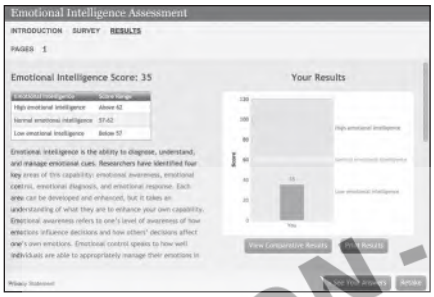
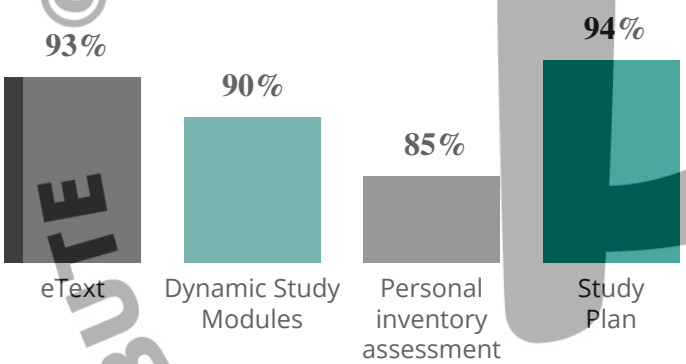


Personal Inventory Assessments is a collection of online exercises designed to promote **self-reflection** and engagement in students, enhancing their ability to connect with management concepts.

"I most liked the Personal Inventory Assessments because they gave me a deeper understanding of the chapters. I would read about personalities and then find out which category I fit into using the assessment."

— Student, Kean University



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DEVELOPING MANAGEMENT SKILLS

TENTH EDITION
GLOBAL EDITION

David A. Whetten
BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY

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PREFACE

Why Focus on Management Skill Development?

Given that a "skill development" course requires more time and effort than a course using the traditional lecture/discussion format, we are sometimes asked this question by students, especially those who have relatively little work experience.

Reason #1: It focuses attention on what effective managers actually do.

In an influential article, Henry Mintzberg (1975) argued that management education had almost nothing to say about what managers actually *do* from day to day. He further faulted management textbooks for introducing students to the leading theories about management while ignoring what is known about effective management practice. Sympathetic to Mintzberg's critique, we set out to identify the defining competencies of effective managers.

Although no two management positions are exactly the same, the research summarized in the Introduction highlights ten personal, interpersonal, and group skills that form the core of effective management practice. Each chapter addresses one of these skills:

Personal Skills

1. Developing Self-Awareness
2. Managing Stress and Well-Being
3. Solving Problems Analytically and Creatively

Interpersonal Skills

4. Building Relationships by Communicating Supportively
5. Gaining Power and Influence
6. Motivating Performance
7. Negotiating and Resolving Conflict

Group Skills

8. Empowering and Engaging Others
9. Building Effective Teams and Teamwork
10. Leading Positive Change

Consistent with our focus on promoting effective management practice, the material in these chapters provides guidance for a variety of contemporary management challenges, including: "How can I help others accept new goals, new ideas, new

approaches?" "How can I invigorate those who feel outdated and left behind?" "How do I help the 'survivors' of a downsizing pick up the pieces and move on?" "How do I help people with very different agendas and philosophies work together, especially during periods of high stress and uncertainty?"

Anyone tempted to dismissively argue that the answers to these questions are "common sense" would do well to recall Will Rogers' pithy observation: "Common sense ain't necessarily common practice." In addition, the research reported in the Introduction suggests that, in many cases, managers' "common sense" isn't necessarily "good sense."

The premise of this book and associated course is that the key to effective management practice is practicing what effective managers—those with "good sense"—do consistently.

Reason #2: It is consistent with proven principles of effective teaching and learning.

A seasoned university professor advised a young colleague, "If your students aren't learning, you're not teaching—you're just talking!" Here's what some authorities on higher education have to say about how effective teachers foster learning:

> "All genuine learning is active, not passive. It is a process of discovery in which the student is the main agent, not the teacher." (Adler, 1982)

> "Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in a class listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spilling out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves." (Chickering & Gamson, 1987)

In their classic book, Bonwell and Elson (1991) list seven defining characteristics of active learning:

1. Students are involved in more than passive listening.
2. Students are engaged in activities (e.g., reading, discussing, writing).
3. There is less emphasis placed on information transmission and greater emphasis placed on developing student skills.
4. There is greater emphasis placed on the exploration of attitudes and values.
5. Student motivation is increased, especially in adult learners.
6. Students receive immediate feedback from their instructor and peers.
7. Students are involved in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation).

Our goals in writing this book were to bridge the academic realm of theory and research and the organizational realm of effective practice and to help students consistently translate proven principles from both realms into personal practice. To accomplish these goals, we formulated a five-step "active" learning model, described in the Introduction. Based on the positive feedback we've received from teachers and students as well as multiple empirical research studies, we can state with confidence that the form of active learning pioneered in this book is a proven pedagogy for management skill mastery.

MYLAB MANAGEMENT SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

For the 10th edition we the authors are excited that Pearson's MyLab Management has been integrated fully into the text. These new features are outlined below. Making assessment activities available on line for students to complete before coming to class will allow you the professor more discussion time during the class to review areas that students are having difficulty in comprehending.

Watch It

MyLab recommends video clips that can be assigned to students for outside classroom viewing or that can be watched in the classroom. The videos correspond to the chapter material and is accompanied by multiple choice questions that re-enforce student's comprehension of the chapter content.

Personal Inventory Assessments (PIA)

Students learn better when they can connect what they are learning to their personal experience. PIA (Personal Inventory Assessments) is a collection of online exercises designed to promote self-reflection and engagement in students, enhancing their ability to connect with concepts taught in principles of management, organizational behavior, and human resource management classes. Assessments are assignable by instructors who can then track students' completions. Student results include a written explanation along with a graphic display that shows how their results compare to the class as a whole. Instructors will also have access to this graphic representation of results to promote classroom discussion.

DETAILED CHAPTER BY CHAPTER CHANGES

Based on suggestions from reviewers, instructors, and students, we have made a number of changes in the tenth edition of *Developing Management Skills*.

Introduction

- Updated references
- Clarified writing, especially sensitive to international perspectives and gender

Chapter 1 – Developing Self-Awareness

- Updated pre-assessment instruments, paying special attention to gender and nationality
- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Created new cases in the Skill Analysis section
- Updated scenarios in the Skill Practice section

Chapter 2 – Managing Stress and Well-Being

- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Added cases on stress and stress management among Millennials in the Skill Analysis section
- Added an up-to-date Skill Practice exercise

Chapter 3 – Solving Problems Analytically and Creatively

- Updated references and examples throughout the chapter
- Replaced cases in the Skill Analysis section
- Updated the Creative Problem-Solving Practice scenarios

Chapter 4 – Building Relationships by Communicating Supportively

- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Updated cases in the Skill Analysis section
- Updated exercises in the Skill Practice section

Chapter 5 – Gaining Power and Influence

- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Enhanced material on social capital
- Added a section on Sexual Harassment
- Updated the cases in Skill Analysis section

Chapter 6 – Motivating Performance

- Adopted new chapter title, emphasizing the use of motivation to enhance performance
- Updated references and examples throughout the chapter
- Expanded section on intrinsic reinforcement
- Added section on diagnosing and correcting unacceptable performance
- Added new Skill Practice exercise

Chapter 7 – Negotiating and Resolving Conflict

- Adopted new chapter title, reflecting expanded focus
- Updated references and examples throughout the chapter
- Added a section on negotiations
- Added new negotiations exercises in the Skill Practice section
- Updated the cases and exercises

Chapter 8 – Empowering and Engaging Others

- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Added a new case to the Skill Analysis section
- Updated exercises in the Skill Practice section

Chapter 9 – Building Effective Teams and Teamwork

- Updated references and examples throughout the chapter
- Created a new case in the Skill Analysis section
- Updated Skill Practice exercises

Chapter 10 – Leading Positive Change

- Updated references throughout the chapter
- Updated Corporate Vision Statements in the Skill Analysis section
- Added an exercise to the Skill Practice section

Tips for Getting the Most Out of This Course

Whether you are an undergraduate or MBA student, or an experienced manager, based on our years of teaching management skills, here are some suggestions for making this course a personally meaningful learning experience:

- Read the Introduction carefully. Although this is not a typical management textbook, it is important that you understand its distinctive learner-focused features, especially the five-step learning model: Skill Assessment, Skill Learning, Skill Analysis, Skill Practice, and Skill Application. You'll also find informative research on how much managers' actions impact individual and organizational performance and the characteristics of effective managers.
- Thoughtfully complete the Skill Assessment surveys for each chapter. These diagnostic tools are designed to help you identify which specific aspects of each skill topic most warrant your personal attention.
- Carefully study the Behavioral Guidelines and the summary model at the conclusion of the Skill Learning section of each chapter before reading that section. These written and graphical summaries are designed to bridge the research-informed description of each topic with the skill development activities that follow. To help you internalize research-informed "good sense," be sure to use the Behavioral Guidelines as your frame of reference when reading and discussing Skill Analysis cases and participating in Skill Practice and Skill Application exercises.
- Be sure to complete the Skill Application exercises in each chapter. Management skill mastery requires out-of-class skill practice. How to do this is pretty straightforward if you are currently working in an organization, regardless of whether you are an experienced manager or a new, part-time employee. Whether or not you are currently employed, we encourage you to seek out skill practice opportunities in all aspects of your life, including working in assigned teams in this and other courses, planning social events for a campus or community organization, counseling a troubled sibling or friend, managing end-of-semester deadlines, or handling a difficult issue with a boy/girlfriend or spouse. The sooner you begin—and the more you persist in—practicing what you learn in this course, the more you'll be able to count on these skills as "automatic responses" when you need them as a manager.

INSTRUCTOR RESOURCE CENTER

At http://www.pearsonglobaleditions.com/, instructors can easily register to gain access to a variety of instructor resources available with this text in downloadable format. If assistance is needed, our dedicated technical support team is ready to help with the media supplements that accompany this text. Visit https://support.pearson.com/getsupport for answers to frequently asked questions and toll-free user support phone numbers.

The following supplements are available with this text:

- Instructor's Resource Manual
- Test Bank
- TestGen® Computerized Test Bank
- PowerPoint Presentation

This title is available as an eBook and can be purchased at most eBook retailers.

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David A. Whetten
Kim S. Cameron

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SKILL ASSESSMENT

- Stress Management Assessment
- Time Management Assessment
- Social Readjustment Rating Scale
- Sources of Personal Stress
- Flourishing Scale

SKILL LEARNING

- Improving the Management of Stress and Time
- Major Elements of Stress
- Managing Stress
- Eliminating Stressors
- Developing Resiliency and Well-Being
- Temporary Stress-Reduction Techniques
- Summary
- Behavioral Guidelines

SKILL ANALYSIS

- The Case of the Missing Time
- Stress and the Millennial Generation

SKILL PRACTICE

- The Small-Wins Strategy
- Life-Balance Analysis
- Deep Relaxation
- Monitoring and Managing Time
- Reciprocity Exercise

SKILL APPLICATION

- Suggested Assignments
- Application Plan and Evaluation

SCORING KEYS AND COMPARISON DATA

MyLab Management

Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the exercises marked with this icon ✪.

2 Managing Stress and Well-Being

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

1. Eliminate stressors
2. Develop resiliency
3. Cope with stress in the short term
4. Enhance personal well-being

SKILL **ASSESSMENT**

DIAGNOSTIC SURVEYS FOR MANAGING STRESS AND WELL-BEING

MyLab Management Personal Inventory Assessments

PERSONAL INVENTORY ASSESSMENT

The assessment instruments in this chapter are briefly described below. The assessments appear either in your text or in MyLab. The assessments marked with ✪ are available only in MyLab. If assigned, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete these assessments. The assessments without the ✪ appear only in the text.

All assessments should be completed before reading the chapter material.

After completing the first assessment, save your response to your hard drive. When you have finished reading the chapter, re-take the assessment and compare your responses to see what you have learned.

- ✪ ❑ The *Stress Management Assessment* measures the extent to which you effectively manage the various sources of stress in your life and the degree to which you have developed stress management skills.
- ✪ ❑ The *Time Management Assessment* evaluates the degree to which you effectively manage your time and the extent to which you implement effective time management principles.
- ❑ The *Social Readjustment Rating Scale* (SRRS) identifies the relative importance of events that have occurred in your life in the past year. The weightings associated with these events help identify the impact of stress.
- ❑ The *Sources of Personal Stress* instrument personalizes your ratings on the *Social Readjustment Rating Scale* by identifying unique stressors occurring in your life right now.
- ❑ The *Flourishing Scale* measures the extent to which you are experiencing well-being in your life at the present time.

MANAGING STRESS AND WELL-BEING

Assessment Section

Social Readjustment Rating Scale

The SRRS self-assessment helps you identify stressful experiences in your life and understand the level of stress associated with each event, according to research conducted by the authors of the scale.

Rating Scale

Circle any of the following you have experienced in the past year. Using the weightings at the left, total up your score.

Mean Value	Life Event
87	1. Death of spouse/partner
79	2. Death of a close family member
78	3. Major injury to/illness of self

Mean Value	Life Event
76	4. Detention in jail or other institution
72	5. Major injury to/illness of a close family member
71	6. Foreclosure on loan/mortgage
71	7. Divorce
70	8. Being a victim of crime
69	9. Being a victim of police brutality
69	10. Infidelity
69	11. Experiencing domestic violence/sexual abuse
66	12. Separation from or reconciliation with spouse/mate
64	13. Being fired/laid off/unemployed
62	14. Experiencing financial problems/difficulties
61	15. Death of a close friend
59	16. Surviving a disaster
59	17. Becoming a single parent
56	18. Assuming responsibility for a sick or elderly loved one
56	19. Loss of or major reduction in health insurance/benefits
56	20. Self/close family member being arrested for violating the law
53	21. Major disagreement over child support/custody/visitation
53	22. Being involved in an auto accident
53	23. Being disciplined or demoted at work
51	24. Dealing with unwanted pregnancy
50	25. Adult child moving in with parent/parent moving in with adult child
49	26. Child develops behavior or learning problem
48	27. Experiencing employment discrimination or sexual harassment
47	28. Attempting to modify addictive behavior of self
46	29. Discovering/attempting to modify addictive behavior of close family member
45	30. Employer reorganization/downsizing
44	31. Dealing with infertility/miscarriage
43	32. Getting married
43	33. Changing employers/careers
42	34. Failure to obtain/qualify for a mortgage
41	35. Pregnancy of self/spouse/partner
39	36. Experiencing discrimination/harassment outside the workplace
39	37. Release from jail
38	38. Spouse/partner begins/ceases work outside the home
37	39. Major disagreement with boss/coworker
35	40. Change in residence
34	41. Finding appropriate childcare/day care
33	42. Experiencing a large unexpected monetary gain
33	43. Changing positions at work (transfer, promotion)
33	44. Gaining a new family member

Mean Value	Life Event
32	45. Changing work responsibilities
30	46. Child leaving home
30	47. Obtaining a home mortgage
30	48. Obtaining a major loan other than home mortgage
28	49. Retirement
26	50. Beginning/ceasing formal education
22	51. Receiving a ticket for violating the law
_____	Total score for circled items

SOURCE: *Social Readjustment Rating Scale, Hobson, Charles Jo, Joseph Kaen, Jane Szotek, Carol M. Nethercutt, James W. Tiedmann and Susan Wojnarowicz (1998), "Stressful Life Events: A Revision and Update of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale,"* International Journal of Stress Management, *5: 1–23.*

Social Readjustment Rating Scale

College and high school students might find this version of the SRRS more relevant.

Mean Value	Life Event	
1	100	Death of parent
2	100	Unplanned pregnancy/abortion
3	95	Getting married
4	90	Divorce of parents
5	80	Acquiring a visible deformity
6	70	Fathering a child
7	70	Jail sentence of parent for over one year
8	69	Marital separation of parents
9	68	Death of a brother or sister
10	67	Change in acceptance by peers
11	64	Unplanned pregnancy of sister
12	63	Discovery of being an adopted child
13	63	Marriage of parent to stepparent
14	63	Death of a close friend
15	62	Having a visible congenital deformity
16	58	Serious illness requiring hospitalization
17	56	Receiving a failing grade in school
18	55	Not making an extracurricular activity
19	55	Hospitalization of a parent
20	53	Jail sentence of parent for over 30 days
21	53	Breaking up with boyfriend or girlfriend
22	51	Beginning to date
23	50	Suspension from school

Mean Value	Life Event	
24	50	Becoming involved with drugs or alcohol
25	50	Birth of a brother or sister
26	47	Increase in arguments between parents
27	46	Loss of job by parent
28	46	Outstanding personal achievement
29	45	Change in parent's financial status
30	43	Accepted at college of choice
31	42	Being a senior in high school
32	41	Hospitalization of a sibling
33	38	Increased absence of parent from home
34	37	Brother or sister leaving home
35	34	Addition of third adult to family
36	31	Becoming a full-fledged member of a church
37	27	Decrease in arguments between parents
38	26	Decrease in arguments with parents
39	26	Mother or father beginning work
_____		Total score for circled items _____

SOURCE: *Pastorino, E. & Doyle-Portillo, S. (2009):* What Is Psychology? *2nd Ed. Belmont, CA: Thompson Higher Education.*

SOURCES OF PERSONAL STRESS

This stress assessment is designed to complement the SRRS. Please complete that instrument before beginning this one. Adding the stressors you are experiencing at this time to those identified in the SRRS provides a more comprehensive assessment of your current stress level. Consider both the stressors you marked in the SRRS instrument as well as your current experiences right now as you discuss and practice the stress management principles presented in this chapter.

1. Identify the factors that produce the most stress for you right now. What is it that creates feelings of stress in your life?
2. Now give each of these entries a "stress rating," from 1 to 100, indicating the level of stress they are producing. Refer to the weightings used in the SRRS as a guide. A rating of 100, for example, might be associated with the death of a spouse or child, while a rating of 10 might be associated with an annoying "backseat driver" in your carpool.

Source of Stress	Rating
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Flourishing Scale

Researchers have identified several benefits of living a life characterized as "flourishing" (psychological well-being). Through this self-assessment you will better understand the extent to which the following eight attributes of flourishing characterize your current life experience. It is important to respond candidly to this self-diagnostic assessment.

Rating Scale

Below are eight statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), indicate your agreement with each item.

1 Strongly disagree
2 Disgree
3 Slightly disagree
4 Neither disagree nor agree or mixed
5 Slightly agree
6 Agree
7 Strongly agree

_____ 1. I lead a purposeful and meaningful life.
_____ 2. My social relationships are supportive and rewarding.
_____ 3. I am engaged and interested in my daily activities.
_____ 4. I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others.
_____ 5. I am competent and capable in the activities that are important to me.
_____ 6. I am a good person and live a good life.
_____ 7. I am optimistic about my future.
_____ 8. People respect me.
_____ **Total**

Source: © *Used with permission of Ed Diener and Robert Biswas-Diener. In Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi. D., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2009). New measures of well-being: Flourishing and positive and negative feelings.* Social Indicators Research, *39, 247–266.*

SKILL LEARNING

Our goal in this chapter is to help you manage two personal challenges—one is a major inhibitor of effective management, and one is a key facilitator of effective management. The first part of the chapter highlights a common and serious problem for us all—experiencing negative stress. It is difficult to flourish in our activities when we are facing major stressors in our lives, such as overload, anxiety, conflict, tension in relationships, uncertainty, failure, and regret. We highlight ways in which stress can be minimized or eliminated. In the process, we highlight ways in which personal well-being can be fostered. We provide some guidelines for achieving extraordinary personal effectiveness by focusing on enhancements to well-being.

Managing Stress and Fostering Well-Being

Managing stress is a crucial skill in a competent manager's repertoire. Here is why: The American Psychological Association estimates that the problem of stress on the job siphons off more than $500 billion from the nation's economy. More than 50 percent of workers admit to being less productive at work because of stress, and the median number of days missed at work due to stress is 25—significantly above the six days per year missed due to illness or accident. Between 75 and 90 percent of all visits to primary care physicians are for stress-related complaints or disorders.

And things are getting worse. The percentage of workers who report feeling "highly stressed" has more than quadrupled in the past two decades and now exceeds 80 percent.

Stress is the single biggest factor in producing such a devastating and costly effect on workers, managers, and organizations. When we experience stress, it is difficult to pay attention to almost anything else.

Research on the physiological effects of stress shows widespread and devastating effects, including negative impact on the cardiovascular system, the respiratory system, the endocrine system, the gastrointestinal tract, the female reproductive system, reproductive hormones, male reproductive functioning, immunodepression, neurological disorders, addictions, malignancy immune functions with HIV-1, dental pathology, pain, anxiety disorders, and even suicide (Hubbard & Workman, 2002). Almost no part of life or health is immune from the effects of stress.

As an illustration of the effects of job-related stress, consider the following true story reported in Baltimore, Maryland:

> *The stress of the job was getting to the ambulance attendant, not to mention the stress of troubles at home. Long shifts, recurring tragedies, and a dominating boss made his job seem like a boiling cauldron.*
>
> *One night it all blew up.*
>
> *He was riding in the back of the ambulance while his partner drove. Their first call was for a man whose arm had been mangled in a machine shop. His screaming and agony were horrifying, but the second call was worse. It was severe child abuse. As the attendant treated the youngster's bruised body and snapped bones, he thought of his own child at home and his anger escalated. In contrast to the first call, the child only whimpered but bridled at the slightest touch. He wanted to cradle the child in his arms, but he couldn't.*
>
> *Immediately after dropping off the child at the emergency room, they received another call to assist a heart attack victim seen lying in a street. When they arrived, however, they found not a cardiac patient but a drunk. As they lifted the man into the ambulance, their frustration and anger came to a head. They decided to give this guy the ride of his life, a reminder that he was taking up valuable time and resources.*
>
> *They sped down the road, vaulting over railroad tracks at high speed, and taking corners as fast as they could. The drunk wasn't strapped in tightly, so he was flung from side to side in the back. To the attendants, it was all a joke.*
>
> *Suddenly, however, the old man began having a real heart attack. Neither attendant cared. Whatever discomfort he was experiencing, he deserved it. They didn't stop or slow down, and they didn't administer CPR. They simply watched the old man shutter and die. By the time they reached the hospital, they had their stories straight. Dead on arrival, they said. Nothing they could do.*
>
> *The attendant, who must remain anonymous, talked about that night at a recent counseling session on "professional burnout"—a growing problem in high-stress jobs.*

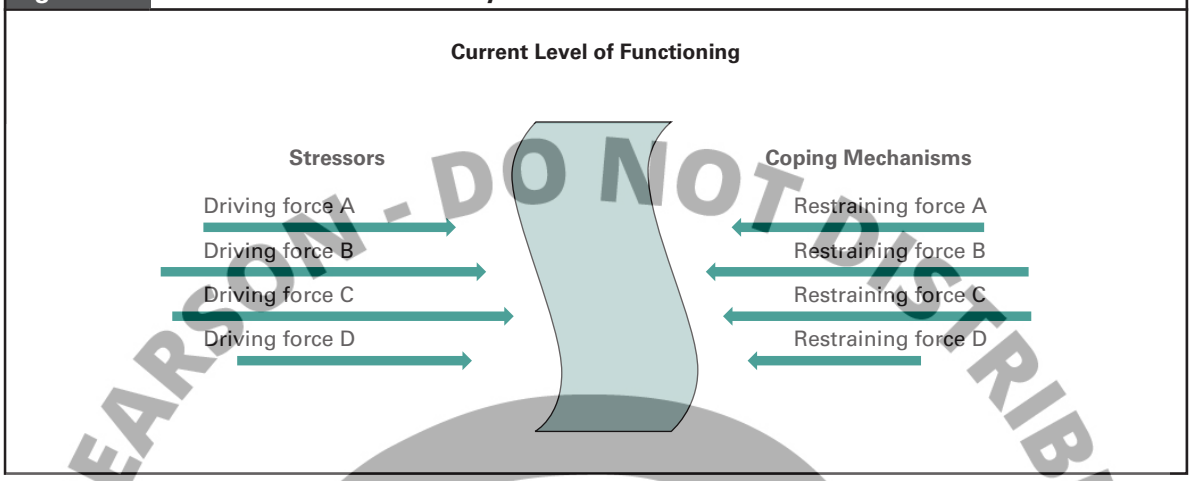
As this story graphically illustrates, when we face substantial stress in our lives, normal behavior and normal decision-making are frequently set aside, and we suffer debilitating effects (Blasco-Fontecilla, et al., 2012; Contrada & Baum, 2011; Ganster & Tosen, 2013; O'Neill & Rothbart, 2015; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Consequently, we spend the first part of this chapter highlighting the major types of negative stress that we all encounter, and then we share ways to cope with and minimize negative stress as well as highlight ways in which personal well-being and resiliency can be enhanced.

We begin our discussion by presenting a framework for understanding stress and identifying the strategies to cope with it. This model explains the major types of stressors, the primary reactions to stress, and the reasons some people experience more negative reactions than others. Then we provide specific examples and behavioral guidelines for eliminating and reducing the negative effects of stress and enhancing psychological and social well-being and resilience.

Major Elements of Stress

One way to understand stress is to think of it as the product of a "force field" (Lewin, 1951). Kurt Lewin suggested that all individuals and organizations exist in an environment filled with reinforcing or opposing forces. These forces act to stimulate or inhibit the performance desired by the individual. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, a person's level of performance in an organization results from factors that may either complement or contradict one another. Certain forces drive

Figure 2.1 Model of Force Field Analysis



or motivate changes in behavior, while other forces restrain or block those changes.

According to Lewin's theory, the forces affecting individuals are normally balanced in the force field. The strength of the driving forces is exactly matched by the strength of the restraining forces. (In the figure, longer arrows indicate stronger forces.) A person's performance changes when the forces become imbalanced. That is, if the driving forces become stronger than the restraining forces, or more numerous or enduring, behavioral change occurs. Conversely, if restraining forces become stronger or more numerous than driving forces, change occurs in the opposite direction, or else people become more and more resistant to change.

Think of stress as represented as driving forces in the model. That is, driving forces exert pressure on the individual to change present levels of performance physiologically, psychologically, and interpersonally. Unrestrained, those forces can lead to pathological results (e.g., anxiety, heart disease, depression, and mental breakdown).

However, most people have developed a certain amount of resiliency—represented by the restraining forces—to counter stressors and inhibit pathological results. These restraining forces include behavior patterns, psychological characteristics, and supportive social relationships. Strong restraining forces lead to low heart rates, good interpersonal relationships, emotional stability, and effective stress management. An absence of restraining forces leads to burnout.

Of course, stress produces positive as well as negative effects. In the absence of any stress, people feel completely bored and lack any inclination to act. Stress is needed to motivate action. However, we are discussing only negative, unproductive stressors in this chapter. Even when high levels of stress are experienced, equilibrium can be restored quickly if there is sufficient resiliency. In the case of the ambulance attendant, for example, multiple stressors overpowered the available restraining forces, and burnout occurred.

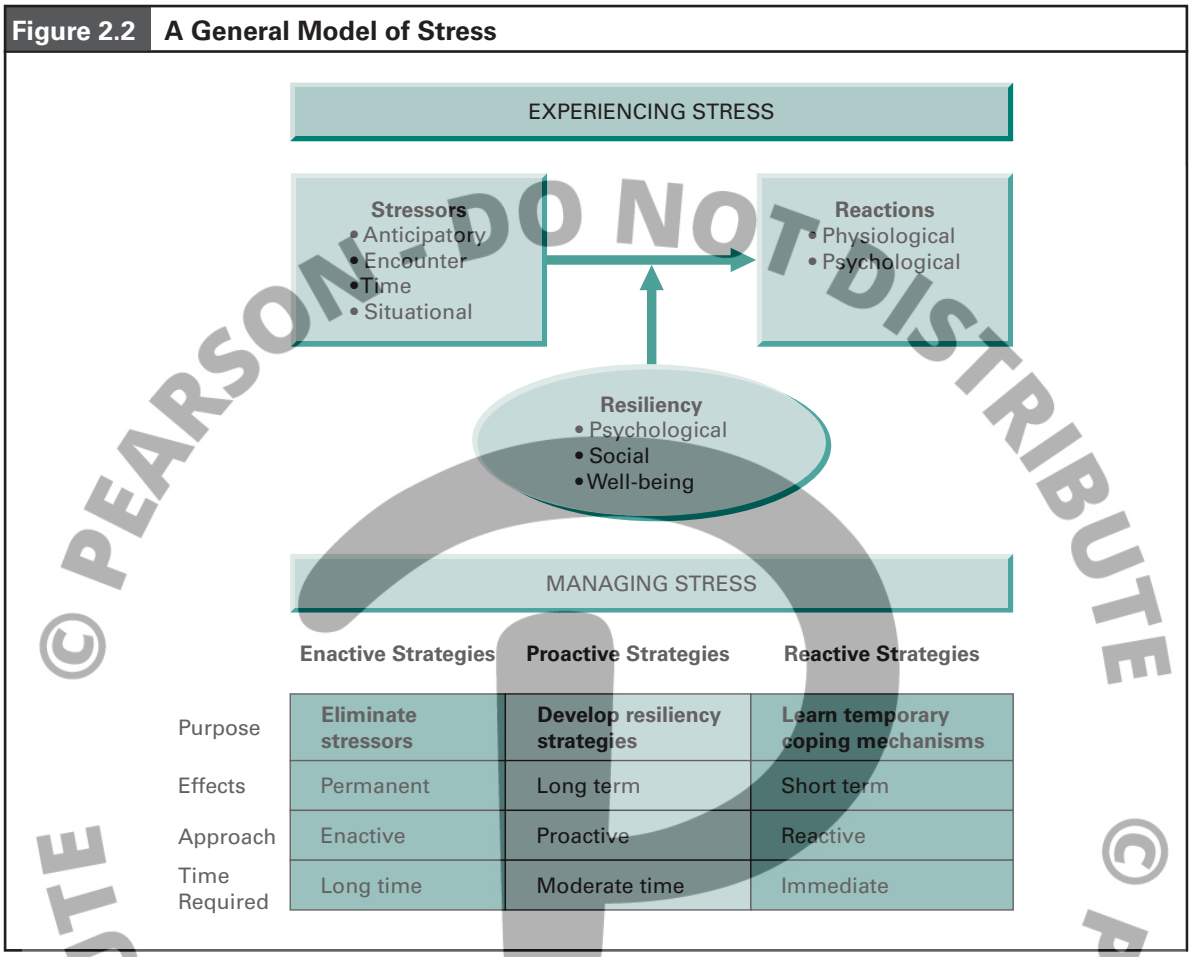
Figure 2.2 identifies the major categories of **stressors** (driving forces) that managers experience as well as the major attributes of resiliency (restraining forces) that inhibit the negative effects of stress. Each of these forces is discussed in this chapter, so it will become clear how to identify stressors, how to eliminate them, how to develop more resiliency, and how to cope with stress on a temporary basis.

COPING WITH STRESS

Using a hierarchy of approaches has been found most effective in managing stress (Eliot, 2010; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Lehrer, 1996). First, the best way to manage stress is to eliminate or minimize stressors with **enactive strategies**. These create, or enact, a new environment for the individual that does not contain the stressors. The second most effective approach is for individuals to enhance their overall capacity to handle stress by increasing their personal resiliency. These are called **proactive strategies** and are designed to initiate action that resists the negative effects of stress. Finally, developing short-term techniques for coping with stressors is necessary when an immediate response is required. These are **reactive strategies**, and they are applied as on-the-spot remedies to temporarily reduce the effects of stress.

Individuals are better off if they can eliminate harmful stressors and the potentially negative effects

Figure 2.2 A General Model of Stress



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of frequent, potent stress reactions. However, because most individuals do not have complete control over their environments or their circumstances, they can seldom eliminate all harmful stressors. Their next-best alternative, therefore, is to develop a greater capacity to withstand the negative effects of stress and to mobilize the energy generated by stressors. This is done by enhancing personal resiliency and well-being. Finally, on a temporary basis, individuals can respond to a negatively stressed state by using constructive strategies such as temporary relaxation techniques and contemplative practices. These reactive strategies can also foster resiliency and enhance well-being if used properly.

Unfortunately, most people reverse the order of these three coping strategies. They rely first on temporary reactive methods to cope with stress because these actions can be implemented immediately. But reactive strategies have to be repeated whenever stressors are encountered, because their effects are short-lived. Moreover, some common reactive strategies, such as drinking, taking sleeping pills, or letting off steam through anger can become habit-forming and harmful themselves. It's important to employ longer-term strategies, because relying on repetitive reactive strategies can create a vicious or addictive cycle.

It takes more effort to develop proactive resiliency strategies and the effects are more long lasting, but resiliency strategies can take time to implement, so the payoff is usually not immediate. The best and most permanent strategies are those that eliminate negative stressors altogether. They require the longest time to implement, but because stress is abolished, the payoff is enduring (Stranks, 2013).

MyLab Management Watch it!

If your instructor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the video exercise.

Managing Stressors

Table 2.1 lists the four main types of stressors illustrated in the story of the ambulance attendant. The first, **time stressors**, generally result from having too much to do in too little time. These are the most common and most pervasive sources of stress faced by managers in corporations (Eliot, 2010; Robinson & Godbey, 2010). As might be expected, significant relationships exist between the presence of time stressors and job dissatisfaction, tension, perceived threat, increased heart rate, high cholesterol levels, skin resistance, and other factors (Contrada & Baum, 2011).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, time stressors are experienced differently in different national cultures (Trompenaars, 2011; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998), so some cultures, such as those in Australia, Brazil, India, Ireland, the Philippines, and the United States, experience more time stress because of their emphasis on a short time horizon. In cultures with a longer time horizon (e.g., Austria, Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Portugal, and Sweden), the immediacy of time demands is less prevalent.

Encounter stressors are those that result from interpersonal interactions. Most people have experienced the debilitating effects of a quarrel with a friend, roommate, or spouse; of trying to work with an employee or supervisor with whom there has been an interpersonal conflict; or of trying to accomplish a task in a group divided by lack of trust.

Table 2.1 Four Key Sources of Stress

Time Stressors
• Work overload
• Lack of control
Encounter Stressors
• Role conflicts
• Issue conflicts
• Action conflicts
Situational Stressors
• Unfavorable working conditions
• Rapid change
Anticipatory Stressors
• Unpleasant expectations
• Fear

Each of these stressors results from some kind of conflictual interpersonal encounter. Our own research has revealed that encounter stressors in organizations have significant negative effects on productivity and satisfaction (Bright, Cameron, & Caza, 2006; Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004; Cameron, et al., 2011), and encounter stressors have been found by other researchers to be at the very heart of most organizational dysfunction (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006). Differences have also been discovered among national cultures with regard to encounter stressors (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004) in that *egalitarian* cultures that emphasize interpersonal relationships as a way to accomplish work (e.g., Finland, Ireland, Norway, and the United States) and *affectivity* cultures that emphasize the public display of emotions (e.g., Iran and Mexico rather than China and Japan) have more encounter stress in the workplace.

The third category of stressors, **situational stressors**, arises from the environment in which a person lives or from an individual's circumstances. One of the most common forms of situational stress is unfavorable working conditions. For the ambulance attendant, these included continual crises, long hours, and isolation from colleagues.

One of the well-researched links between situational stressors and negative consequences involves rapid change, particularly the effects of changes in life events (Blasco-Fontecilla, et al., 2012; Holmes & Rahe, 1970). The Social Readjustment Rating Scale tracks the number of changes individuals have experienced over the past 12 months. Since some life-event changes are more stressful than others, a scaling method is used to assign weights to each life event. Hobson and colleagues (1998) revised the SRRS so that the weightings of individual items have been updated to match the modern environment, and we included the revised instrument in the Assessment section of this chapter. More than 5,000 studies have been published just since 1995 among a variety of cultures, age groups, and occupations using this SRRS instrument (Goldberger & Breznitz, 2010). (You will note that two different versions of the SRRS are reproduced in the Assessment section—one for adults, and one for nonadults. You should have completed the appropriate version(s) of the instrument in the Assessment section.)

Statistical relationships between the amount of life-event change and physical illness and injury have been found consistently among a wide variety of individuals. High scores are strongly associated with illness and/or injury, whereas people with low scores are much less

likely to experience illness or injury. For example, in the general population, a score of 150 points or below results in a probability of less than 37 percent that the person will suffer a serious illness or injury in the next year, but the probability increases to about 50 percent with scores of 150–300. Those who score over 300 on the SRRS have an 80 percent chance of serious illness or injury (Blasco-Fontecilla, et al., 2012; Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Kobasa, 1979; Miller & Rasmussen, 2010; Scully, Tosi, & Banning, 2000).

Several studies have been conducted using college and high school athletes to determine if life-event change is related to injury as well as to illness. One study found that college athletes with the lowest scores on the SRRS had a rate of injury (causing them to miss three or more practices) of 35 percent. Those with medium scores had an injury rate of 44 percent, and those with high scores were injured at a rate of 72 percent. Another study showed an athlete injury rate five times as great for high scorers on the SRRS as for low scorers. Still another study found a significant increase in minor physiological symptoms such as headache, nausea, fever, backache, eyestrain, and so forth among high scorers on the SRRS (Andersen & Williams, 1999; Bramwell, et al., 1975; Coddington & Troxell, 1980; Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Scully, Tosi, & Banning, 2000).

We must point out, of course, that scoring high on the SRRS does not necessarily guarantee that a person is going to become ill or be injured. A variety of coping skills and personal characteristics may counteract those tendencies. The point is that situational stressors are important factors to consider in learning to manage stress skillfully.

Anticipatory stressors, the fourth category, include potentially disagreeable events that threaten to occur—unpleasant things that have not yet happened, but might happen. Stress results from the anticipation or fear of the event. In the case of the ambulance attendant, the constant threat of anticipating having to witness more human suffering or death served as an anticipatory stressor. Anticipatory stressors need not be highly unpleasant or severe to produce stress. Investigators have induced high levels of stress by telling individuals that they would experience a loud noise or a mild shock or that someone else might become uncomfortable because of their actions (Milgram, 1963). Fear of failure or fear of embarrassment in front of peers is a common anticipatory stressor. Anxieties about losing a job or not being accepted or liked by colleagues have been identified as common stress producers as well.

Table 2.2 Management Strategies for Eliminating Stressors

Type of Stressor	Elimination Strategy
Time	Effective time management Efficient time management
Encounter	Building community Contributing Emotional and social intelligence
Situational	Work redesign
Anticipatory	Goal setting Small wins

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Eliminating Stressors

Because eliminating stressors is a permanent stress reduction strategy, it is by far the most desirable. Although it is impossible, and even undesirable, for individuals to eliminate all the stressors they encounter, they can effectively eliminate those that are harmful. Table 2.2 outlines several ways to eliminate each of the four types of stressors.

ELIMINATING TIME STRESSORS THROUGH TIME MANAGEMENT

As pointed out earlier, time is usually the greatest source of stress for managers. With a proliferation of books about time management, organizers, consultants, efficiency enhancers, and technological time-savers, you'd expect most of us to be pretty good at managing our time. We certainly have all the gadgets and advice we can use. The trouble is, most of us are getting worse. Just look around you. Who do you know that is a terrific time manager, who isn't overloaded, or who doesn't complain about being stressed because of time?

It's no surprise that time stress is escalating because of the rapidity of change and the overwhelming amounts of information that people encounter in the twenty-first century. In one study, two-thirds of the respondents indicated a desire to put more emphasis on "having free time" (Davidson, 1995). Time stress is an almost universal complaint of practicing managers who face between 237 and 1,073 separate incidents in a day.

Two sets of skills are important for effectively managing time and for eliminating time stressors. One set focuses on *efficiently* using time each day. The other set focuses on *effectively* using time over the long term. Because the effectiveness approach to time management serves as the foundation for the efficiency approach, we explain it first. Then we review some techniques for achieving efficiency in time use.

Effective Time Management

Almost everyone suffers now and then from a pervasive feeling of time stress. Somehow, no matter how much time is available, it seems to get filled up and squeezed out. Currently, the most commonly prescribed solutions for attacking problems of time stress are to use calendars and planners, generate to-do lists, and learn to say no. Almost all of us have tried such tactics but continue to experience enormous time stress. This is not to say that calendars, lists, and saying no are not useful. They are examples, however, of an efficiency approach to time management rather than an effectiveness approach. In eliminating time stressors, efficiency without effectiveness is fruitless.

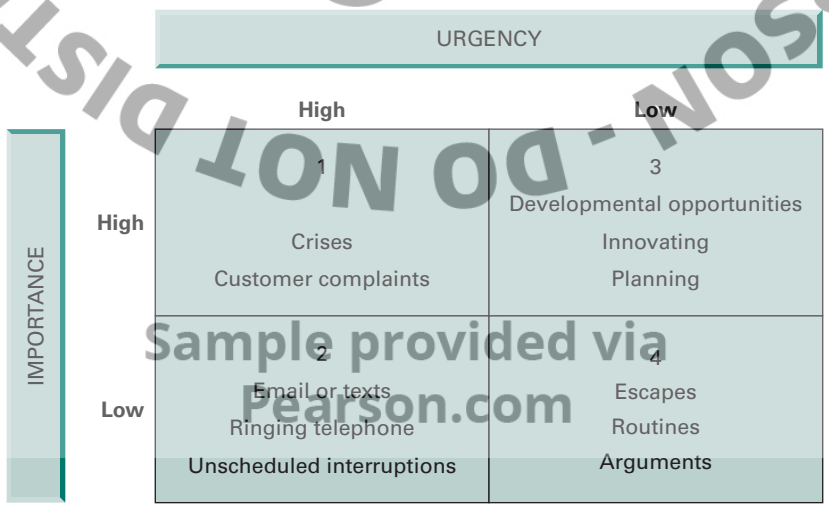
Managing time with an effectiveness approach means that (1) we spend our time on important matters, not just urgent matters; (2) we are able to distinguish clearly between what is important and what is merely urgent; (3) results, rather than methods, are the objectives; and (4) we have a reason not to feel guilty when we must say no.

A number of time management experts have pointed out the usefulness of a "time management matrix" in which activities are categorized in terms of their relative importance and urgency (Covey, 1989; Lakein, 1989). *Important* activities are those that produce a desired result. They accomplish a valued end, or they achieve a meaningful purpose. *Urgent* activities are those that demand immediate attention. They are associated with a need expressed by someone else, or they relate to an uncomfortable problem or situation that requires a solution as soon as possible. Figure 2.3 outlines this matrix and provides examples of types of activities that fit in each quadrant.

Activities such as handling employee crises or customer complaints are both urgent and important (Cell 1). A ringing telephone or the arrival of emails, texts, or unscheduled interruptions might be examples of urgent but potentially unimportant activities (Cell 2). Important but nonurgent activities include developmental opportunities, innovating, planning, and so on (Cell 3). Unimportant and nonurgent activities are escapes and routines that people may pursue but that produce little valuable payoff: for example, small talk, daydreaming, shuffling paper, or arguing (Cell 4).

Activities in the Important/Urgent quadrant (Cell 1) usually dominate our lives. The trouble is, these activities require us to merely react. They are usually controlled by someone else, and they may or may not lead to a result we want to achieve.

Figure 2.3 Types of Activities That Determine Time Use



The problem is even worse in the Unimportant/Urgent quadrant (Cell 2). Demands by others that serve only as deflections or interruptions to our own agenda only escalate a sense of time stress. Because these demands may not achieve results that are meaningful, purposeful, and important, feelings of overload and loss of control can be guaranteed. When such time stressors are experienced over an extended period of time, we often try to escape into Unimportant/Nonurgent activities (Cell 4) to relieve the stress. We put everything on hold to escape, but, by doing so, often exacerbate our time stress.

A more effective alternative is to focus on activities in the Important/Nonurgent quadrant (Cell 3). Activities that are Important/Nonurgent might be labeled "opportunities" instead of "problems." They are oriented toward accomplishing high-priority results. By focusing on these activities you may prevent problems from occurring rather than just being forced to react to them. Preparation, preventive maintenance, planning, personal development, providing support to another person, and organizing are all "non-have-to" activities that are crucial for long-term success. Because they are not urgent, however, they often get driven out of our schedules. Important/Nonurgent activities should be the top priority on the time management agenda. By ensuring that these kinds of activities get priority, you can reduce the number of urgent problems you encounter. Time stressors can be eliminated.

One of the most difficult, yet crucially important, decisions you must make in managing time effectively is determining what is important to you and what is urgent. There are no rules for dividing all activities, demands, or opportunities into those neat categories. Problems don't come with an "Important/Nonurgent" tag attached. In fact, every problem or time demand is important to someone. But if you let others determine what is and is not important, you will never effectively manage your time.

Barry Sullivan, former CEO at First Chicago, for example, reorganized the way he managed his time. Instead of leaving his appointments calendar in the control of his secretary, he personally determined what activities he wanted to accomplish, then he allocated specific blocks of time to work on those activities. Only then did he make his calendar available to his secretary to schedule other appointments.

Jan Timmer, former CEO of Philips Electronics, assigned an auditor to keep track of the way he used his time. He reported quarterly to the entire company the percent of his time he spent on key company objectives, ensuring that important priorities got the greatest amount of his time.

Priorities and Core Values

The question remains, however: How can we make certain that we focus on activities that are important, not just urgent? To help you clarify your important priorities, consider the following questions:

- What do I stand for? What am I willing to die (or live) for?
- What do I care passionately about?
- What legacy would I like to leave? What do I want to be remembered for?
- What do I want to have accomplished 20 years from now?
- What are my signature character strengths, and how do I want to demonstrate them?

Answering these questions can help you create a personal principles statement. This is an articulation of the criteria you use for evaluating what is important in your life. Other people generally help determine what is urgent. But judging importance must be done in relation to a set of personal principles and values. Table 2.3 presents two different types of personal principles statements. They are provided as examples of the kinds of principles statements you can write for yourself.

Basing time management on core principles that serve to determine the importance of activities is also the key to being able to say no without feeling guilty. When you have decided what it is that you care about passionately, what it is you most want to accomplish, and what legacy you want to leave, you can more easily say no to activities that aren't congruent with those principles. Effectiveness in time management, then, means that you accomplish what you *want* to accomplish with your time. *How* you achieve those accomplishments relates to efficiency of time use, to which we now turn.

Efficient Time Management

In addition to approaching time management from the point of view of effectiveness (i.e., aligning time use with core personal principles), it is also important to adopt an efficiency point of view (i.e., accomplishing more by reducing wasted time). Many techniques are available to help managers more efficiently utilize the time they have each day.

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Table 2.3 Examples of Personal Principles Statements

From Mahatma Gandhi

Let then our first act every morning be to make the following resolve for the day:

- I shall not fear anyone on Earth.
- I shall fear only God.
- I shall not bear ill will toward anyone.
- I shall not submit to injustice from anyone.
- I shall conquer untruth by truth.
- And in resisting untruth I shall put up with all suffering.

From William Rolfe Kerr

Prime Personal and Professional Principles:

- Succeed at home first.
- Seek and merit Divine help.
- Never compromise with honesty.
- Remember the people involved.
- Plan tomorrow today.
- Develop one new proficiency a year.
- Attain visibility by productivity.
- Hustle while I wait.
- Facilitate the success of my colleagues.
- Pursue excellence in all my endeavors.
- Be sincere and gentle yet decisive.
- Be a creative and innovative person.
- Don't fear mistakes.
- Concentrate all abilities on the task at hand.
- Obtain the counsel of others.
- Defend those who are absent.
- Listen twice as much as I speak.
- Be orderly in work and person.
- Maintain a positive attitude and sense of humor.

One way to enhance efficient time use is to be alert to your own tendencies to use time inefficiently. The list of propositions in Table 2.4 shows general patterns of behavior for most individuals in their use of time. In many situations, these tendencies may represent appropriate responses. In others, they may get in the way of efficient time management and increase time stressors unless individuals are aware of them and their possible consequences.

To help you identify your own time management practices and to help you determine the efficiency with which you use your time, we included in the Assessment section an instrument to help you diagnose your time management competency: the Time Management Survey. The principles in the survey have all been derived from research on time management, and the scoring information will show you how well you manage your time compared to others. The rules set forth below correspond to the item numbers in the assessment survey.

Of course, no individual can or should implement all of these time management techniques at once. It would be overwhelming. Therefore, it is best to select just a few of these techniques that will lead to the most improvement in your use of time. Saving just 10 percent more time or using an extra 30 minutes a day more wisely can produce astounding results over months and years, in addition to reducing your time stress.

Rule 1 Read selectively. Most reading should be done the way you read a newspaper; that is, skim most of it, but stop to read what seems most important. If you underline or highlight what you find important, you can review it quickly when you need to.

Rule 2 Make a list of things to accomplish today. Focus on what you want to achieve, not just on what you want to do.

Rule 3 Have a place for everything, and keep everything in its place. Letting things get out of place robs you of time in two ways: You need more time to find something when you need it, and you are tempted to interrupt the task you are doing to do something else.

Rule 4 Prioritize your tasks. Each day you should focus first on important tasks, and then deal with urgent tasks.

Rule 5 Do one important thing at a time but several trivial things simultaneously. You can accomplish a lot by doing more than one thing at a time when tasks are routine, trivial, or require little thought.

Rule 6 Make a list of some 5- or 10-minute discretionary tasks. This helps you make good use of the small bits of time almost everyone has during his or her day (waiting for something to begin, between meetings or events, talking on the telephone, etc.).

Table 2.4 Typical Patterns of Time Use

- We do what we like to do before we do what we don't like to do.
- We do the things we know how to do before the things we do not know how to do.
- We do the things that are easiest before things that are difficult.
- We do things that require a little time before things that require a lot of time.
- We do things for which the resources are available.
- We do things that are scheduled (e.g., meetings) before nonscheduled things.
- We sometimes do things that are planned before things that are unplanned.
- We respond to demands from others before demands from ourselves.
- We do things that are urgent before things that are important.
- We readily respond to crises and to emergencies.
- We do interesting things before uninteresting things.
- We do things that advance our personal objectives or that are politically expedient.
- We wait until a deadline before we really get moving.
- We do things that provide the most immediate closure.
- We respond on the basis of who wants it.
- We respond on the basis of the consequences to us of doing or not doing something.
- We tackle small jobs before large jobs.
- We work on things in the order of arrival.
- We work on the basis of the squeaky-wheel principle (the squeaky wheel gets the grease).
- We work on the basis of consequences to the group.

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Rule 7 Divide up large projects. This helps you avoid feeling overwhelmed by large, important, urgent tasks.

Rule 8 Determine the critical 20 percent of your tasks. Pareto's law states that only 20 percent of your time produces 80 percent of your results.

Rule 9 Save your best time for important matters. Do routine work when your energy level is low, your mind is not sharp, or you aren't on top of things. Reserve your high-energy time for accomplishing the most important and urgent tasks.

Rule 10 Reserve some time during the day when others don't have access to you. Use this time to accomplish Important/Nonurgent tasks, or spend it just thinking.

Rule 11 Don't procrastinate. If you do certain tasks promptly, they will require less time and effort than if you put them off.

Rule 12 Keep track of your time. This is one of the best time management strategies. Write down how you use your time each hour over a sustained period.

Rule 13 Set deadlines. Work always expands to fill the time available, so if you don't specify a termination time, tasks tend to continue longer than they need to.

Rule 14 Do something productive while waiting. Try reading, planning, preparing, rehearsing, reviewing, outlining, or memorizing.

Rule 15 Do busywork at only one set time during the day. Reserve your best time for nontrivial tasks.

Rule 16 Reach closure on at least one thing every day. Finishing a task, even a small one, produces a sense of relief and releases stress.

Rule 17 Schedule some personal time. You need some time when no interruptions will occur, when you can get off the "fast track" for a while and be alone.

Rule 18 Allow yourself to worry only at a specified time and avoid dwelling on a worrisome issue at other times.

Rule 19 Write down long-term objectives. You can be efficient and organized but still accomplish nothing unless you have a clear direction in mind.

Rule 20 Be on the alert for ways to improve your management of time. Read a list of time management hints periodically.

Efficient Time Management for Managers

The following list of rules applies to managers at work. The first nine rules deal with conducting meetings, since managers report that approximately 50 to 70 percent of their time is spent in meetings (Dockweiller, 2018; Mintzberg, 1973; Panko, 1992).

Rule 1 Hold routine meetings at the end of the day. Energy and creativity levels are highest early in the day and shouldn't be wasted on trivial matters. Furthermore, an automatic deadline—quitting time—will set a time limit on the meeting.

Rule 2 Hold short meetings standing up. This guarantees that meetings will be kept short.

Rule 3 Set a time limit. Identify when the meeting will end at the beginning of every meeting and appointment.

Rule 4 Cancel meetings once in a while. Meetings should be held only if they can achieve a specific objective.

Rules 5, 6, and 7 Have agendas, stick to them, and keep track of time. Keep track of assignments so that they are not forgotten, so that that follow-up and accountability occur, and so that everyone is clear about expectations.

Rule 8 Start meetings on time. Starting on time rather than waiting for laggards rewards people who are prompt.

Rule 9 Prepare minutes of the meeting and follow up. Commitments and expectations made public through minutes are more likely to be fulfilled.

Rule 10 Insist that subordinates suggest solutions to problems. This eliminates the tendency toward upward delegation, or for subordinates to pass along their problems to you, and it allows you to choose among subordinates' alternatives rather than generate your own.

Rule 11 Meet visitors in the doorway. It is easier to keep a meeting short if you are standing in the doorway rather than sitting in your office.

Rule 12 Go to subordinates' offices for brief meetings if it is practical. This helps you control the length of a meeting by being free to leave when you choose.

Rule 13 Don't overschedule the day. You should stay in control of at least some of your time each workday.

Rule 14 Have someone else answer telephone calls and scan email, or set your computer filters so that you do not receive irrelevant messages.

Rule 15 Have a place to work uninterrupted. This helps guarantee that when a deadline is near, you can concentrate on your task without disruption.

Rule 16 Do something definite with every piece of paperwork handled. Sometimes this means throwing it away.

Rule 17 Keep your workspace clean. This minimizes distractions and reduces the time it takes to find things.

Rules 18, 19, and 20 Delegate work, identify the amount of initiative recipients should take with the tasks they are assigned, and give others credit for their successes. These rules all relate to effective delegation, a key time management technique. These last three rules are also discussed in the Empowering and Engaging Others chapter in this text.

Remember that these techniques for managing time are a means to an end, not the end itself. If trying to implement techniques creates more, rather than less, stress, they should not be applied. However, research has indicated that managers who use these kinds of techniques have better control of their time, accomplish more, have better relations with subordinates, and eliminate many of the time stressors most managers ordinarily encounter (Allen & Fallows, 2015; Robinson & Godbey, 2010; Sitzmann & Johnson, 2012). Saving just 30 minutes a day amounts to one full year of extra free time during your working lifetime. That's 8,760 hours of free time! You will find that as you select a few of these hints to apply in your own life, the efficiency of your time use will improve and your time stress will decrease.

ELIMINATING ENCOUNTER STRESSORS THROUGH COMMUNITY, CONTRIBUTION, AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Dissatisfying relationships with others, particularly with a direct manager or supervisor, are prime causes of job stress among workers. (This topic is discussed in more depth in Chapter 4.) Encounter stressors result directly

from abrasive, conflictual, nonfulfilling relationships. Even when work is going smoothly, if encounter stress is present, everything else can seem wrong. It is difficult to maintain positive energy when you are at odds with someone, when you feel offended, or when feelings of acceptance and amiability aren't typical of your important relationships at work.

Community

One important factor that helps eliminate encounter stress is a closely knit group or community. When people feel a part of a group, or accepted by someone else, stress is relieved. For example, 35 years ago Dr. Stewart Wolf found that in the town of Roseto, Pennsylvania, residents were completely free from heart disease and other stress-related illnesses. He suspected that their protection sprang from the town's uncommon social cohesion and stability. The town's population consisted entirely of descendants of Italians who had moved there 100 years earlier from Roseto, Italy. Few married outside the community, the firstborn was always named after a grandparent, conspicuous consumption and displays of superiority were avoided, and social support among community members was a way of life.

Wolf predicted that residents would begin to display the same level of stress-related illnesses as the rest of the country if the modern world intruded. It did, and they did. Residents in Roseto purchased Cadillacs and ranch-style homes, produced mixed marriages, introduced new names, and engaged in competition with one another, and their rate of coronary disease increased until it was the same as any other town's (Farnham, 1991). They had ceased to be a cohesive, collaborative clan and instead had become a community of selfishness and exclusivity. Self-centeredness, it was discovered, is dangerous to one's health.

A similar discovery was made when military practices in the Vietnam War and the Persian Gulf War were compared. In Vietnam, teams of soldiers did not stay together and did not form strong bonds. The constant injection of new personnel into squadrons and the constant transfer of soldiers from one location to another made soldiers feel isolated, without loyalty, and vulnerable to stress-related illnesses. In the Persian Gulf, by contrast, soldiers were kept in the same unit throughout the campaign, were brought home together, and were given lots of time to debrief together after the battle. Using a closely knit group to provide interpretation of, and social support for, behavior was found to be the most powerful deterrent to post-battle trauma. According to David Marlowe, former chief of the department of military psychiatry at Walter Reed Army Institute of Research, "Squad members are encouraged to use travel time en route home from a war zone to talk about their battlefield experience. It helps them detoxify. That's why we brought them back in groups from Desert Storm. Epistemologically, we know it works" (Farnham, 1991).

Developing close relationships with others is a powerful deterrent to encounter stress. One way of developing this kind of relationship is by applying a concept described by Stephen Covey (1989)—an emotional bank account. Covey used this metaphor to describe the trust or feeling of security that one person develops for another. The more "deposits" made in an emotional bank account, the stronger and more resilient the relationship becomes. Conversely, too many "withdrawals" from the account weaken relationships by destroying trust, security, and confidence.

"Deposits" are made through treating people with kindness, courtesy, honesty, and consistency. The emotional bank account grows when people feel they are receiving love, respect, and caring. "Withdrawals" are made by not keeping promises, not listening, not clarifying expectations, showing irritation, crossing the "sensitive line," or not allowing choice. Because disrespect and autocratic rule devalue people and destroy a sense of self-worth, relationships are ruined because the bank account becomes overdrawn.

The more interactions between people, the more deposits must be made in the emotional bank account. When you see an old friend after years of absence, you can often pick up right where you left off, because the emotional bank account has not been touched. But when you interact with someone frequently, the relationship is constantly fed or depleted. Cues from everyday interactions are interpreted as either deposits or withdrawals. When the emotional account is well stocked, mistakes, disappointments, and minor abrasions are easily forgiven and ignored. But when no reserve exists, those incidents may become creators of distrust, contention, and stress.

One of the most important ways to make deposits into the emotional bank account is by making contributions to the well-being of others. This principle can be illustrated by studies conducted at the University of Michigan.

Contribution

In one study, Crocker and Park (2004) followed entering freshmen at the university for a year. At the beginning of the first semester, students were asked to identify their goals for the year. Students identified goals that could be categorized into two types. Most people possess both

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kinds of goals, but one or the other type tends to predominate. One type of goal is called an achievement goal. This is an emphasis on achieving desired outcomes, obtaining rewards, accomplishing something that brings self-satisfaction, enhancing self-esteem, or creating a positive self-image in the eyes of others (e.g., getting good grades, making the team, and being popular).

The other type of goal focused on providing a benefit to others or on making a contribution. This type of goal centers on what individuals can give compared to what they can get (assisting others, helping to make something better, fostering improvement in something). Contribution goals are motivated more by benevolence than by a desire for acquisition. The researchers found that goals focused on contributing to others produced a growth orientation in individuals over time, whereas self-interest goals produced a proving orientation over time (Crocker, et al., 2006).

These students were monitored for one academic year in terms of how well they got along with roommates, how many times they missed class, how many minor physiological symptoms occurred (e.g., headache, nausea, cramps), how many leadership positions they attained, their grade point averages, and so forth. On every outcome, contribution goals led to higher performance than achievement goals. The study found that contribution goals led to significantly more learning and development; higher levels of interpersonal trust; more supportive relationships; and less stress, depression, and loneliness than did achievement or self-interest goals (Crocker, et al., 2006).

These findings are reinforced by a study by Brown and colleagues (2003, 2006) of patients being treated with kidney dialysis machines. The study focused on two different factors. One was the extent to which the patients were receiving love, support, and encouragement from others (such as family members). The other was the extent to which the patients were providing love, support, and encouragement to others. Even though they were immobile and could not physically respond, patients enjoyed better health when they felt they were contributing to the well-being of others through support, love, and encouragement compared to when they were receiving these things. Contribution-focused goals produced significantly more mental, emotional, and physiological benefits than achievement-focused goals (also see Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2015).

In studies of the language that people use to describe their work experiences, Pennebaker (2002) found that a predominance of the word *we* was associated with less stress, more meaningful relationships, and higher levels of satisfaction in work than the predominance of the word *I*. In other words, by shifting our focus from achievement to contribution we can combat and overcome encounter stress. We make deposits in the emotional bank account of relationships when we focus on offering contributions to others' well-being rather than focusing mainly on getting what we want.

Social and Emotional Intelligence

As we mentioned in Chapter 1, *emotional intelligence* has become the catchall phrase that incorporates multiple intelligences—for example, practical intelligence, abstract intelligence, moral intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, spiritual intelligence, mechanical intelligence, and social intelligence (Gardner, 1993; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Sternberg, 1997). Emotional intelligence consists of a recognition and control of one's own emotions (personal) and the recognition and appropriate response to the behaviors and responses of others (social). Not surprisingly, emotional and social intelligence represent important skills in helping people manage the stresses that arise from interpersonal encounters (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle, et al., 2011).

The social aspect of emotional intelligence refers to the ability to effectively manage relationships with other people. It consists of four main dimensions:

1. An accurate perception of others' emotional and behavioral responses.
2. The ability to cognitively and emotionally understand and relate to others' responses.
3. Social knowledge, or an awareness of what is appropriate social behavior.
4. Social problem-solving, or the ability to manage interpersonal difficulties.

The form of intelligence with which most people are familiar is cognitive intelligence, also known as IQ. By and large, cognitive intelligence is beyond our control, especially after the first few years of life. It is a product of the gifts with which we were born or our genetic code. Above a certain threshold level, the correlation between IQ and success in life (e.g., achieving high occupational positions, accumulated wealth, luminary awards, satisfaction with life, performance ratings by peers and superiors) is essentially zero. Very smart people have no greater likelihood of achieving success in life or of achieving personal happiness than people with low IQ scores (Goleman, 1998; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Sternberg, 1997). On the other hand, social and emotional intelligence have strong positive correlations to success in life and to reduced encounter stress (Goleman, 1994; Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle, et al., 2011).

For example, in a study at Stanford University, four-year-old children were involved in activities that tested aspects of their emotional intelligence. In one study, a marshmallow was placed in front of them, and they were given two choices: eat it now, or wait until the adult supervisor returned from running an errand, then the child would get two marshmallows. A follow-up study with these same children 14 years later, upon graduation from high school, found that students who demonstrated more emotional intelligence (i.e., controlled their own desires and postponed gratification in the marshmallow task) were less likely to fall apart under stress, became less irritated and less stressed by interpersonally abrasive people, were more likely to accomplish their goals, and scored an average of 210 points higher on the SAT college entrance exam (Shoda, Mischel, & Peake, 1990). The IQ scores of the students did not differ significantly, but the emotional intelligence scores were considerably different. In findings that were consistent with other studies, emotional and social intelligence predicted success in life for these students as well as the ability to handle encounter stress.

In another study, when managers were able to accurately identify others' emotions and respond to them, they were found to be more successful in their personal lives as well as in their work lives (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990; Rosenthal, 1977), and were evaluated as the most desired and competent managers (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994).

So how does one develop social and emotional intelligence? The answer is neither simple nor simplistic. Each chapter in this book contains some suggested answers to this question. The skills we help you develop are among the most important competencies that comprise social and emotional intelligence. In other words, by improving your abilities in the management skills covered in this book—for example self-awareness, problem-solving, supportive communication, motivating self and others, managing conflict, empowering others, team-building, and so on—your social and emotional competence scores will increase.

This is important, because a national survey of workers found that employees who rated their manager as supportive and interpersonally competent had lower rates of burnout, lower stress levels, lower incidence of stress-related illnesses, higher productivity, more loyalty to their organizations, and more efficiency in work than employees with nonsupportive and interpersonally incompetent managers (Cote & Miners, 2006; NNL, 1992). The impact of managers on their employees is profound and In his book, *Dying for a Paycheck* (2018), Jeff Pfeffer reports voluminous data indicating that the incidence of chronic illness, workplace violence, debilitating anxiety, life expectancy, and suicide rates all can be traced directly to the supportiveness of managers and the relationships they form with their employees.

ELIMINATING SITUATIONAL STRESSORS THROUGH WORK REDESIGN

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For decades, researchers in the area of occupational health have examined the relationship between job strain and stress-related behavioral, psychological, and physiological outcomes.

A review of this research suggests that the single most important contributor to stress that arises from the job is lack of freedom (Greenberger & Stasser, 1991; Lin, et al., 2013; Wheatley, 2017). One study found that lack of autonomy at work was a stronger predictor of coronary heart disease than any other factor (Mammot, et al., 1997). In a study of administrators, engineers, and scientists at the Goddard Space Flight Center, researchers found that individuals provided with more discretion in making decisions about assigned tasks experienced fewer time stressors (e.g., role overload), situational stressors (e.g., role ambiguity), encounter stressors (e.g., interpersonal conflict), and anticipatory stressors (e.g., job-related threats). Individuals without discretion and participation experienced significantly more stress.

In response to these dynamics, Hackman and colleagues (1975) proposed a model of job redesign that has proved effective in reducing stress and in increasing satisfaction and productivity. A detailed discussion of this job redesign model is provided in Chapter 5. The model identifies ways to design work so that people flourish and avoid situational stress. It consists of five factors: **skill variety** (the opportunity to use multiple skills in performing work), **task identity** (the opportunity to complete a whole task), **task significance** (the opportunity to see the impact of the work being performed), **autonomy** (the opportunity to choose how and when the work will be done), and **feedback** (the opportunity to receive information on the success of task accomplishment). That is, to eliminate situational stressors at work, foster these five factors in these ways:

Combine Tasks When individuals are able to work on a whole project and perform a variety of related tasks (e.g., programming all components of a computer software package) rather than being restricted to working on a single repetitive task or subcomponent of a larger task, they are more satisfied and committed.

Form Identifiable Work Units Building on the first step, when teams of individuals performing related

tasks are formed and can decide how to complete the work, stress decreases dramatically (for example, assembling an entire component from start to finish, rather than doing separate tasks as on an assembly line). Workers learn one another's jobs, rotate assignments, and experience a sense of completion in their work.

Establish Customer Relationships One of the most enjoyable parts of a job is seeing the fruits of one's labor. In most organizations, people who do the work are not given a chance to interact with customers or end users, but they perform much better if they do so (Oldham, 2012).

Increase Decision-Making Authority Being able to influence the what, when, and how of work increases an individual's feelings of control. Cameron, Freeman, and Mishra (1991) found a significant decrease in experienced stress in firms that were downsizing when workers were given authority to make decisions about how and when to do the extra work required of them.

Open Feedback Channels A major source of stress is not knowing what is expected and how task performance is being evaluated. As managers communicate their expectations more clearly and give timely and accurate feedback, subordinates' satisfaction and performance improve and stress decreases. Providing more information to people on how they are doing almost always reduces stress.

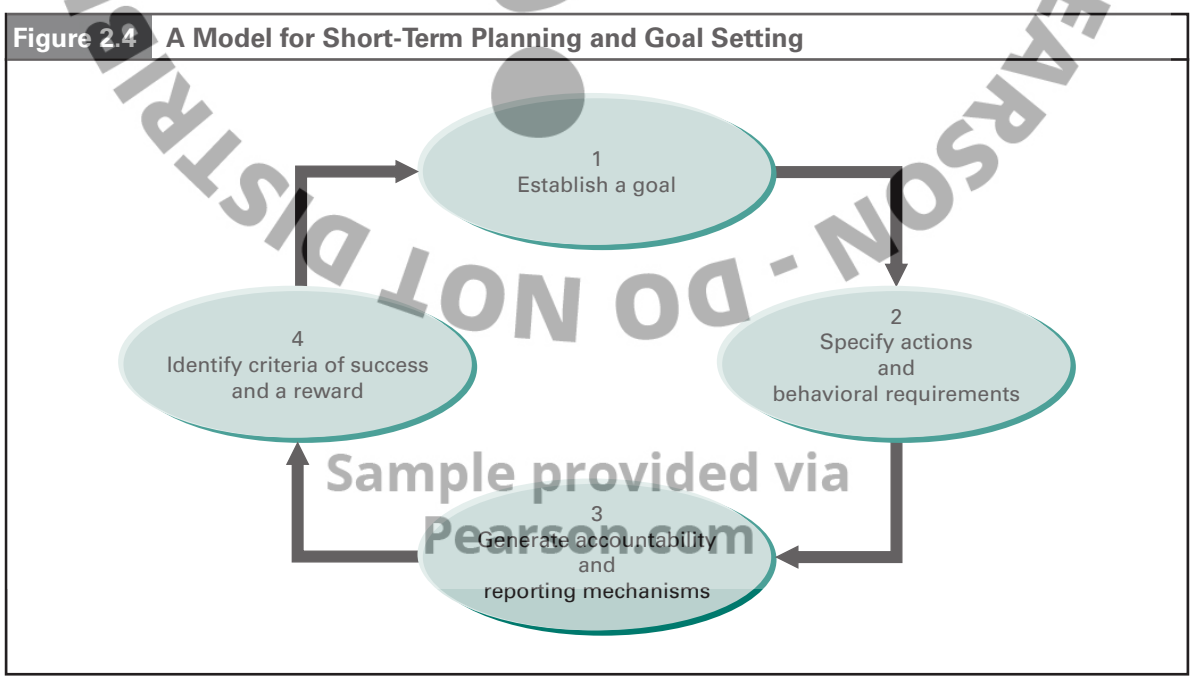
Evidence that these practices are effective has been reported in several studies that found productivity increases, less absenteeism, fewer errors, and lower levels of stresses experienced by managers as a result of job redesign (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Oldham, 2012; Parker, 2014; Singh, 1998).

ELIMINATING ANTICIPATORY STRESSORS THROUGH PRIORITIZING, GOAL SETTING, AND SMALL WINS

Almost everyone experiences anticipatory stressors. We have all been worried about a presentation, an upcoming exam, an important interview, or what the future will bring. This kind of stress can be good for us by increasing our alertness and preparation. But sometimes it can be almost paralyzing. How can we eliminate or minimize the negative effects of anticipatory stress? Two simple practices can help.

Goal Setting Establishing a short-term goal can help eliminate or minimize anticipatory stressors by focusing attention on an immediate action or accomplishment instead of on an uncertain future. To be effective, certain action steps are needed if short-term goals are to lead to achievement and the elimination of stress (Locke & Latham, 2013). Figure 2.4 outlines the four-step process associated with successful short-term goal setting.

Figure 2.4 A Model for Short-Term Planning and Goal Setting



The first step is easy: Just specify a desired goal or objective. The best goals are characterized by five well-known attributes, which are summarized by the acronym SMART:

S = specific (not general)
M = measurable (not subjective)
A = aligned (not unrelated or conflicting)
R = realistic (not fantasy)
T = time bound (not open-ended)

Unfortunately, this first step alone is not likely to lead to goal achievement or stress elimination. Most of us identify New Year's resolutions, for example, but never follow through. Step 2, therefore, is to identify, as specifically as possible, the activities and behaviors that will lead to accomplishing the goal. The principle is: The more difficult the goal is to accomplish, the more numerous and specific these behaviors and activities should be.

Several years ago friend approached us with a problem. She was a wonderfully sensitive, caring, competent single woman in her late 20s who was experiencing a high degree of anticipatory stress because of her size. She had weighed over 350 pounds for more than 10 years. She was afraid of both the health consequences and the social consequences of not being able to lose weight. With the monitoring of a physician, she set a goal to lose 100 pounds in the next 12 months (Step 1). Because it was such a difficult goal to reach, however, she asked us for help in achieving her ambitious objective.

We first identified a dozen or so specific actions and guidelines that would facilitate the attainment of the goal (Step 2). These action steps included, for example, never going grocery shopping alone or without a menu plan, never carrying more than 50 cents in her purse (in order to avoid the temptation to buy a doughnut or another unhealthy snack), exercising with friends each day at 5:30 p.m., forgoing TV at night to reduce the temptation to snack, keeping a food log, and going to bed by 10:30 p.m. The behaviors were rigid, but the goal was so difficult that they were necessary to ensure progress. Because the action steps were specific and short-term, she experienced multiple successes each day as she followed her plan.

Step 3 involves establishing accountability. If no one else will know if the goal was achieved, chances are it will not be. The key principle is: "Make it more difficult to stay the same than to change." This is done by involving others in ensuring accountability for adherence to the plan, establishing a social support network to obtain encouragement from others, and instituting penalties for nonconformance.

In addition to announcing to coworkers, friends, and a church group that she would lose 100 pounds, our friend renegotiated her work contract so that she would take a cut in salary if she did not achieve her goal. Her doctor registered her for a hospital stay at the end of the 12-month period, so that if she did not achieve the goal on her own, she was to go on an intravenous feeding schedule in the hospital to lose the weight, at a cost of over $250 per day. She made it more difficult and more costly to fail than to succeed.

Step 4 involves establishing an evaluation and reward system. This means identifying the evidence that the goal has been accomplished and the benefits that will be produced with success. This step is crucial because many desirable goals—such as being a better leader, a more empathetic friend, a more patient parent—are not achieved without specific indicators of success. How do I know I have achieved the goal? Identify objective indicators of success.

The purpose of this short-term planning model is to eliminate anticipatory stress by establishing a focus and direction for activity. The anxiety associated with uncertainty and potentially negative events is dissipated when mental and physical energy are concentrated on purposeful activity. (By the way, the last time we saw our friend, her weight was well below 200 pounds.)

Small Wins Another principle related to eliminating anticipatory stressors is the small-wins strategy (Weick, 1984). By "small win," we mean a tiny but definite change made in a desired direction. Begin by changing something that is easy to change. Then, change a second thing that is easy to change, and so on. Although each individual success may be relatively modest when considered alone, the multiple small gains eventually mount up, generating a sense of momentum that creates movement toward a desired goal.

When we focus on a small, concrete outcome—giving us a chance to enjoy visible success—we develop heightened confidence and optimism, which motivates the pursuit of another small win. By itself, a small win may seem unimportant. A series of wins at seemingly insignificant tasks, however, reveals a pattern that tends to attract allies, deter opponents, and lower resistance to further action. The fear associated with anticipatory change is eliminated as we build self-confidence through small wins. We also gain the support of others as they see progress being made (Amabile & Kramer, 2011).

In the case of our friend who was trying to lose weight, one key was to begin changing what she could change, a little at a time. Tackling the loss of 100 pounds all at once would have been too overwhelming a task.

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But she could change her grocery shopping habits, her bedtime, and what she ate for breakfast. Each successful change generated more and more momentum that, when combined, led to the larger change that she desired. Her ultimate success was a product of multiple small wins.

In summary, the rules for instituting small wins are simple: (1) identify a small, easy-to-change activity that is under your control; (2) change it in a way that leads toward your desired goal; (3) find another small thing to change, and change it; (4) keep track of the changes you are making; and (5) maintain the small gains you have made. Anticipatory stressors are eliminated because the dreaded unknown is replaced by a focus on immediate successes.

Developing Resiliency and Well-Being

Now that we have examined various causes of stress and outlined a series of preventive measures, we turn our attention to a second major strategy for managing negative stress, as shown in Figure 2.2: the development of **resiliency** to handle the stress that cannot be eliminated. This means not only developing the capacity to effectively manage the negative effects of stress, to bounce back from adversity, and to endure difficult situations (Wright, Masten, & Narayan, 2013), but also finding ways to thrive and flourish even in difficult circumstances—that is, to enhance well-being (Diener, et al., 2011; Spreitzer, et al., 2005). The Flourishing Scale in the Assessment section of this chapter measures the level of your personal well-being, or the extent to which you are flourishing in life. Flourishing provides the resilience you need to cope effectively with stress.

The first studies of resiliency emerged from investigations of children living in poverty or with abusive, alcoholic, or mentally ill parents. Some of these children surprised researchers by rising above their circumstances and developing into healthy, well-functioning adolescents and adults. They were referred to as highly resilient individuals (Masten & Reed, 2002).

People differ widely in their ability to cope with stress. Some individuals seem to crumble under pressure, while others appear to thrive. A major predictor of which individuals cope well with stress and which experience well-being is the amount of resiliency that they have developed. In this section, we highlight several key factors that help individuals develop and enhance personal resiliency and find ways to thrive in the presence of stressful situations.

LIFE BALANCE

The wheel in Figure 2.6 represents the types of activities most people spend their time doing. Each segment in the figure identifies an important aspect of life that must be developed in order to achieve resiliency and well-being. The most resilient individuals are those who have achieved a certain degree of balance in their life.

Assume the center of the figure represents the zero point of involvement and the outside edge of the figure represents maximum involvement. Shading in a portion of the area in each of the seven segments would represent the amount of time spent on each area. (This exercise is included in the Skill Practice section.)

Figure 2.5 Sleep and Health

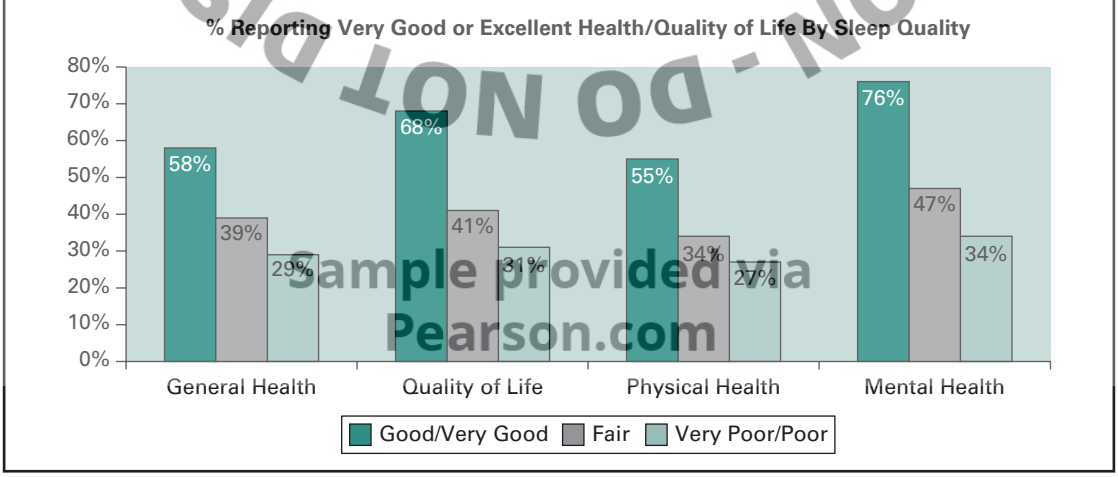
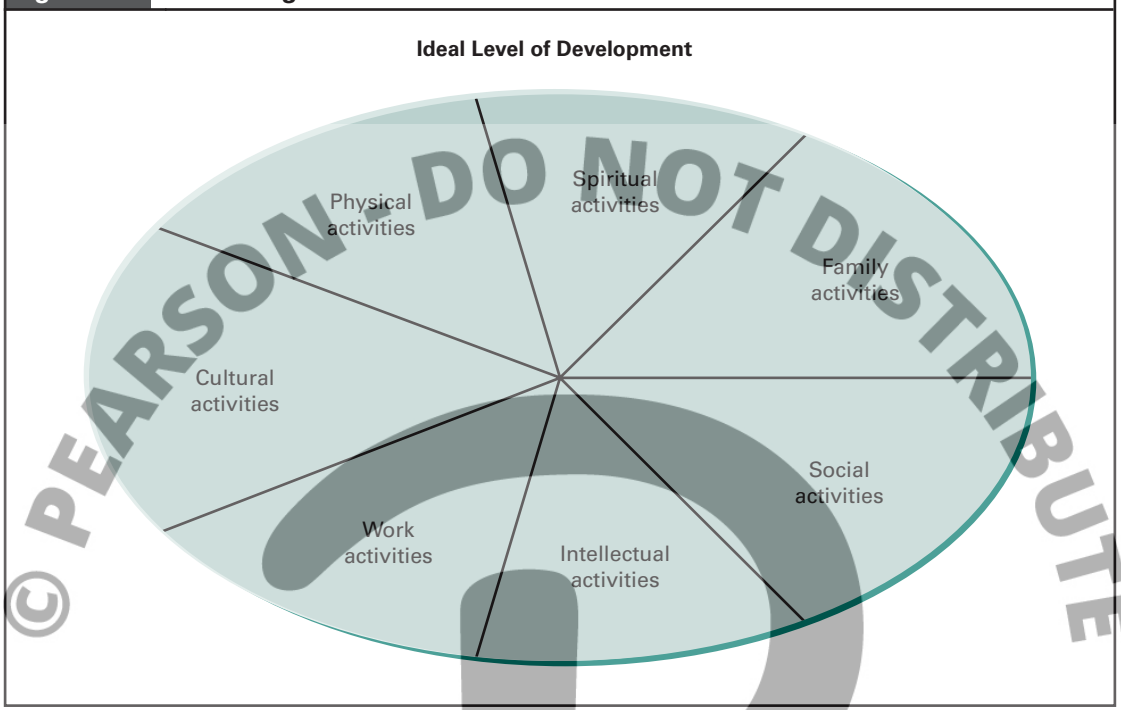


Figure 2.6 Balancing Life Activities



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Individuals who are best able to cope with stress would shade in a substantial portion of each segment, indicating they have spent time or energy developing a variety of dimensions of their lives. Overemphasizing one or two areas to the exclusion of others often creates more stress than it eliminates. Life balance is key (Hill, et al., 2001; Lehrer, 1996; Murphy, 1996; Rostad & Long, 1996; White, et al., 2003).

This prescription, of course, seems counterintuitive. Generally, when we are feeling stress in one area of life, such as an overloaded work schedule, we respond by devoting more time and attention to it. While this is a natural reaction, it is counterproductive for several reasons. First, the more we concentrate exclusively on work, the more restricted and less creative we become. We lose perspective, cease to take fresh points of view, and become overwhelmed more easily. That is why several major corporations send senior managers on high-adventure wilderness retreats, foster volunteer community service, or encourage engagement in completely unrelated activities outside of work.

Second, refreshed and relaxed minds think better. More and more companies, including Adobe, Netflix, and Twitter, are requiring employees to take vacation time and to stop working at a certain time each day. They have become convinced by abundant research that employees are more productive and healthier when they are not consumed and overwhelmed by work demands. Productivity as well as employee well-being increase as much as 33 percent when employees are given incentives to obtain more balance in their lives (Alterman, et al., 2013).

In addition, a large number of recent studies show that getting sufficient sleep is an important predictor of physiological well-being, mental and emotional well-being, and productivity at work. On average, people in America rack up 30+ hours of sleep deficit each month.

Third, the cost of stress-related illness decreases markedly when employees participate in well-rounded wellness programs. A study by the Association for Fitness in Business concluded that companies receive an average return of $3 to $4 on each dollar invested in health and wellness promotion. AT&T, for example, expects to save $72 million in the next 10 years as a result of investment in wellness programs for employees.

Well-developed individuals who give time and attention to cultural, physical, spiritual, family, social, and intellectual activities in addition to work are more productive and less stressed than those who are workaholics (Adler & Hillhouse, 1996; Alterman, et al., 2013; Hepburn, McLoughlin, & Barling, 1997; White, et al., 2003). A great deal of literature is available on physical fitness, spiritual development, strengthening families,

and so forth, so in this section we concentrate on just two common areas of well-being: the development of psychological resiliency, or grit (Duckworth, et al., 2007). Achieving life balance and resiliency is not a competency that can be accomplished by lunchtime or by the weekend. Rather, it requires ongoing commitment and continuous effort.

Psychological Resiliency, or Grit

Psychological resiliency refers to two types of attributes. One is the ability to return to the original condition after experiencing trauma, challenge, or threat. It is the ability to bounce back or withstand negative stressors. In materials science this capacity is referred to as *tensility*. The other attribute has been popularized by the terms *grit* (Duckworth, 2016) and *hardiness* (Maddi, 2006). These terms refer to the tendency to maintain a determination and motivation over long periods despite experiences with failure and adversity. Persistence and commitment toward the long-term objective create the stamina required to stay the course amid challenges, setbacks, and negative stress.

Psychological resiliency is not only about persevering and surviving; it also includes the idea of flourishing in the presence of negative stress. This is similar to "post-traumatic growth," or excelling as a result of facing negative or difficult conditions. Psychological resiliency has been the focus of a great deal of research (for example, see Duckworth, 2016; Reich, Zautra, & Hall, 2010; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003; Wadey, et al., 2012), and the prescriptions for developing resiliency are relatively consistent across studies and populations (Ungar, 2008). They include access to supportive, loving relationships; development of self-awareness, self-confidence, and self-efficacy; involvement in spiritual or religious activities; and the establishment of personal goals (Bandura, 2012; Maddi, 2013; Masten & Obradovic, 2006).

These topics are addressed in other chapters in this book, but here we highlight three practices that have been found to produce resiliency as well as flourishing in the presence of stress. They include meaningfulness in work, reciprocity, and gratitude.

Meaningfulness in Work

A well-established relationship exists between engagement in meaningful work and positive outcomes, including reductions in stress, depression, turnover, absenteeism, dissatisfaction, and cynicism, as well as increases in well-being, resiliency, commitment, effort, engagement, empowerment, happiness, satisfaction, and a sense of fulfillment (see Chen, 2007). One way to foster resiliency, therefore, is to identify the profound purpose and meaningfulness of the work (or activity) in which you are engaged.

Wrzesniewski (2003, 2012) found in her research that individuals typically associate one of three kinds of meaning with their work. They define their work as a *job*, as a *career*, or as a *calling*. Those who see work as a *job* do their work primarily for the financial or material rewards it provides. They gain no particular personal satisfaction from the work, so they pursue their interests and passions in nonwork settings. Work is a means for obtaining financial or other resources to engage in some other activity (for instance, "Give me the assignment, and I'll do it. This job helps me pay off my student loans").

Other individuals have a *career* orientation. They are motivated by accomplishment, popularity, and success. They work to achieve the prestige, power, recognition, and advancement that come from performing their work well. They desire to be distinguished members of their organizations, and they use work to acquire promotion, title, or advancement. Work is a means for achieving personal growth, recognition, and capability development (e.g., "I want to reach a senior leadership position in this organization. I want to improve my skills").

The third orientation, the sense of work as a *calling*, characterizes individuals who are driven by the meaningfulness associated with the work itself. The actual tasks involved in their work provide intrinsic motivation and profound purpose. They consider their work inherently fulfilling, and they seek a greater good, regardless of the material rewards offered by the work. Their work possesses significance that reaches beyond personal benefit or the acquisition of reward (e.g., "I care deeply about what I am doing at work. This is more important than my own reward").

High levels of meaningfulness in work relieve stress by providing a positive goal or aspiration that serves as the focus of attention. Moreover, meaningfulness is associated with positive outcomes and extraordinary individual and organizational performance (Grant, 2008). For example, workers with a calling orientation reported fewer negative effects of stress, higher levels of trust and confidence in management, higher levels of commitment to the organization, less conflict, more satisfactory relationships with coworkers, higher levels of satisfaction with the tasks themselves, and higher levels of organizational performance compared to those with career or job orientations (Wrzesniewski, et al., 1997; Cook & Wall, 1980; Mowday, Steers, &

Porter, 1979; Taylor & Bowers, 1972; Wrzesniewski & Landman, 2000).

One interesting study of meaningfulness in work was conducted by Grant and colleagues (2007, 2008), in which telephone solicitors (mostly students working in part-time jobs) were placing calls to university alumni and requesting donations. These callers experienced almost universal rejection from the recipients of their calls and had little motivation to produce. They read a standardized script and received little information about the impact of their work. The voluntary turnover rate among the callers was approximately 350 percent.

In the study, half of the callers were exposed for just five minutes to a scholarship student who benefited from the solicitations. This student simply thanked the callers for their efforts and explained that he or she would not have been able to attend the university had these solicitors not raised the money that provided the scholarship funds. This had made a profound difference in his or her life. The other half of the callers was not exposed to a scholarship student and received no such message.

The results of the studies were startling (Grant, 2007, 2008; Grant, et al., 2007). Student callers exposed to a scholarship student increased their productivity (number of calls made) and effectiveness (amount of money raised) by a factor of three compared to callers who received no information about meaningfulness. Not only were the results seen immediately after the intervention (a week later), but the consequences could be seen more than a month later. Even in a stressful, boring job, identifying the meaningfulness associated with the work produced dramatically higher performance.

It is important to remember that a sense of calling is not dependent on the type of work performed. Rather, it is associated with the positive meaning inherent in the work (Bellah, et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Any kind of work—even work that is typically thought of as physically, socially, or morally tainted—can be reframed and recrafted in a more positive light (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Wrzesniewski, et al., 2013). Put another way, exactly the same task may be viewed as a job or as a calling depending on the perspective of the individual. Even the most noxious and unpleasant of tasks can be reinterpreted as a calling that has a profound purpose (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003).

To enhance the meaningfulness of work, it should possess one or more of the attributes summarized in Table 2.5. Each one of these attributes can be enhanced by managers in order to enhance meaningfulness.

Table 2.5 Enablers of Meaningfulness in Work

1. The work has an important positive impact on the well-being of other people.
2. The work is associated with an important virtue or a personal value.
3. The work has an impact that extends beyond the immediate time frame or creates a ripple effect.
4. The work is re-crafted to align with and reinforce individuals' values, strengths, and passions.
5. The work builds supportive relationships and fosters generalized reciprocity.

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(1) *The work has an important positive impact on the well-being of other people* (Brown, et al., 2003; Grant, 2008; Grant, et al., 2007).

Some companies, such as Medtronic, Google, and Huffy, regularly post letters from customers or patients whose lives have been transformed by the company's product or service, or reach out and invite them to give speeches at employee gatherings.

(2) *The work is associated with an important virtue or a personal value* (Bright, Cameron, & Caza, 2006; Weber, 1992). The CEO at Timberland, for example, in order to reduce migrant workers' exposure to carcinogens, decided to substantially increase the percentage of organically grown cotton in the clothes the company manufactures—even though no customer had asked that this be done (Schwartz, 2001).

(3) *The work has an impact that extends beyond the immediate time frame or creates a ripple effect* (Cameron & Lavine, 2006; Crocker, et al., 2006). Cameron and Lavine (2006) described the cleanup and closure of the Rocky Flats Nuclear Arsenal—60 years ahead of schedule, $30 billion under budget, and 13 times cleaner than required by federal standards because employees found profound meaningfulness in what they believed to be a multigenerational impact of their efforts. Creating a ripple effect means that when a person displays a virtuous behavior—assisting someone in need, expressing thanks, displaying kindness, showing courage—the tendency is for other people to follow suit.

(4) *The work is re-crafted to align with and reinforce individuals' values, strengths, and passions* (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Wrzesniewski, et al., 2013). Job crafting has become an oft-implemented tool in organizations to create an optimal fit between individuals and their jobs. This has been

found to significantly boost happiness, well-being, and effectiveness at work. Three kinds of job re-crafting are involved: re-crafting the tasks, re-crafting relationships, and re-crafting cognitions (or the way individuals think about their work). (See www.centerforpos.com/job-crafting.)

(5) *The work builds supportive relationships and fosters generalized reciprocity* (Baker, 2012, 2013; Polodny, Khurana, & Hill-Popper, 2005). A meta-analytic review of 148 scientific studies representing more than 300,000 individuals concluded that interpersonal relationships are a better predictor of mortality rates, cardiovascular disease, cancer, and various infections than were smoking, excessive alcohol consumption, obesity, and lack of physical exercise (Holt-Lunstad, Smith, & Layton, 2010).

Whereas developing strong interpersonal relationships is the topic of Chapter 4, here we discuss a second important technique for developing resilience when encountering negative stress. The technique centers on *generalized reciprocity*.

Reciprocity

All human beings have an inherent tendency toward reciprocity. All economic and exchange systems are based on the principle of reciprocity. For example, if you give something to another person and he or she does not reciprocate, or at least say thank you, you would probably label that person selfish, insensitive, and inappropriate. Taking something from a store without giving something in return is called stealing. We have all been taught that our social order is based on reciprocity. If someone gives you something, an obligation exists to at least acknowledge it, if not to reciprocate. So, merely saying thank you, acknowledging someone else's service to you, and recognizing someone for their positive impact has a tendency to foster resilience in coping with stress (Park, et al., 2017).

On the other hand, *generalized reciprocity* is the term used to describe what occurs when a person contributes something to another person that is not directly connected to receiving something in return (Baker, 2014; Baker & Bulkley, 2014). No benefit is received as a result of giving. The contribution occurs merely because it will be good for someone else. Making contributions, demonstrating generosity, and helping other people flourish all are ways that also engender psychological resiliency. Rand, Greene, and Nowak (2012) demonstrated in several carefully controlled scientific studies that human beings have an inherent inclination toward generosity, altruism, and assisting other people; that is, that people have a biological tendency to be generous even if they receive no reward.

This tendency toward reciprocity, as well as toward generalized reciprocity, fosters psychological resiliency because, as pointed out in several studies by Park and colleagues (2017), the body and the brain are activated in ways that enhance well-being and happiness. Specifically, the ventral striatum in the brain is activated when a person behaves generously and when he or she acknowledges the contributions of others (i.e., reciprocity). This area of the brain produces resilience, well-being, and feelings of happiness.

It is also interesting to note, as a side benefit of generalized reciprocity, that people rate others as more effective leaders, more desirable friends, and higher performers at work when those others contribute to others unselfishly (Putnam, 2013).

This practice was illustrated by former Prudential CEO Jim Mallozzi during his first meeting as CEO, with 2,500 sales personnel in a large auditorium. He asked participants to take out their iPhones and Blackberries, turn them on instead of turn them off, and text or email one great idea for how to get a new client, how to close a sale, or how to keep a customer for life. The objective was to help someone else in the company be more successful. More than 2,200 ideas were shared, and Mallozzi reported several years later that some of these ideas were still being actively used.

One practice for fostering generalized reciprocity is discussed in the Skill Practice section of this chapter. It was introduced by Wayne Baker at the University of Michigan and helps identify new ideas and previously unrecognized resources among individuals (see www.humaxnetworks.com). A reciprocity network is created when each individual in a group makes a personal request ("I need a person to feed my dog while I'm out of town") or a work-related request ("I would like to know how to motivate my sales team"). Other individuals in the group then respond to these requests with resources, knowledge, or connections that may provide value. A network is created when people with requests are linked up to people with resources or assistance.

Gratitude

A third seemingly simple but powerful tool for building resiliency and personal well-being is the practice of gratitude. Feelings and expressions of gratitude have dramatic effects on individuals and groups. For example, Emmons (2003) induced feelings of gratitude in students by assigning them to keep journals as part of a semester-long experiment. Some of the students were required to keep "gratitude journals" on a daily

or weekly basis. They wrote down events or incidents that happened during the day (or week) for which they were grateful. Other students were assigned to write down events or incidents that were frustrating, and still other students were assigned to write down events or incidents that were merely neutral.

The students who kept gratitude journals, compared to the students who kept track of frustrating or neutral incidents, had higher levels of well-being; experienced fewer physical symptoms such as headaches and colds; felt better about their lives as a whole; were more optimistic about the coming week; had higher states of alertness, attentiveness, determination, and energy; reported fewer hassles and less stress in their lives; engaged in more helping behavior toward other people; experienced better sleep quality; and had a sense of being more connected to others. In addition, they were absent and tardy less often and had higher grade point averages. Feelings of gratitude had significant impact on students' classroom performance as well as on their personal lives (Emmons, 2008).

Individuals experiencing gratitude demonstrate a more consistent and healthy heart rhythm than individuals experiencing frustration. Physiological health, cognitive functioning, and performance at work are substantially higher when gratitude is fostered, at least partly because of the harmonious pattern adopted by the body.

Emmons (2008) also found that expressions of gratitude by one person tended to motivate others to express gratitude, so a self-perpetuating, virtuous cycle occurred when gratitude was expressed. Gratitude elicited positive behavior on the part of other people (e.g., they were more likely to loan money or provide compassionate support) as well as reciprocal behavior. A handwritten "thank you" on a restaurant bill by the server, for example, elicited about 11 percent higher tips, and visits by case workers and social workers were 80 percent higher if they were thanked for coming (McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002).

Engaging in gratitude visits (e.g., simply visiting another person in order to express gratitude), writing gratitude letters (e.g., sharing feelings of thanks with another person), keeping gratitude journals (e.g., writing down three things daily for which you are grateful), and distributing daily gratitude cards (e.g., handing out some written expressions of appreciation to coworkers each day) all have been shown in empirical investigations to produce important positive impacts on individuals and organizations (see Emmons, 2008; Seligman, et al., 2005). Despite being easy to implement, their effects are powerful and significant in fostering resiliency and helping to enhance well-being.

Temporary Stress-Reduction Techniques

Thus far, we have emphasized eliminating sources of stress and developing resiliency to stress. These are the most desirable stress-management strategies because they have a permanent or long-term effect on your well-being. However, the occurrence of stressors is sometimes beyond your control, so it may be impossible to eliminate them. Moreover, developing resiliency often takes time, so on occasion we must use temporary reactive mechanisms in order to maintain equilibrium. Although increased resilience can buffer the harmful effects of stress, we must sometimes take immediate action in the short term to cope with the stress we encounter.

Implementing short-term strategies reduces stress temporarily so that longer-term stress-elimination or resiliency strategies can be implemented. Short-term strategies are largely reactive and must be repeated whenever stressors are encountered, because, unlike other strategies, their effects are only temporary. On the other hand, they are especially useful for immediately calming feelings of anxiety or apprehension. You can use them when you are asked a question you can't answer, when you become embarrassed by an unexpected event, when you are faced with a presentation or an important meeting, or almost any time you are suddenly stressed and must respond in a short period of time. More than 150,000 books on temporary stress-reduction techniques have been published since 1990; we review six of the best-known and easiest to learn techniques here. The first two are physiological; the last four are psychological.

Muscle relaxation involves easing the tension in successive muscle groups. Each muscle group is tightened for five or 10 seconds and then completely relaxed. Starting with the feet and progressing to the calves, thighs, stomach, arms, neck, and face, one can relieve tension throughout the entire body. All parts of the body can be included in the exercise. One variation is to roll the head around on the neck several times, shrug the shoulders, or stretch the arms up toward the ceiling for five to 10 seconds, then release the position and relax the muscles. The result is a state of temporary relaxation that helps eliminate tension and refocus energy.

A variation of muscle relaxation involves **deep breathing**. This is done by taking several successive slow, deep breaths, holding them for five seconds, and exhaling completely. You should focus on the act of breathing itself, so that your mind becomes cleared for

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a brief time while your body relaxes. After each deep breath, muscles in the body should consciously be relaxed.

A third technique uses **imagery and fantasy** to eliminate stress temporarily by changing the focus of your thoughts. Imagery involves visualizing an event using "mind pictures." An increasingly common practice for athletes is to visualize a successful performance or to imagine themselves achieving their goal. Research has confirmed both the stress-reduction advantages of this technique and the performance enhancement benefits (see, for example, Andersen & Williams, 1999; Deepak, 1995). In addition to visualization, imagery also can include recollections of sounds, smells, and textures. Your mind focuses on pleasant experiences from the past (e.g., a fishing trip, family vacation, visit with relatives, or day at the beach) that can be recalled vividly. Fantasies, on the other hand, are not past memories but make-believe events or images. It is especially well known, for example, that children often construct imaginary friends, make-believe occurrences, or special wishes that are comforting to them when they encounter stress. Adults also use daydreams or other fantasy experiences to get them through stressful situations. The purpose of this technique is to relieve anxiety or pressure temporarily by focusing on something pleasant so that other, more productive stress-reducing strategies can be developed for the longer term.

A similar practice is referred to as **reframing**. Reframing is merely a way of viewing events, ideas, concepts, and emotions differently in order to find more positive alternatives. In a study of students preparing for a test, those who practicing cognitive reframing experienced significant improvement in memory compared to those who did not practice reframing. Similarly, depression, anxiety, and stress were significantly reduced through the process of cognitive reframing (Ray, et al., 2005). Some of the cues that can motivate reframing are below. Simply concentrate on one or more of these cues.

- "I understand this situation."
- "I've solved similar problems before."
- "Other people are available to help me get through this situation."
- "Others have faced similar situations and made it through."
- "In the long run, this really isn't so critical."
- "I can learn something from this situation."
- "There are several good alternatives available to me."

Reframing is similar to various forms of **meditative practices**. These include contemplative practices such as loving kindness meditation, transcendental meditation, guided visualization, mantra meditation, and so forth. Loving kindness meditation, for example, is a well-developed contemplative practice that focuses on self-generated feelings of love, compassion, and goodwill toward oneself and others. Essentially, people focus on their feelings of positive regard for people close to them. Similar practices include writing and contemplating gratitude journal entries, engaging in personal prayer, and pondering spiritual inspiration. These practices put people into a reflective and peaceful condition.

The results of recent research on these kinds of practices are compelling. Studies show that engaging in contemplative practices, reframing, and visualization diminish stress-related cortisol, insomnia, symptoms of autoimmune illnesses, PMS, asthma, falling back into depression, general emotional distress, anxiety, and panic. They help control blood sugar in type 2 diabetes and detachment from negative reactions. They help enhance self-understanding and general well-being. Engaging in these practices has also been shown to have a positive effect on heart rate, oxytocin levels, vagal nerve tone, blood pressure, obesity, incidence of cancer, heart disease, various infections, and, surprisingly, the actual cortical thickness of the brain (Fredrickson, et al., 2008; Hozel, et al., 2010; Kok, et al., 2014).

The sixth technique is called **rehearsal**. Using this technique, people work themselves through potentially stressful situations, trying out different scenarios and alternative reactions. Appropriate reactions are rehearsed, either in a safe environment before stress occurs, or "offline," in private, in the middle of a stressful situation. Removing oneself temporarily from a stressful circumstance and working through dialogue or reactions, as though rehearsing for a play, can help one regain control and reduce the immediacy of the stressor.

Summary

We began this chapter by explaining stress in terms of a relatively simple model. Four kinds of stressors—time, encounter, situational, and anticipatory—cause negative physiological, psychological, and social reactions in individuals. These reactions are moderated by the resiliency that individuals have developed for coping with stress. The best way to manage stress is to eliminate

it through effective and efficient time management, fostering a sense of community, making contributions, enhancing emotional and social intelligence, work redesign, prioritizing, goal setting, and small wins. These strategies have permanent benefits, but they often take an extended period of time to implement.

The next most effective stress management strategy is improving one's resiliency. Physiological resiliency is strengthened through increased cardiovascular conditioning and improved diet. Psychological resiliency, grit, hardiness, and personal well-being are improved by focusing on meaningfulness in work, reciprocity, and gratitude. These strategies produce long-term benefits, but they often cannot be implemented on the spot. They are medium-term strategies that enhance resiliency over time.

When circumstances make it impossible to apply longer-term strategies for reducing stress, short-term relaxation techniques can temporarily alleviate the symptoms of stress. These strategies have short-term benefits, but they can be applied immediately and repeated over and over again.

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Behavioral Guidelines

Following are specific behavioral guidelines for improving your stress-management skills and fostering personal well-being.

A. Address stress by first trying to eliminate the stressors, then focus on developing resiliency and personal well-being to create hardiness and grit in stressful situations, and finally learn temporary stress coping methods to reduce stress in the short term.
B. Use proven time management practices. Make sure to use time effectively as well as efficiently by generating your own personal mission statement. Make sure low-priority tasks do not drive out time to work on high-priority activities. Make better use of your time by using the guidelines in the Time Management Survey in the Assessment section. Give important activities priority over urgent ones.
C. Build collaborative relationships with individuals based on mutual trust, respect, honesty, and kindness. Make "deposits" into the "emotional bank accounts" of other people. Form close, stable relationships with your coworkers.
D. Reaffirm priorities and short-term goals that provide direction and focus to activities. Make your goals SMART.
E. Increase your psychological resiliency through life balance, especially by consciously engaging in physical, intellectual, cultural, social, family, and spiritual activities.
F. Increase your resilience by implementing a small-wins strategy. Identify and celebrate the small successes that you and others achieve.
G. Learn at least one relaxation technique and practice it regularly, such as muscle relaxation, deep breathing, imagery and fantasy, cognitive reframing, contemplative practices, or rehearsal.
H. Increase your resiliency by forming an open, trusting, sharing relationship with at least one other person. Find someone who can genuinely affirm your worth as a person and provide support during periods of stress.
I. Identify the meaningfulness of your work that is more important than your own personal reward.
J. Identify a contribution you can provide to someone without expecting recognition or reward in return. Find one way this week to demonstrate generalized reciprocity.
K. Implement at least one gratitude practice, such as a gratitude journal, gratitude visits, or gratitude cards.

SKILL **ANALYSIS**

CASES INVOLVING STRESS MANAGEMENT

The Case of the Missing Time

At approximately 7:30 A.M. on Tuesday, June 23, Ebony Ellsworth, manager of the Norris Company's Central Plant, swung her car out of the driveway of her suburban home and headed toward the plant located some six miles away, just inside the Midvale city limits. It was a beautiful day. The sun was shining brightly and a cool, fresh breeze was blowing. The trip to the plant took about 20 minutes and gave Ebony an opportunity to think about plant problems without interruption.

The Norris Company owns and operates computer chip manufacturing plants. It is a closely held company with some 350 employees, nearly half of whom are employed at the Central Plant, the largest of the three Norris manufacturing operations. The company's main offices are also located in the Central Plant building.

Ebony had started with the Norris Company as an expediter in its Eastern Plant, was promoted to production supervisor, and two years later was made assistant to the manager of the Eastern Plant. She was transferred to the Central Plant as plant manager when the former manager retired.

Today she said to herself, "This is going to be the day to really get things done."

She began to run through the day's work, first one project, then another, trying to establish priorities. After a few minutes she decided that the open-end unit scheduling was probably the most important, certainly the most urgent. She frowned for a moment as she recalled that on Friday the vice president and general manager had casually asked her if she had given the project any further thought. Ebony realized that she had not been giving it much thought lately. She had been meaning to get to work on this idea for over three months, but something else always seemed to crop up. "I haven't had much time to sit down and really work it out," she said to herself. "I'd better get going and hit this one today for sure." With that she began to break down the objectives, procedures, and installation steps of the project. She reviewed the principles involved and roughly calculated the anticipated savings. "It's about time," she told herself. "This idea should have been followed up long ago." Ebony remembered that she had first conceived of the open-end unit scheduling idea nearly a year and a half ago, just prior to her leaving Norris's Eastern Plant. She had spoken to her boss, Jim Quince, manager of the Eastern Plant, about it then, and both agreed that it was worth looking into. The idea was temporarily shelved when she was transferred to the Central Plant a month later.

She started to think through a procedure for simpler transport of precious metals to and from the Eastern Plant. Visualizing the notes on her desk, she thought about the inventory analysis she needed in order to identify and eliminate some of the slow-moving stock items, the packing controls that needed revision, and the need to design a new special-order form. She also decided that this was the day to settle on whether to upgrade some equipment in the clean room. There were a few other projects she couldn't recall offhand, but she could tend to them after lunch, if not before. "Yes, ma'am," she said to herself, "this is the day to really get rolling."

When she arrived at work and entered the plant Ebony knew something was wrong as she met Al Noren, the stockroom foreman, who appeared troubled. "A great morning, Al," Ebony greeted him cheerfully.

"Not so good, Ebony; my new man isn't in this morning," Al growled.

"Have you heard from him?" asked Ebony.

"No, I haven't," replied Al.

Ebony frowned as she commented, "These stock handlers assume you take it for granted that if they're not here, they're not here, and they don't have to call in and verify it. Better ask Human Resources to call him."

Al hesitated for a moment before replying, "Okay, Ebony, but can you find me a man? I have two cars to unload today."

As Ebony turned to leave she said, "I'll call you in half an hour, Al, and let you know."

Making a mental note of the situation, Ebony headed for her office. She greeted the group of workers huddled around Marilyn, the office manager, who was discussing the day's work schedule with them. As the meeting broke up, Marilyn picked up a few samples, showed them to Ebony, and asked if they should be shipped as is or if it would be necessary to inspect them. Before Ebony could answer, Marilyn went on to ask if she could suggest another clerical operator for the sterilization equipment to replace the regular operator, who was home ill. She also told Ebony that Renaldo, the industrial engineer, had called and was waiting to hear from Ebony.

After telling Marilyn to go ahead and ship the samples, Ebony made a note of the need for a sealer operator for the office and then called Renaldo. She agreed to stop by Renaldo's office before lunch, and then she started on her routine morning tour of the plant. She asked each foreman the types and volumes of orders they were running, the number of people present, how the schedules were coming along, and the orders to be run next; helped the dock foreman find temporary storage space for consolidating a carload shipment; discussed quality control with an operator who had been running poor work; arranged to transfer four people temporarily to different departments, including two for Al in the stockroom; and talked to the shipping foreman about pickups and special orders to be delivered that day.

As she continued through the plant, she saw to it that reserve stock was moved out of the forward stock area, talked to another auditor about her requested change of vacation schedule, had a "heart-to-heart" talk with a new employee who seemed to need frequent reassurance, and approved two orders for customized chips for different customers.

Returning to her office, Ebony reviewed the production reports on the larger orders against her initial productions and found that the plant was running behind schedule. She called in the folding-room foreman and together they went over the lineup of machines and made several necessary changes.

During this discussion, the chief engineer stopped in to discuss several changes, and the routing foreman telephoned for approval of a revised schedule for one customer. The production foreman called twice: first to inform her that inventory of two standard, fast-moving stock items was dangerously low, and later to advise her that the final specifications for the urgent Dillion job had finally arrived. Ebony made the necessary subsequent calls to inform those concerned.

She then began to put delivery dates on important and difficult inquiries received from customers and salespeople. (The routine inquiries were handled by Marilyn.) While she was doing this, she was interrupted twice: once by a sales correspondent calling from the West Coast to ask for a better delivery date than originally scheduled, and once by the personnel vice president asking her to set a time when she could hold an initial training and induction interview with a new employee.

After dating the customer and sales personnel inquiries, Ebony headed for her morning conference in the executive offices. At this meeting she answered the sales

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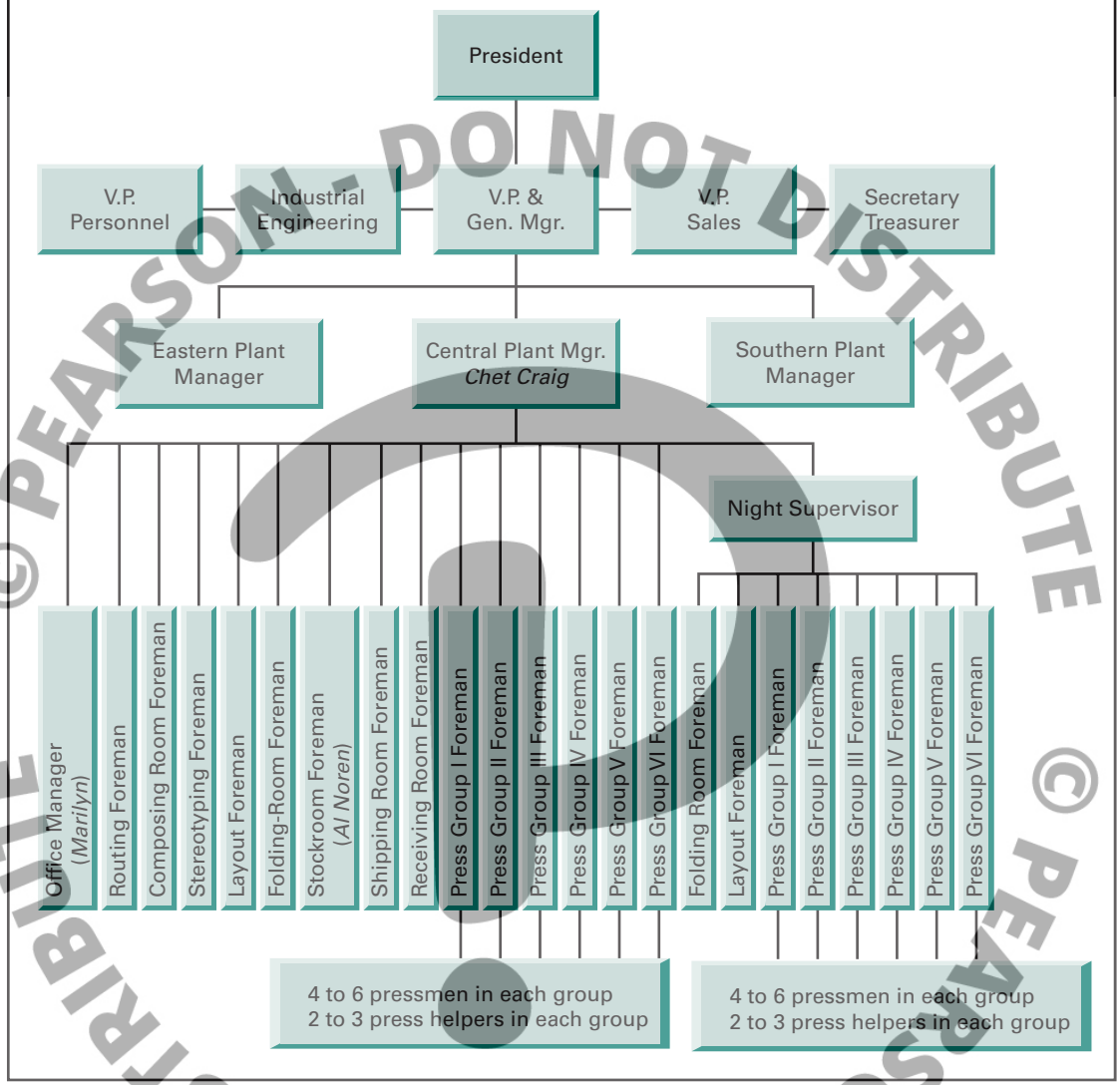
Figure 2.7 Organization Chart



vice president's questions regarding "hot" orders, complaints, and the status of large-volume orders and potential new orders. She then met with the general manager to discuss a few ticklish policy matters and to answer questions on several specific production and personnel problems.

On the way back to her own office, Ebony conferred with Renaldo about two current engineering projects about which he had called earlier. When she reached her desk, she looked at her watch. It was 10 minutes before lunch, just time enough to make a few notes of the details she needed to check in order to answer the knotty questions raised by the sales manager that morning.

After lunch Ebony started again. She began by checking the previous day's production reports, did some rescheduling to get out urgent orders, placed appropriate delivery dates on new orders and inquiries received that morning, and consulted with

a foreman on a personal problem. She spent 20 minutes on a Skype call going over mutual problems with the Eastern Plant.

By midafternoon Ebony had made another tour of the plant, after which she met with the personnel director to review with him a touchy personal problem raised by one of the clerical employees, the vacation schedules submitted by her foremen, and the pending job-evaluation program. Following this conference, Ebony hurried back to her office to complete the special statistical report for Oracle, one of Norris's best customers. As she finished the report, she discovered that it was 10 minutes after six and she was the only one left in the office. Ebony was tired. She put on her coat and headed through the plant toward the parking lot. On the way she was stopped by both the night supervisor and night foremen for approval of the production schedule.

With both eyes on the traffic, Ebony reviewed the day she had just completed. "Busy?" she asked herself. "So, did I accomplish anything?" Her mind raced over the day's activities. "Yes and no" seemed to be the answer. "There was the usual routine, the same as any other day. The plant kept going and I think it must have been a good production day. Any creative or special-project work done?" Ebony grimaced as she reluctantly answered, "No."

With a feeling of guilt, she probed further. "Am I an executive? I'm paid like one, respected like one, and have a responsible assignment with the necessary authority to carry it out. Yet one of the greatest values a company derives from an executive is her creative thinking and accomplishments. What have I done about it? An executive needs some time for thinking. Today was a typical day, just like most other days, and I did little, if any, creative work. The projects that I so enthusiastically planned to work on this morning are exactly as they were yesterday. What's more, I have no guarantee that tomorrow or the next day will bring me any closer to their completion. This is the real problem, and there must be an answer."

By this time Ebony had turned onto the side street leading to her home. The problem still uppermost in her mind was: "How can I become a more effective manager of my time?" Her thoughts were interrupted as she saw her son running toward the car calling out, "Daddy, Mommy's home."

SOURCE: *Based on Prod. #: KEL071-PDF-ENG, Kellogg School of Management, 1973.*

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Discussion Questions

2.1. What principles of time and stress management are violated in this case?
2.2. What are the most important organizational problems?
2.3. Which of Ebony's personal characteristics inhibit her effective management of time?
2.4. If you were hired as a consultant to Ebony, what would be your advice? Help her become more capable of managing her stress.

Stress and the Millennial Generation

Numerous studies have shown that millennials suffer from anxiety at a much higher rate than generations that preceded them. What's wrong with this group, anyway?

A lot, actually. They're the first generation raised with the internet. They're the first generation to experience "helicopter" parenting. They're at once constantly exposed on social media and also permanently sheltered by overbearing parents.

They're not the first generation to experience a rough economy, but they certainly act as if they are. Marriages happen later or not at all, and the definition of the family, not to mention family structure, is changing dramatically. Freedom of movement has made it easy for people to leave families far behind, and more than 50 percent do. (Studies have shown that having limited family in close proximity can lead to reductions in anxiety and depression.) The endless choices millennials face have also proven paralyzing. While money is the biggest stressor for millennials between the ages of 18 and 35, severe fatigue and personal health concerns are also top issues causing a mental burden. More than half of millennials say they typically begin their workday already fatigued, and the average millennial wakes up tired four days a week. One in six worries about the lack of progress in their romantic relationships, with 15 percent of single millennials worrying they won't ever find a suitable partner. In a poll taken of millennials, the top 10 stressors were identified as:

- Money/finances
- Being tired/lack of sleep
- Health
- Workload
- Future of the country
- Student loans
- Parents' health
- Recent argument with partner
- Relationship with boss/supervisor
- Lack of progress in a romantic relationship

The top 10 coping strategies used by millennials were identified as:

- Become impatient with others
- Nap/sleep
- Try to ignore it
- Cry
- Withdraw from friends
- Eat a favorite snack/food
- Withdraw from family
- Talk to a friend
- Exercise
- Change in sexual activity

Discussion Questions

2.5. What are the major driving forces and restraining forces faced by millennials? What undergirds these stressors?

2.6. What forces could be strengthened or weakened? How would one go about that task?

2.7. What are some specific recommendations for your millennial peers? What strategies do you recommend to help eliminate, adapt to, and/or temporarily cope with these stressors?

SKILL **PRACTICE**

EXERCISES FOR LONG-TERM AND SHORT-TERM STRESS MANAGEMENT AND WELL-BEING

In this section, we provide five exercises to help you practice good stress management. We strongly urge you to complete the exercises with a partner who can give you feedback and who will monitor your progress in improving your skill. Because managing stress is a personal skill, most of your practice will be done in private. But having a partner who is aware of your commitment will help foster substantial improvement. The reciprocity exercise requires that you perform it in a group.

The Small-Wins Strategy

An ancient Chinese proverb states that long journeys are always made up of small steps. In Japan, the feeling of obligation to make small, incremental improvements in one's work is known as *kaizen*. In this chapter the notion of small wins is explained as a way to break apart large problems and identify small successes in coping with them. Each of these approaches represents the same basic philosophy—to recognize incremental successes—and each helps an individual build up psychological resilience to stress.

Assignment

Answer the following questions. An example is given to help clarify each question, but your response need not relate to the example.

1. What major stressor do you currently face personally? What creates anxiety or discomfort for you? (For example, "I have too much to do.")

2. What are the major attributes or components of the situation? Divide the major problem into smaller parts, or subproblems. (For example, "I have said yes to too many things. I have deadlines approaching. I don't have the resources I need to complete all my commitments right now.")

3. What are the subcomponents of each of those subproblems? Divide them into yet smaller parts. (For example, "I have the following deadlines approaching: a report due, a large amount of reading to do, a family obligation, an important

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presentation, a need to spend some personal time with someone I care about, a committee meeting that requires preparation.")

Component 1:

Component 2:

Component 3:

And so on:

4. What actions can I take that will affect any of these subcomponents? (For example, "I can engage the person I care about in helping me prepare for the presentation. I can write a shorter report than I originally intended. I can carry the reading material with me wherever I go.")

5. What actions have I taken in the past that have helped me cope successfully with similar stressful circumstances? (For example, "I have found someone else to share some of my tasks. I have gotten some reading done while waiting, riding, and eating. I have prepared only key elements for the committee meeting.")

6. What small thing should I feel good about as I think about how I have coped or will cope with this major stressor? (For example, "I have accomplished a lot when the pressure has been on in the past. I have been able to use what I had time to prepare to its best advantage.")

Repeat this process when you face major stressors. The six specific questions may not be as important to you as (1) breaking the problem down into incremental parts and then breaking those parts down again, and (2) identifying actions that can be done that will be successful in coping with components of the stressor.

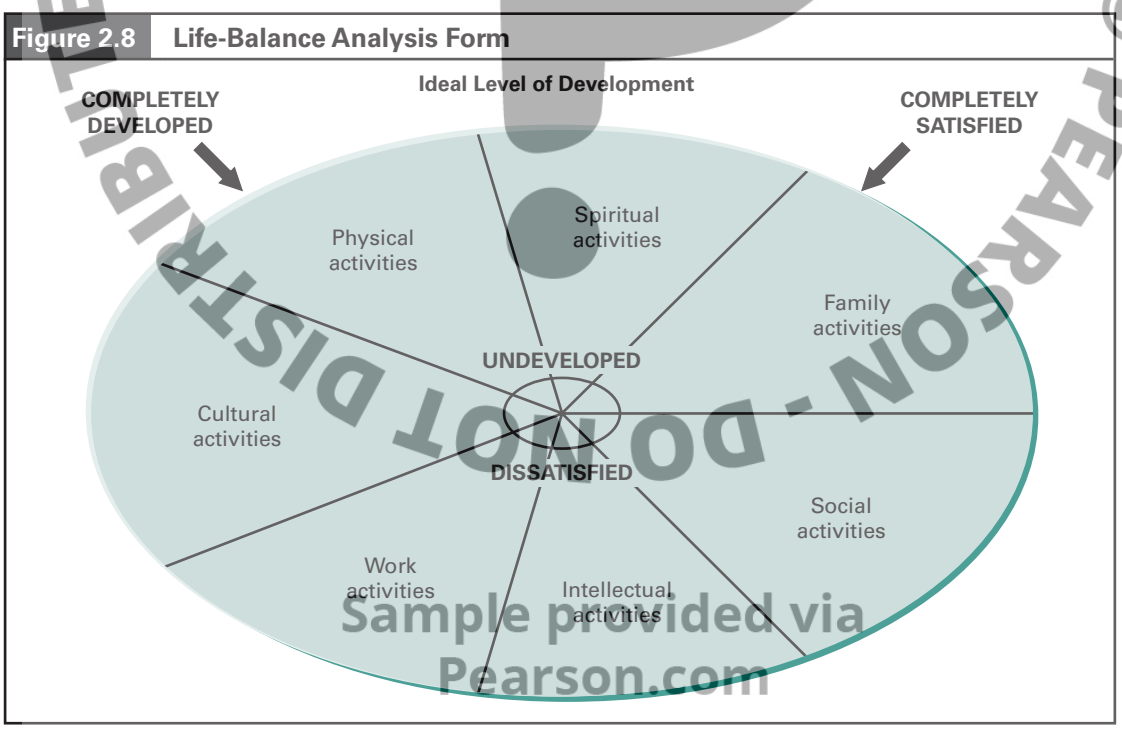
Life-Balance Analysis

The prescription to maintain a balanced life seems both intuitive and counterintuitive. On the one hand, it makes sense that life should have variety and that each of us should develop multiple aspects of ourselves. Narrowness and rigidity are not highly valued by anyone. On the other hand, the demands of work, school, or family, for example, can be so overwhelming that we don't have time to do much except respond to those demands. Work could take all of our time. So could school. So could family. The temptation for most of us, then, is to focus on only a few areas of our lives that demand our attention and leave the other areas undeveloped. This exercise helps you discover which areas those might be and which areas need more attention.

Assignment

Use Figure 2.8 below to complete this exercise. In responding to the four items in the exercise, think of the amount of time you spend in each area, the amount of experience and development you have had in the past in each area, and the extent to which development in each area is important to you.

Figure 2.8 Life-Balance Analysis Form



PRACTICE

1. In Figure 2.8, shade in the portion of each section that represents the extent to which that aspect of your life has been well developed. In other words, rate how satisfied you are that each aspect is adequately cultivated.

2. Now write down at least one thing you can start doing to improve your development in the areas that need it. For example, you might do more outside reading to develop culturally, invite a foreign visitor to your home to develop socially, engage in regular prayer or meditation to develop spiritually, begin a regular exercise program to develop physically, and so on.

3. Because the intent of this exercise is not to add more pressure and stress to your life but to increase your resiliency through life balance, identify the things you will *stop* doing in various areas that will make it possible to achieve better life balance.

4. To make this a practice exercise and not just a planning exercise, do something today that you have on your list for items 2 and 3 above. Write down specifically what you'll do and when. Don't let the rest of the week go by without implementing something you've written.

Deep Relaxation

To engage in deep relaxation, you need to reserve time that can be spent concentrating on relaxation. Cognitive control and physiological control are involved. By focusing your mind, you can positively affect both your mental and physical states. This exercise describes one technique that is easily learned and practiced.

The deep-relaxation technique presented below combines key elements of several well-known formulas. It is recommended that this technique be practiced for 10 minutes a day, three times a week. Reserve at least 20 minutes to engage in this exercise for the first time.

Find a quiet spot with a partner. You may want to do this in the classroom itself the first time. Have your partner read the instructions below. Do not rush through the instructions. Allow time to complete each step unrushed. When you have finished, switch

roles. (Since you will be practicing this exercise later in a different setting, you may want to make an audio recording of these instructions. Alternatively, agree to do the exercise regularly with a friend or a spouse.)

Assignment

Step 1: Assume a comfortable position. You may lie down. Loosen any tight clothing. Close your eyes and be quiet. Slow down and let go.

Step 2: Focus on your body and on relaxing specific muscles. Tune out all other thoughts. Assume a passive attitude.

Step 3: Now tense and relax each of your muscle groups one at a time for five to 10 seconds each. Do it in the following order:

Forehead. Wrinkle your forehead. Try to make your eyebrows touch your hairline for five seconds, then relax.

Eyes and nose. Close your eyes as tightly as you can for five seconds, then relax.

Lips, cheeks, and jaw. Draw the corners of your mouth back and grimace for five seconds, then relax.

Hands. Extend your arms in front of you. Clench your fists tightly for five seconds, then relax.

Forearms. Extend your arms out against an invisible wall and push forward for five seconds, then relax.

Upper arms. Bend your elbows and tense your biceps for five seconds, then relax.

Shoulders. Shrug your shoulders up to your ears for five seconds, then relax.

Back. Arch your back off the floor for five seconds, then relax.

Stomach. Tighten your stomach muscles by lifting your legs about two inches off the ground for five seconds, then relax.

Hips and buttocks. Tighten your hip and buttock muscles for five seconds, then relax.

Thighs. Tighten your thigh muscles by pressing your legs together as tightly as you can for five seconds, then relax.

Feet. Bend your ankles toward your body as far as you can for five seconds, then point your toes for five seconds, then relax.

Toes. Curl your toes as tightly as you can for five seconds, then relax.

Step 4: Focus on any muscles that are still tense. Repeat the exercise for that muscle group three or four times until it relaxes.

Step 5: Now focus on your breathing. Do not alter it artificially, but focus on taking long, slow, deep breaths. Breathe through your nose and exhale through your mouth. Concentrate exclusively on the rhythm of your breathing until you have taken at least 45 breaths.

Step 6: Now focus on the heaviness and warmth of your body. Let all the energy in your body seep away. Let go of your normal tendency to control your body and mobilize it toward activity.

Step 7: With your body completely relaxed, relax your mind. Picture a person for whom you have loving feelings, feelings of gratitude, or feelings of reverence. Concentrate fully

PRACTICE

on the person and on your feelings for him or her for at least three minutes without letting any other thoughts enter your mind. Begin now.

Step 8: Now open your eyes, slowly get up, and return to your workday better prepared to cope with it effectively.

Monitoring and Managing Time

Time management is the problem identified most often by managers and business school students. Most people feel overwhelmed at least sometimes with having too much to accomplish in too little time. It is interesting, however, that even though people may be extremely busy, if they feel that their time is *discretionary*—that is, it can be used in any way that they choose, such as in recreation, playing with friends or family, or by themselves—they feel less stress. Increasing discretionary time, therefore, is a key to effective time management.

This exercise helps you identify and better manage your discretionary time. It takes one full week to complete. It requires that you record how you spend your time for the next seven days. Virtually every executive who is a good time manager has completed this exercise and, in fact, regularly repeats this exercise.

Assignment

Complete the following five steps, then use a partner to get feedback and ideas for improving and refining your plans.

Step 1: Beginning today, keep a time log for one full week. Record how you spend each 30-minute block in the next seven 24-hour periods. Using the following format, record the log in your own notebook, diary, or journal. Simply write down what you did during the 30-minute period. If you did multiple things, record them one above the other.

Time	Activity	Required/ Discretionary	Productive/ Unproductive
12:00–12:30			
12:30-1:00			
1:00–1:30			
1:30–2:00			
2:00–2:30			
.			
.			
.			
23:00–23:30			
23:30–24:00			

Step 2: Beneath the heading "Required/Discretionary," write whether the time spent in each 30-minute block was required by someone or something else (R) or was discretionary (D). That is, to what extent did you have a choice about whether or not you would engage in this activity? You don't have a choice about a certain amount of sleep, for example, or attending class. But you do have a choice about watching TV or spending time socializing.

Step 3: Beneath the heading "Productive/Unproductive," rate the extent to which each activity was productive. That is, identify the extent to which the activity achieved what

it was intended to achieve. To what extent did the activity accomplish your own goals or lead to improvements of some kind? Use the following scale for your rating:

4 Time was used productively

3 Time was used somewhat productively

2 Time was used somewhat unproductively

1 Time was used unproductively

Step 4: Draw up a plan for increasing the amount of discretionary time you have during the week. Refer to the Time Management Survey in the Assessment section for suggestions. Write down the things you will *stop* doing and the things you will *start* doing.

Step 5: Identify ways in which you can use your discretionary time more productively, especially any blocks of time you rated 1 or 2 in step 3. What will you do to make sure the time you control is used for more long-term benefit? What will you stop doing that impedes your effective use of time?

Generalized Reciprocity

Creating a reciprocity network requires that you are a member of a participating group or organization. The network is formed among members of this group. The purpose of the exercise is to enhance relationships; provide a way for you to contribute to one another; and build a network of resources, relationships, and goodwill (see Baker, 2012).

Reciprocity networks are created among individuals in a group by having members identify needs or requests and then having others in the group respond to those needs or requests with resources or contacts. Building a reciprocity network occurs in four steps:

Step 1: Write down the name of each of the people in the group in a row at the top of a board. This could be done across the top of a whiteboard or on flip chart pages. Post the pages displaying the names on a wall.

Step 2: Each individual in the group writes down a specific request, a need, or an issue with which he or she needs help. These issues may be personal or work-related. The requests must have characteristics described as SMART. These attributes are not the same as SMART goals but are applicable to requests from others. In this exercise, SMART requests refer to:

S – Specific: A resource or resolution to the request must be available.

M – Meaningful: It is not trivial or irrelevant but refers to something important.

A – Action-oriented: There must be action that can be taken in response to the request.

R – Real need: The request must be tied to a genuine need.

T – Time bound: A time frame is given for when the request is needed.

Examples of work-related requests might be: "I need to find an expert who can assist me with some Excel spreadsheets"; "I need a new IT software system to streamline our inventory control"; "I need to become more recognized as a potential leader in my organization"; or "I need to determine how to downsize my unit by 15 percent."

Examples of personal requests might be: "I need tickets to the game in two weeks"; "I need to get in better physical shape"; "I need to find a great gift for my spouse"; or "I need help with my statistics class."

PRACTICE

Step 3: The individual stands up and publicly describes the request to his or her colleagues and posts it below his or her name. An easy way to do this is to write the request on a Post-it Note.

Step 4: Colleagues listen to each person's verbalized request. Each colleague writes down a resource, a contact, or some assistance that might address these requests. Again, this can easily be done on a Post-it Note. Be sure that each person writes his or her name on the Post-it Note so that follow-up connections can be made. Group members will not be able to respond to every request, but the more responses each person can make, the better. Two kinds of contributions may be made. One kind of contribution is that you have the resource, such as knowledge, information, expertise, budget, product, emotional support, and so forth. Another kind of contribution is that you have contacts, such as someone you know who has the resource. You can provide a referral so that the requestor can connect to this person.

Step 5: After taking time to write contributions on separate notes, each person takes time to publicly explain his or her contribution to the requests for which he or she can add value. Each response is posted below the note containing the request. Sharing these contributions aloud tends to stimulate the thinking of others who may also realize some additional resource or contribution.

Step 6: After everyone has had a chance to explain aloud their contributions to the requests with which they can help, provide time for each person to connect with each resource provider associated with their request. The network is formed when requesters and resource providers connect and exchange valuable information.

An important outcome of this practice is to uncover new ideas and new resources that were previously unknown or unrecognized. Baker (2012) found that individuals who offer the most contributions tend to be rated as more competent leaders, more interpersonally effective, and higher performers in their organizations than others. That is, people who are willing to demonstrate generalized reciprocity—to contribute without expecting a personal benefit in return—are more successful leaders.

SKILL **APPLICATION**

ACTIVITIES FOR MANAGING STRESS

Suggested Assignments

2.8. Do a systematic analysis of the stressors you face in your job, family, school, and social life. List the types of stressors you face, and identify strategies to eliminate or sharply reduce them. Record this analysis in your journal.

2.9. Find someone you know well who is experiencing a great deal of stress. Teach him or her how to manage that stress better by applying the concepts, principles, techniques, and exercises in this chapter. Describe what you taught, and record the results in your journal.

2.10. The Time Management Assessment evaluates the degree to which you effectively manage your time and the extent to which you implement time management principles. Prioritizing what needs to be done is important, because there is a chance

that what you are working on is not of strategic importance. Create a to-do list and rank the activities on it to determine their priority.

2.11. With a coworker or colleague, identify ways in which your work at school, job, or home can be re-crafted or redesigned to reduce stress, better align with your core values, and increase productivity. Use the hints provided in the chapter to guide your redesign.

2.12. What is the four-step model used in goal setting? Use this process to reduce stress by focusing attention on an immediate action rather than an uncertain future. Choose a particular goal that can be clearly defined and targeted. Make it compatible with the top priorities in your life. Share this plan with others so that you have an incentive to pursue it even after you finish this course.

2.13. Resiliency is the capacity to withstand or manage the negative effects of stress, to bounce back from adversity, and to endure difficult situations. One of the key factors that help develop resiliency is life balance. Assess your own life balance and identify how it impacts your stress levels.

2.14. Meaningfulness in work reflects a sense of professional purpose. People generally ascribe one of three kinds of meaning to their work. Assess these three orientations and identify how they relate to you and how you feel and respond to work.

2.15. Start keeping a gratitude journal.

2.16. Group work is a highly effective learning tool, but it can create stressful situations. How would you use muscle relaxation and deep breathing techniques if a group member texted you five minutes before an important presentation to say that they were not going to show up for it?

Application Plan and Evaluation

The intent of this exercise is to help you apply this cluster of skills in a real-life, out-of-class setting. Now that you have become familiar with the behavioral guidelines that form the basis of effective skill performance, you will improve most by trying out those guidelines in an everyday context. Unlike a classroom activity, in which feedback is immediate and others can assist you with their evaluations, this skill application activity is one you must accomplish and evaluate on your own. There are two parts to this activity: Part 1 helps prepare you to apply the skill, and Part 2 helps you evaluate and improve on your experience. Be sure to write down answers to each item. Don't short-circuit the process by skipping steps.

APPLICATION

Part 1: Planning

2.17. Choose a particular skill that is most important to you or most relevant to your current circumstances. These may be areas of weakness, areas you most want to improve, or areas that are most salient to a problem you face right now. Identify the specific skill that you want to apply.

2.18. Now identify the setting or the situation in which you will apply this skill. Establish a plan for performance by actually writing down a description of the situation. Who else will be involved? When will you do it? Where will it be done?

Circumstances:
Who else?
When?
Where?

2.19. Identify the specific behaviors in which you will engage to apply this skill. Operationalize your skill performance.

2.20. What are the indicators of successful performance? How will you know you have been effective? What will indicate you have performed competently?

Part 2: Evaluation

2.21. After you have completed your implementation, record the results. What happened? How successful were you? What was the effect on others?

2.22. How can you improve? What modifications can you make next time? What will you do differently in a similar situation in the future?

2.23. Looking back on your whole skill practice and application experience, what have you learned? What has been surprising? In what ways might this experience help you in the long term?

SCORING KEYS AND COMPARISON DATA

✪ Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management for scoring keys and comparison data for the following instruments:

Stress Management
Time Management Assessment

Social Readjustment Rating Scale

Comparison Data (N = 5,000 students)

Total Score	*Mean*	*Bottom Quartile*	*Second Quartile*	*Third Quartile*	*Top Quartile*
	257.76	122 or below	123–221	222–346	347 or above

According to the authors of these instruments, scores of 150 points or below resulted in a probability of less than 37 percent that a serious illness would occur in the next year, but the probability increased to about 50 percent with scores of 150–300. Those who scored over 300 on the SRRS had an 80 percent chance of serious illness. Research results also show an injury rate among athletes five times as great for high scorers on the SRRS as for low scorers.

Sources of Personal Stress

This exercise does not have a solution or scoring data. However, inasmuch as this instrument was designed to complement SRRS, the explanations of scores for that assessment are relevant.

Flourishing Scale

Comparison Data

The range of scores for this instrument is between 8 and 56. Below are the percentiles associated with each score, as reported by the authors of the instrument.

Score	*Percentile*	*Score*	*Percentile*
25	1	45	44
29	3	46	53
32	5	47	60
34	7	48	70
36	10	49	77
37	13	50	83
38	15	51	87
39	18	52	90
40	21	53	93
41	24	54	96
42	28	55	90
43	33	56	100
44	39		