent of risk is reflected in the
subjective value or meaning of the outcome.
Deutsch (1958) stated that there is no possibility for “rational” individual behaviour in (interdependent situations) unless the conditions for mental trust exist. According to Killey (1979) the compatibility of people’s preferences in the interaction is important because risk is always greater to the extent that the potential outcomes of those involved result in conflict of interests (i.e., are ‘non-correspondent’).

Trust alleviates fears of exploitation and minimizes the feelings of vulnerability to those who want an optimal solution to their problem. Among the early theorists Erikson (1950) and Bowlby (1973) consider trust as a chronic characteristic of personality. According to Erikson, trust is the resolution of an early inner conflict around dependency occurring during the infant’s first year of life, a resolution determined in large part by the quality of the maternal relationship. In his “architectural” model, basic trust is the first building block in a hierarchical identity structure. It is the foundation on which the whole personality of an individual is constructed. He describes trust as the ‘most fundamental prerequisite of vitality’, and as a capacity for faith. Thus, from his point of view, a capacity to trust or not to trust develops very early in life and shapes all other aspects of the personality.

According to Bowlby the discussion of trust is based on a developmental model emphasizing the quality of care during early childhood. In his theory of attachment a sense of trust is derived from feelings of security. An infant attached to his primary care giver who consistently takes care of his needs. As the time passes out the child with his experience generates ‘working models’ or representation of self and others which incorporate this sense that others, generalized from the caregiver or ‘trusted companion’, are readily available and responsive to one’s needs. These mental models are persisting throughout the life time relatively unchanged and influence the general orientation of an individual.
With respect to the definitions discussed earlier these perspectives suggested two meanings. First, the pattern of caregiver produces more general expectations regarding the willingness and ability of others to attend and satisfy one’s needs. Second, these expectations not only endure in some form throughout the life, but also to play a role in determining further personality development so that the individual cope with the social world.

“People sense how we feel about them. If we want to change their attitudes toward us, change the negative attitudes we have toward them”. To build a relationship it is required to build the trust. Trust is the expectancy of people that they can rely on the words one can use to speak. It is built through integrity and consistency in relationships. “Trust is a psychological state that manifests itself in the behaviours towards others, is based on the expectations made upon behaviours of these others, and on the perceived motives and intentions in situations entailing risk for the relationship with those others.” This definition viewed trust as an attitude hold by an individual in relation to another individual or group of individuals and it is applicable with in the team contexts. Consistent with Mayer et al.’s (1995) integrated model of trust, this definition distinguishes between the psychological state, the expectations and the behaviours towards others, which are conceptualized as distinct but related components of trust. In addition, this conceptualization parallels other definitions of trust as a multidimensional or multifaceted construct (e.g., Smith & Barclay, 1997). Contrary to some other definitions (e.g., McAllister, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998, etc.), this definition considers the behaviours of trust as components and not as an effect of trust itself. Here behaviour is an important component of trust, since it reflects the significance of the decision about trusting or not (Smith &
Barclay, 1997) by enabling individuals to act upon their own judgments and this can be done through the observation and interpretation of these behaviors.

Individuals learn about each other’s motives and intentions, and are able to make inferences of trustworthiness. Therefore, here trust behaviours are considered as the components of trust together with propensity to trust and perceived trustworthiness. In this conceptualization trust can be defined as a multi-component construct composed of propensity to trust, perceived trustworthiness, and trust behaviours. Because trust is believed to vary with tasks, situations, and people (Hardy & Magrath, 1989), the trust components are conceptualized as having multiple dimensions whose nature and relative importance may vary with the context relationship.

Webster’s Dictionary (1971) defined trust as an assured reliance on some person or things; a confidence dependent on character, ability, strength or truth of someone or something.

According to Solomon (1960), trust refers to expectations of benevolence, whereas suspicion refers to expectation of malevolence. Interpersonal trust at work has two dimensions: (a) faith in the trustworthy intentions of others, and (b) confidence in the ability of others (Cook and Wall, 1980).

According to Argyris (1965), organizational trust is a behaviour that induces members to take risks and experiment, and distrust as a behaviour that restricts and inhibits members from taking risks and experimenting.

R.S. Dwivedi (1983) in his trust based theory of management suggested that improvement in several performance measures – quality of goods and services produced morale and job satisfaction, reduction of restraining behaviour such as absenteeism, turnover, tardiness, indiscipline, unrest, etc., can be accomplished by
using trust as a basic input in structural and process designs, assimilation of conflicts
and integration of goals in organizational settings.

Evidences in management literature indicate that trust facilitates
organizational performance while distrust hampers it. According to Dwivedi (1983)
"management by trust" is a dynamic system, based on definable, measurable,
developable units of trusting behaviour, purporting to attain effective performance
through optimization of organizational structure and process, assimilation of conflicts,
and integration of goals. Trusting behaviour leads to optimization of organizational
structure – classical, neo-classical, and modern – and of organizational processes –
decision, communication, control, leadership and motivation. It assimilates conflicts
in the organization by resolving them in a manner that leads to constructive, rather
than destructive outcomes. It also leads to integration of individual, group and
organizational goals by generating a perception among the participants that their own
needs can be satisfied to the extent that they contribute to the attainment of
organizational goals. Thus, the dynamic system of MBT involves six interdependent
and interacting elements – trusting behaviour, effective performance, optimization of
organizational processes, assimilation of conflicts, and integration of goals.

A number of researches demonstrated that interpersonal trust is crucial in
organizational settings. To transfer the knowledge from one person to another it is
important to maintain a good interpersonal relationship. There has been only limited
systematic empirical work examining factors that promote a knowledge seekers trust
in a knowledge source.
Assumptions underlying high and low inter-personal trust orientations

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Need for</th>
<th>Trust orientation</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Low</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>Most people are true to their words</td>
<td>Most people do not do what they say</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Most people have a positive self image and try to live up to it</td>
<td>Most people are not what they pretend to be</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intimacy</td>
<td>Most people are capable of developing true and intimate relationship</td>
<td>Most people show friendliness only when they have some self-interest</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regard</td>
<td>Most people think positively about others if they perceive others thinking them positively</td>
<td>Most people do not think positively about others</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>Most people are capable of enjoying other’s success, if it is not used against them</td>
<td>Most people do not feel happy when they see others flourishing</td>
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Components of trust behaviour

- *Propensity to trust*: It is the willingness to trust others. Rotter (1980) argues that different people have different propensity to trust on other individuals. One’s propensity to trust can be determined by life experiences, personality types, cultural background, education, and several other socio-economic factors (Mayer et al., 1995). In unfamiliar situations, particularly the influence of trusting dispositions grows (Rotter, 1980). Where as, in ongoing relationships such as in work teams propensity to trust should be viewed as a more situational specific trait, affected by the team members and situational factors (Mayer et al., 1995). For example, individuals may have different levels of trust in relation to other individuals, or even in relation to the same
individual but different situations (Mayer et al., 1995). Hence, only propensity to trust is not sufficient to explain variances in trust within teams, and therefore, it should be used in a more complete set of variables

- **Perceived trustworthiness**: It is the evaluation of the characteristics and actions of the trustee. Trustworthiness is the extent to which individuals expect other individuals to behave according to their implicit or explicit claims. This judgment has cognitive and emotional grounds and it is based on evaluations in relation to character, competence, motives, and intentions of the other person (McAllister, 1995). Cummings and Bromiley (1996) propose three dimensions on which trustworthiness with teams can be accessed:

1. The belief that another person or group makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit and implicit;
2. The belief that another person or group is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments; and
3. The belief that another person or group does not take excessive advantage when the opportunity is available.

- **Trust behaviours**: It is the willingness to be vulnerable to other individuals whose actions one does not control. Although there are a number of behaviours that may be indicative of trust, among these the four categories have been consistently found, i.e., communication openness, acceptance of influence, forbearance from opportunism, and control reduction (Smith & Barclay, 1997).

These types of behaviours often occur simultaneously within work team, and one type of behaviour leads to another one. In this way, it looks more meaningful to consider these behaviours as complementary. According to Jones and George (1998),
trust behaviours correspond to positive actions towards individuals that jointly can be optimized throughout cooperative behaviours. Cooperative behaviours refer to the extent to which team members communicate openly about their work, accept the influence of others, and feel personally involved with the team. Monitoring behaviours refer to the extent to which team members feel a necessity to control other members' work and be careful. This distinction has the purpose of pointing at the role of monitoring in trust. It is assumed that monitoring behaviour comes into play when trust is not present. For example, if a team member trusts the ability of his/her colleague to perform a good task then no monitoring behaviours is needed. Monitoring behaviours are usually seen as non-productive activities, since they increase costs, restrict change, and reduce cooperation.

Hence, the more team members will engage in cooperative behaviours the less they will engage in monitoring behaviours and vice versa (Inkpen & Currall, 1997, Leifer & Mills, 1996).

"The willingness to be vulnerable" from Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), is one of the most cited definitions of trust and has played a central role in many conceptualizations, such as by Bromiley and Cummings (1995) and by Mishra (1996). In other definitions, different words have been used to propose the same meaning such as, the "willingness to rely on another" (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998), and the "intention to accept vulnerability" (Rousseau et al., 1998).

Some authors emphasize the expectations underlying the trust concept. For example, Elangovan and Shapiro (1998) assume that trust is a "set of optimistic expectations", and for Lewicki and Bunker (1996) trust involves "positive expectations about others". However, these expectations go beyond the characteristics or intentions of those involved, including also considerations about the situation and
the risks associated with acting on such expectations (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Some other authors have proposed that trust is a “risk taking behaviour” or the “willingness to engage such behaviour” (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996).

Trust involves simultaneously individual processes, group dynamics, and organizational or institutional contingencies (Rousseau, Stikin, Burt, & Carmerer, 1998). The acknowledgement that trust reflects a multitude of roles, functions, and levels of analysis has been a recent turning point for theory and research on this topic. Instead of accentuating the differences, researchers are starting to concentrate on common elements across perspectives in order to provide coherent knowledge with regard to trust (e.g., Costa, 2000; Hosmer, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). Traditional forms of management have been replaced by more collaborative approaches that emphasize coordination, sharing of responsibilities and the participation of the workers in the decision processes. New emphasis is given on interpersonal and group dynamics at the workplace, where trust is seen as one of the critical elements. If trust is absent, then nobody will take the risk, and hence they sacrifice the gains. So it requires collaboration and cooperation to increase the effectiveness. Understanding the role of trust at team level, and how it relates with performance effectiveness has become increasingly important.

**Interpersonal trust among co-workers:**

Here the focus is on whether a worker has confidence in the intention and/or capability of a manager or supervisor. In a work environment interpersonal trust, refers to the extent people ascribe good intentions and abilities among their peers. For example, a line worker might have confidence in the ability of a co-worker to perform a job safely and competently, but might be worry of telling him or her certain things because of a mistrust in the intentions of the person.
The success of a behaviour-based observation and feedback process requires a high degree of interpersonal trust among co-workers. It is not enough to believe the validity of the observations and feedback process but to trust the intentions of an observer is also very important. The person whose behaviour is being observed must believe that the information will be used only for personal protection against any injury and not for punishment. Hence a one-to-one behavioural feedback process begins with the coach asking for the permission of co-worker to make the observations.

**Trust and team effectiveness**

Team effectiveness is often used to express multiple team outcomes. These can be grouped into three major categories:

- Team performance: It refers to the quantity and quality of team outputs;
- Team members’ attitudes: It refers the satisfaction, commitment, and stress of the team members; and
- Behavioural team outcomes: It refers to the level of absenteeism and turnover within the members of the teams.

Hence, researchers determine team effectiveness by considering dimensions of team performance and the attitude of team members. The dimensions of team effectiveness should measure the impact of the group experience on individual members, the output of the team, and the state of the group as a performing unit. The task performance can be evaluated from a management point of view. The performance of team members can be best understood by the task performs in relation to objectives. Moreover, perceived task performance has been found correlated with more objective measures and relationship continuity (Smith & Barclay, 1997).
Many researchers pointed out that satisfaction and commitment are the important dimensions of effectiveness predicted by trust. In the contexts of buying and selling relationships Smith and Barclay (1997) reveal that open communication and forbearance from opportunism lead to mutual satisfaction.

Work relationships characterized by trust enhance cooperation, reduce conflicts, increase the commitment to the organization and deteriorate the tendency to leave. Therefore, it can be expected that trust will have a positive effect on the satisfaction and the commitment of members to their own team. Poor effectiveness can be caused due to the amount of stress experienced within teams. Although the effect of trust on stress has not been fully explored, research on role ambiguity and role conflict in teams suggests that members enhance more monitoring behaviours in order to cope with these stressors (e.g., Fried, Ben-David, Tiegs, Avital, & Yeverechyahu, 1998). If monitoring behaviours are in fact negative indicators of trust, it is expected that the stress felt by team members might be related to the level of trust within the team. The relation between trust and high performance has been suggested by many authors (e.g., Bromiley & Cummings, 1995; Butler, 1991; McAllister, 1995). Teams which consists the members who have low levels of trust they have the tendency to share less information and ideas, are less personally involved, and impose controls when coordination is necessary.

There are few factors through which the trust among the members can be enhanced:

- **Effective Listening:** If you listen properly people will trust you. "You cannot establish trust if you cannot listen. A conversation is a relationship. Both speaker and listener play a significant role, they influence each other. Instead
of being a passive recipient, the listener has as much to do in shaping the conversation as the speaker”.

- **Managing Cultural Differences:** Cultural differences play an important role in the creation of trust, since trust is built in different ways, and means different things in different cultures.

- **Empathy:** Empathy is another important factor to build the trust. It allows to create bonds of trust, it gives insights into what others may be feel or think; it helps to understand how or why others are reacting to situations.

**Trust-based Working Relationships**

Trust has an important link for organizational success. "Trust elevates levels of commitment and sustains effort and performance without the need for management controls and close monitoring." Trust between a manager and an employee is based on the perception, the ability, benevolence, and integrity. Trust-based working relationships are an important source because trust is valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and often no substitutable.

It has been observed that satisfied employees are highly motivated, they have good morale at work, and they do their work in a more effective and efficient manner. Satisfied workers are also more concerned to continuous improvement and to quality of the organization. Process quality is therefore directly influenced by employee satisfaction. Process quality, in turn, determines quality costs and customer satisfaction. Therefore, it is crucial to identify the drivers of employee satisfaction, to monitor satisfaction continuously and to take the right measures to maximize satisfaction and loyalty.
Trust and Employee Satisfaction

Within the field of organizational studies trust is become a major research area. Disciplines such as organization science, sociology, and psychology, studied trust with a great concern and has focused on the individual level, group level, firm level and inter-firm level. Trust leads to more positive workplace attitudes (e.g. employee satisfaction and commitment), workplace behaviours (e.g. knowledge sharing, organizational citizenship behaviour) and performance outcomes (e.g. individual performance, group performance and business-unit performance). Hence, in workplace relationships when employees believe that their leaders and peers are trustworthy then they will feel safer and more positive about their managers and peers. In contrast, low levels of trust lead to psychologically distressing situations, because leaders or peers may have power over important aspects of one’s job. As a result, trust should have a strong and direct effect on employee satisfaction. Several studies on the manager–subordinate relationship have shown that trust is a major predictor of job satisfaction. Trust in the decision maker increased job satisfaction. Reciprocal trust between managers and salespeople increases job satisfaction of the subordinates. As the architecture of modern organizations has strongly moved towards team-based organizations in the last years – especially in Total Quality Management (Robbins, 2003) argue that not only trust in management but also trust in peers plays a major role in the formation of employee satisfaction. The three facets of trust mentioned above are also relevant for work teams. Trust in a team member reflects the expectation that the team member will act benevolently, it involves the willingness to be vulnerable and that the other team member may not fulfil the expectations and it involves dependency. Thus it is expected that employee
satisfaction in team-based organizations is strongly affected by trust in management and trust in peers.

Trust forms the foundation for effective communication, employee retention, and employee motivation and contribution of discretionary energy, the extra effort that people voluntarily invest in work. When trust exists in an organization or in a relationship, almost everything else becomes easier and more comfortable to achieve.

According to Dr. Duane C. Tway, Jr. in his 1993 dissertation, A Construct of Trust, "There exists today, no practical construct of Trust that allows us to design and implement organizational interventions to significantly increase trust levels between people. We all think we know what Trust is from our own experience, but we don't know much about how to improve it. Why? I believe it is because we have been taught to look at Trust as if it were a single entity."

Tway defines trust as, "the state of readiness for unguarded interaction with someone or something." He developed a model of trust that includes three components. He calls trust a construct because it is "constructed" of these three components: "the capacity for trusting, the perception of competence, and the perception of intentions." Thinking about trust as made up of the interaction and existence of these three components makes "trust" easier to understand.

The capacity for trusting means that your total life experiences have developed your current capacity and willingness to risk trusting others.

The perception of competence is made up of the perception of your ability and the ability of others. It is also depend upon with whom you work to perform competently and what is needed in your current situation. The perception of intentions, as defined by Tway, is your perception that the actions, words, direction,
mission, or decisions are motivated by mutually-serving rather than self-serving motives.

**Why Trust Is Critical in a Healthy Organization**

According to Tway, people have been interested in trust from the time of Aristotle. Additional research by Tway and others shows that trust is the basis for the environment you want to create in your work place. Trust is necessary for:

- Feeling able to rely upon a person,
- Cooperating with and experiencing teamwork with a group,
- Taking thoughtful risks, and
- Experiencing believable communication.

The best way to maintain trust in a work environment is to keep trust in the first place. The integrity of the leadership of the organization is critical. The truthfulness and transparency of the communication with staff is also a critical factor. The presence of a strong, unifying mission and vision can also promote a trusting environment.

Providing information about the rationale, background, and thought processes behind decisions is another important aspect of maintaining trust. People are more willing to trust their competence, contribution, and direction when they feel themselves as a part of a successful project or organization. Organizations which give priority to trust they take care of things which do not break trust. They have better communication; they provide good facilities to their customers and no one questions on small mistakes.
Role of supervisor and employee in building trust relationship

The following are ways to create and preserve a trusting work environment.

• Positive, trusting interpersonal relationships with people who are at the supervisory positions.

• Keep staff members truthfully informed. Provide as much information as soon as possible in any situation.

• Expect supervisors to act with integrity and keep commitments.

• Current behaviour and actions are perceived by employees as the basis for predicting future behaviour.

• Confront hard issues in a timely fashion. If an employee has excessive absences or spends work time by moving here and there then it is important to confront the employee about these issues so that other employees will watch and trust more.

• Maintain competence in supervisory and other work tasks. Listen with respect and full attention. Exhibit empathy and sensitivity to the needs of staff members.

The Human Resources professional has a special role in promoting trust. So the organizations should have line managers. The managers and supervisors should appropriately inform about all the factors described above in building trust relationships.

The management should also influence the power differentials within the organization by developing and publishing supportive, protective, honourable policies. The management should engage in trust building and team building activities only when there is a sincere desire in the organization to create a trusting, empowering, team-oriented work environment.
Trust is built and maintained by many small actions over time. According to Marsha Sinetar, “Trust is not a matter of technique, but of character; we are trusted because of our way of being, not because of our polished exteriors or our expertly crafted communications”. Trust is telling the truth, even when it is difficult, and being truthful, authentic, and trustworthy in the dealings with customers and staff.

According to George MacDonald “To be trusted is greater compliment than to be loved”. Mutual trust is the belief that we can rely on each other to achieve a common purpose. The key elements in building trust are:

1. Being honest and fair
2. Empathy
3. Sharing important information pertaining to oneself
4. Avoid using abusive words
5. Fulfilling promises

To build a relationship, the first prerequisite is to build trust. Empathy is one such thing that allows us to create bonds of trust. One should accept the responsibilities. When we accept responsibility, it represents our maturity. It is important to create a win-win situation which in turn results to generate happiness, prosperity, enjoyment and satisfaction. To build the trust first chooses what to say rather than say what to choose. A spoken word is like an arrow shot which cannot be retrieved. So we need to watch our words. Try to be a good listener. When we listen to others it shows we care for them and they feel important. Thus the person is motivated and is more receptive to our ideas. Sincere appreciation is a very good motivator as it fulfils human craving to feel important. Try to accept the mistakes immediately and willingly as mistakes are a part of our learning process. Try to avoid arguing. Arguing with someone is like fighting a losing battle.
Team Building and Interpersonal trust

To succeed in today’s competitive business environment, organizations need to capitalize on their work group diversity and address all issues related to work effectively. Understanding the interpersonal style of each other, is an important foundation for developing positive and productive relationships, and is largely measured by how one person's behaviour is perceived by others. Teamwork is an important way to get things done in an environment that is more demanding and challenging. By working together toward team goals and sharing the contributions of each team member, it will be easier to achieve more in comparison to do it alone.

The management should try to discover why so many conflicts are destructive and how and why they result in failure. It is important to learn how to deal with a number of common responses to conflict. Develop new skills through participation in case studies, practical applications, simulations and group activities. Practice the skills which are needed to successfully manage and resolve the conflicts in the professional and personal relationships. The most important skill set that supports success is effective communication. We are always communicating – even not communicating sends a message to people.