

Flow Experience and Workplace Well-being

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The article presents flow model as an integrative framework of conceptualizing and operationalizing positive work focus resulting in psychological well-being. Flow is defined as a state of absorption in the work process. It is precipitated by conditions of perceived ability and challenging tasks. High levels of concentration, lack of self-awareness, and transformation of time constitute its distinguishing features. Flow is facilitated by states of intrinsic motivation, signature strength and autotelic personality. Since health and well-being in the workplace have become major concern in contemporary life, an empirical investigation was undertaken to examine the association between flow experience and workplace well-being. The study involved 240 managers from software organizations in and around the city of Bhubaneswar. The study adopted 2 (sex) x 2 (flow level) design where male and female managers were crossed with two levels of flow experience. Major hypotheses relating to the positive association between flow and well-being were supported.

Keywords: Flow experience, Workplace well-being, State of absorption, Positive work-focus.

Health and well-being in the workplace has become a major concern in contemporary life. These topics continue to dominate the pages of practitioner-oriented magazines. More recently such topics are receiving attention in scholarly research journals. For a variety of reasons, these issues occupy a much more prominent niche in mainstream organizational research (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

First, an individual's experience at work obviously affects the person while she or he is in the workplace. In addition, these experiences also "spill over" into non-work domains. Workers almost spend one-third of their waking hours at work, they don't necessarily leave the job behind when they leave the work site. Indeed, the overlap between non-work and work leads to the observation that a person's work and personal lives interwined. Second, there is a growing awareness that certain elements in the workplace pose risks for workers. Unsafe work practices, sexual harassment disturbing supervisor-subordinate relationship, and uncontrolled aggression are such potential threats. Third, health problems adversely affect outcomes. Workers experiencing poor health

may be less productive, make lower quality decisions, exhibit higher absenteeism and make consistently diminishing overall contributions to the organization.

The concept of well-being is regarded as a broad construct. It includes various life/non-work satisfactions experienced by individuals (i.e., satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction with family life, social life, recreation, and so forth), work/job related satisfactions (i.e., satisfactions or dissatisfaction with pay, promotion, co-workers, and so forth), and general health. General health, in turn, is regarded as a state of equilibrium at the physical, mental, social and spiritual domains (World Health Organization).

At the operational level, the construct is based on three-component model. First, well-being includes total life satisfaction. It provides an overall assessment of individual's subjective well-being. Second, it denotes "feel good" component. In this context, the frequency is more important than the intensity; frequent experience of moderately positive affects (emotion) is a reliable indicator of well-being. Third, satisfaction in several domains of life (such as work, family,

social relation, and so forth) is also an essential component. A comprehensive measure includes all these three components.

Measurements

Well-being is not a unitary construct. There are several components of subjective well-being (SWB): life satisfaction (global judgment of one's life), satisfaction with important domains (e.g., work satisfaction), positive affect (experiencing many pleasant emotions and moods), and low levels of negative affect (experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods).

In early research on well-being, researchers studied only a single self-report item for measurement. For example, participants were asked about the feeling of life as a whole on a 7-point scale ranging from delighted to terrible. Current measure of well-being includes multiple items. For example, the PANAS (Positive and Negative Affect Scale) assesses both positive and negative affect, each with ten affect items. The gap score between positive affect experience rating and negative affect experience rating is indicative of wellness or illness.

In the past, researchers have used additional types of assessment to obtain a better gauge of long-term feelings. One such measure is Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Considering the view that one-time self-report life satisfaction scale is inadequate, ESM measures life satisfaction and memories of positive and negative life events.

On the basis of World Value Survey – II (World Value Survey Group, 1994) three components of well-being have been recognized: life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. The life satisfaction score is based on respondents' answers to the question: "all things considered, how satisfied you are with your life these days?" This was used with the help of number from 1 (dissatisfied) to 10 (satisfied). Later many researchers have adopted this format, but have usually included multi-item scales.

Other physiological measures, reports by informants, memory and reaction time measures are included in order to make measurement

complete. However, each of these measures has limitation, but the merits of different kinds of measures are complementary to each other. For example, in the memory measure, participants are asked to generate as many positive and negative events from their lives they can during a short span of time. With the help of this method, researchers can measure individual difference in the relative accessibility of memories for good and bad events and structure of respondent's recall of their lives.

Diener (2000) argues that the frequency count of intense positive emotion is not an appropriate indication of well-being. He viewed that how much time a person experiences well-being is a better predictor than positive emotional intensity of how happy the person reports being. Intense positive moments are rare even among the happiest individuals. Instead happy individuals report mild-to-moderate pleasant emotions most of the time whether they are alone or with others, at work or in free time.

In contra-distinction to Diener's (2000) three-component model of well-being, Ryff and Keyes (1995) proposed six-component model of well-being. The components include self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy and positive relations with others.

In summation, there are various approaches to measurement. The contemporary researchers are adopting multi-measure approach. For example, Sahoo (2006) has developed a multi-measure technique that comprises mainly three parts (total life satisfaction, domain-specific satisfaction, and mild positive affects).

Process Nature of Well-Being

The dynamics of well-being have been approached from several standpoints. There is no critical study to support and confirm a specific theoretical position. However, elements of complementary nature are visible while exploring these varied landscapes.

Intentional activity: Lyubomirsky and her colleagues offer evidence which suggests that volitional efforts (intentional activity) offer a route to longitudinal increases in well-being. According

to Lyubomirsky (2001), individuals are active agents, with innumerable behavioural options and concerns to which they devote energy. Intentional activity denotes volitional efforts. It is implied that intentional activities require some degree of effort to enact. There is a difference between the category of activity and category of life events. Events happen to people, but activities are the ways people handle events. For example, some people undertake regular physical exercise; Others extend help to the needy. Similarly, intentional activities may be cognitive in nature. People's commitment to literary writings is one such volitional activity. All volitional activities are self-set; these are derived from within, not imposed from the outside.

Telic or end-point theories: They maintain that well-being is gained when some state, such as a goal or need, is reached or satisfied. It is maintained that satisfaction of needs causes wellness and conversely, the persistence of unfulfilled needs causes unhappiness.

Alternatively, telic theories derive from different origins of strivings. In need theories, there are certain innate or learned needs that the person seeks to fulfill. The person may or may not be aware of these needs. Nevertheless, it is postulated that well-being will follow from their fulfillment. In contrast, goal theories are based on specific desires of which the person is aware. The person is consciously seeking certain goals and well-being results when they are reached. Goals and needs are related and in that underlying needs may lead to specific goals. Needs may be universal, such as those postulated by Maslow or they may differ markedly from individual to individual.

Top-down versus bottom-up theories: Bottom-up theories maintain that well-being is simply the sum of many small pleasures. According to this view, when a person judges whether his or her life is happy some mental calculation is used to sum the momentary pleasure and pain. A happy life in this view is an accumulation of happy moments. In contrast, the top-down approach assumes that there is a global propensity to experience things in a positive way and this propensity influences

the momentary world. In other words, a person enjoys pleasure because he or she is happy, and not vice versa.

Associationistic theories: Many theories are based on memory, conditioning or cognitive principles that can be subsumed under the broad rubric of Associationistic models. Cognitive approaches to well-being are in their infancy. One cognitive approach rests on the attributions (explanations) that people make about the events that happen to them. For example, those events bring the most well-being if they are attributed to internal stable factors.

One general cognitive approach to well-being has to do with associative networks in the memory. Bower (1991) has shown that people will recall memories that are affectively congruent with their current emotional state. Research on memory network suggests that individuals could develop a rich network of positive associations and a more limited and isolated network of negative ones. In such people, more events or ideas could be happy ideas and positive affect. Thus, a person with such a predominantly positive network could be predisposed to react to more events in a positive way.

A related type to theory is based on classically conditioned elicitation of affect. Research has shown that affective conditioning can be extremely resistant to extinctions. Thus, happy people might be those who have had very positive affective experiences associated with a large number of frequent every-day stimuli. Zajonc' (1998) contends that affective reaction occurs independently and/or more rapidly than cognitive evaluation of stimuli.

There is some evidence that a person can give conscious direction to the affective association in his or her life. There is evidence that a conscious attempt to reduce negative thoughts can increase happiness. It is found that reciting positive statements in the morning leads to a happier day. It is also found that positive thinking similar to that recommended by Norman Peale is correlated with well-being. Thus, explicit conscious attempt to avoid negative thoughts and to think of happy ones may increase happiness.

Certain individuals may have built up a strong network of positive associations and learned to react habitually in a positive way. These individuals are characterized as possessing a happy temperament. A person with a Pollyanna approach to life is perhaps the prototype of a person who has formed positive associations to the world. Several studies have found a relationship between happiness, a cognitive bias towards positive associations and high Pollyanna personality scores.

Judgment theories: Judgment theories maintain that well-being results from a comparison between some standard and actual conditions. When actual conditions exceed, happiness will result. In the case of satisfaction, such comparisons may be conscious. However, in the case of affect, comparison with a standard may occur in a nonconscious manner.

Judgment theories are classified on the basis of the standard that is used. In social comparison theories, one uses other people as a standard. If a person is better off than others, then people would be satisfied or happy. Sometimes a person's past life is used to set standard/s. If the individual's current life exceeds this standard, that person will probably be happy.

In social comparison framework, proximity to others is usually weighted heavily because of their salience. It is shown that downward comparison with less fortunate persons can increase well-being. It is also found that believing others live in poor circumstances can enhance one's life satisfaction. It is argued that whether the amount of income that will satisfy people depends on the income of others in the society. One shortcoming to social comparison theories is that they do not make clear when a person will need to make comparison with others.

Adaptation theory is based on a standard derived from an individual's own experience. If current events are better than the standard, the individuals will be happy. However, if the good events continue, adaptation will occur, the individual's standard will rise, so that it eventually matches the newer events. Thus, according to the adaptation theory, recent changes produce happiness and unhappiness because a person

will eventually adapt to the overall level of events. It is shown that lottery winners are happier, but quadriplegics are unhappy than normal people. It is suggested that people adapt to all events, no matter how fortunate or unfortunate. It is also found that spinal cord injury victims are extremely unhappy after their accidents. However, their affect quickly begins moving back towards happiness suggesting that adaptation is occurring rapidly even to this extreme misfortune.

There is a provocative theory of well-being based on laboratory models of human judgment. The model has the most interesting implications for people. It predicts that the greatest happiness will occur for those who have a negatively skewed distribution of events. A positively skewed distribution of events will produce unhappiness a majority of the time.

One popular form of judgment theory is aspiration level. It maintains that happiness will depend on the discrepancy in a person's life between actual conditions and aspirations. Happiness depends on the ratio of unfulfilled desires to total desires. According to this theory, high aspirations are as much a threat to happiness as are bad conditions. The level of aspiration presumably comes from an individual's previous experience, goals and so forth. Nevertheless, there is evidence that supports the idea that the discrepancy between actual conditions and the level a person aspires is correlated with well-being; this relationship does not appear to be strong.

A fundamental question related to judgment theories deals with when each type of comparisons takes precedence. For example, when will social comparison be most important and when will adaptation or one's prior conditions be more important? There are some suggestions that social comparison may be more important to many satisfaction judgments. In contrast, one's prior experience may usually have more influence on affect.

Thus, the exploration of the process nature of well-being has identified a number of theoretical routes. Researchers have attempted to substantiate their own viewpoints in terms

of supportive empirical evidence. Yet, a crucial examination of their relative standings is a challenging task that lies ahead.

Workplace Well-Being

While the term “well-being” generally appeared to encompass both physiological and psychological symptoms within a more medical context, the contemporary focus on positive psychology has put a shift in conceptualization. Following Warr (1990), well-being tends to be a broader and encompassing concept that takes into consideration the “whole person”. Beyond specific physical and/or psychological symptoms, well-being should be used as appropriate to include context-free measures of life experiences.

The quality of life experience is comprehensively and adequately expressed in the language of flow experience. While the conceptualization of health and well-being tends to be a broad and encompassing concept involving the whole person, organizational research has included both generalized job-related experiences (job satisfaction, job attachment) as well as more domain-specific dimensions (satisfaction with pay). The pertinent literature in the area has identified three areas of concerns: antecedent factors, personality factors, and outcome factors (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

Flow is the mental state of operation in which the person is fully immersed in what he or she is doing. Flow experience occurs when a person becomes engaged in a controllable but challenging task. It is characterized by total concentration (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). There are clear goals and immediate feedback. Individuals must have a good chance of completing the task. The sense of self evaporates and the perception of time is altered.

The Construct of Flow

Flow experiences may occur during certain forms of activities. Activities such as reading, singing, dancing, and rock climbing have high potentials for flow experience. In contrast, passive activity like television watching has a low potential for flow experience. A critical element

in flow experience is the intrinsic motivation. All flow-inducing activities are intrinsically motivated.

According to Csikszentmihalyi (1990), the flow experience is a condition that denotes total involvement. People do it for the sake of doing it. In other words, the means and the ends are merged in one. Because of its intrinsic reward, people stretch their skills and abilities to the limit (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993).

Flow results from the combination of high perceived skill and high perceived challenge. It is a common observation that low perceived skill and high perceived challenge would produce anxiety, while low perceived skill and low perceived challenge would result in apathy. Furthermore, high perceived skill and low perceived challenge would result in boredom. An interesting finding emerging from studies of flow documents greater positive mood resulting from a combination of high levels of skill and challenge.

The opportunity of providing such combinations of high levels of skill and challenge holds possibilities for workplace well-being. George and Brief (1992) suggest that the successful completion of work activities demonstrating competence would enhance positive mood. Similarly Isen, Daubman and Nowicki (1987) maintain that perception of competence and self-work would increase positive mood.

In view of the significance of flow experience in organizational life, an empirical investigation is directed to examine the role of flow in workplace well-being.

Method

An Overview of the Design:

The design involves a 2(sex) x 2(flow level) design where male and female managers are categorized into two quasi-experimental design on the basis of the median split of flow as measured by a standardized questionnaire. The four subgroups (high flow male managers, low flow male managers, high flow female managers, low flow female managers) are compared with respect to their workplace well-being.

Sample and Setting:

About 240 participants (120 males and 120 females) for this study were taken as a sample from modern software organizations in and around Bhubaneswar. All participants were from a specific income bracket.

Measures:

Flow Experience Questionnaire (FEQ): It was developed by Csikszentmihalyi (1998). It consists of two parts. In the first part, quotations from people who have had flow experiences are given (e.g. "My mind isn't wandering. I am not thinking something else. I am totally involved in what I am doing. My body feels good. I don't seem to hear anything"). Respondents are then asked to indicate if they have had such experiences, and if so, how often and in what contexts.

They are then asked to proceed to the second part, in which they rate flow experiences they have had on a series of items. This part consists of 12 statements such as "I get involved", "I get anxious", "I clearly know what I am supposed to do" and the like. Respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each of the statements on an 8-point scale where '1' denotes "strongly disagree" and '8' indicates "strongly agree". Five of the statements are negatively keyed and the scoring of these items is reversed. The flow experience score is then computed by summing up scores across all items.

The Workplace Well-being Scale (WWS): It is a multi-part questionnaire. It consists of four parts. The scale developed by Sahoo (2011) has been specifically designed to measure indicators of workplace well-being. The scale has been validated and pretested (Sahoo, 2011) prior to the present investigation.

Part 1 of WWS measures total life satisfaction. This part includes ten items. Respondents are required to indicate their level of satisfaction on a 7-point scale, where "1" indicates "strongly disagree" and "7" denotes "strongly agree". Two of the items are keyed in the negative direction and the scoring of these two items is reversed. The total life satisfaction score is then computed by summing up the scores across all the items.

Part 2 of the WWS measures domain-specific well-being. Five such domains are represented in this part of the questionnaire. These include organizational structure and climate, workrole, relationship, career development, and work-life integration. There are a number of sub-domains under each of these domains. For instance, the domain of relationship includes sub-domains such as colleagues, subordinates, and boss.

Respondents are required to indicate their level of satisfaction on a 7-point scale with respect to each domain as well as each sub-domain, where "1" denotes "terrible" and "7" indicates "delightful". While computing the score, two sets of scores are computed for each domain: a domain (say, relationship) score in general and a domain (say, relationship) score in specific. The score in general is computed as indicated by the respondent in response to his/her satisfaction with a domain (say, relationship) in general. The score in specific is computed by summing the scores across sub-domains of a domain (say, relationship with boss, relationship with colleagues, and relationship with subordinates) and then computing the average. The score labeled "score in specific" is computed on the rationale that employees view specific aspects (say, relationship with colleagues) more critically compared to their evaluation of domain in general.

Part 3 of the WWS measures the intensity of feelings. Twenty-four affect-denoting (12 positive and 12 negative) adjectives are presented. The positive items include cheerful, lively, joyful and the like. Negative items include irritable, depressed, scared and the like. Respondents are asked to indicate the frequency with which they have been experiencing each of these feelings for the previous two months. The rating scale ranges from 1 to 5 where "1" indicates "never" and "5" denotes "almost always". The positive affect score is computed by summing scores across positive items and the negative affect score similarly computed by summing the scores across negative items. The differential affect experience score is obtained by subtracting the two scores which is indicative of a person's tilt towards positive or negative affect states.

Part 4 of the WWS consists of seven personal information indicators. Respondents are asked to indicate their name (optional), sex, age, residence, education, income and occupation.

Procedure:

The study was conducted in two phases. During Phase 1 of the study, all participants (120 male managers and 120 female managers) were administered the standardized measure of flow experience. On the basis of the median split of scores, participants within each sex group were categorized into two groups: high flow individuals and low flow individuals.

During Phase 2, participants in four subgroups (high flow male managers, low flow male managers, high flow female managers and low flow female managers) were individually administered measure of workplace well-being. In addition, socio-demographic features such as age, education and income were also recorded. Appropriate statistical analysis was carried out to examine the role of flow experience in workplace well-being.

Results

The overall pattern of result suggests significant association between flow experience and well-being. This significant association is reflected in all three indicators of workplace well-being (total life satisfaction, domain-specific satisfaction and positive affect and negative affect differential). As shown in Table 1, there is a significant relationship between flow experiences and total life satisfaction, $r(238) = .29$ $p < .01$. The significant associations are also found in groups of males and females considered separately (see Table 1). Insert Table 1 about here

Table 1 also depicts correlation coefficients between flow and domain-specific satisfaction. The domains include organizational culture, work roles, relationship, career development, and work-life integration. It is important to note that correlations are computed separately with a domain in general and a domain in specific. For instance, participants indicate their satisfaction with respect to relationship in general. They are also asked to indicate their satisfaction with specific relationship (i.e. relationship with the boss, with colleagues, and with subordinates).

Table 1. Product Moment Correlation Coefficients between Flow Experience and Well-being Indicators

Variables	Male (n = 120)	Female (n = 120)	All (N = 240)
Total life satisfaction	.48**	.31**	.29**
Satisfaction with organizational culture in general	.09	.08	.08
Satisfaction with organizational culture in specific	.04	.03	.04
Satisfaction with work roles in general	.39**	.32**	.31**
Satisfaction with work roles in specific	.17*	.19*	.19*
Satisfaction with relationship in general	.14*	.10	.13*
Satisfaction with relationship in specific	.10	.09	.09
Satisfaction with career development in general	.16*	.19*	.18*
Satisfaction with career development in specific	.12	.09	.11
Satisfaction with work-life integration in general	.21**	.23**	.22**
Satisfaction with work-life integration in specific	.13*	.11	.12
Positive affect experience	.39**	.28**	.29**
Negative affect experience	-.17*	-.15*	-.11*
Differential affect experience	.19*	.16*	.13*

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

The satisfaction with relationship (in specific) is computed by averaging these three scores. A domain-specific satisfaction score is similarly computed for other domains.

It is clearly shown that flow experience bears a significant relationship with many of domain-specific satisfaction. For instance, there is significant relation between flow experience and satisfaction with work roles in general ($r(238) = .31, p < .01$). Similarly, there is a significant association between flow experience and work role in specific ($r(238) = .19, p < .05$). It is important to note that the relationship with a domain in general is stronger compared to the association with the same domain in specific. In sum, flow experience holds a significant relationship with domain-specific satisfaction.

The third indicator of well-being happens to be affect experience. As expected, there is a significant relationship between flow experience and positive affect ($r(238) = .29, p < .01$). In contrast, there is significant negative association between flow experience and negative affect experience ($r(238) = -.11, p < .05$). When differential affect experience (positive affect experience minus negative affect experience) is considered, the correlation between flow experience and differential affect experience is found to be significant and positive ($r(238) = .13, p < .05$).

Apart from examining the pattern of associations, group differences are analyzed in the form of 2(sex) x 2(orientation: low flow versus high flow) and the analysis of variance is determined. The mean scores are presented in Table 2. It is indicated that total life satisfaction is not gender-linked. Male managers report as much total life satisfaction as do female managers ($M = 54.85$ and $F = 50.45$, respectively). In almost all domain-specific satisfactions, there is no significant sex difference. However, there is a significant sex difference with respect to positive affect experience as well as negative affective experience. The examination mean scores shows that female managers report greater positive affect experience than do male managers ($F = 43.16$ and $M = 38.13$, respectively). Similarly, female managers

indicate greater negative affect experience than male managers ($F = 29.47$ and $M = 25.14$, respectively). These are in expected directions. There is no sex difference with respect to differential affect experience.

Table 2. Mean Workplace Well-being Scores

Variables	Groups		
	Manager with low flow	Managers with high flow	All
Total life satisfaction			
Males	52.30	57.40	54.85
Females	47.30	53.60	50.45
Combined	49.80	55.50	
Satisfaction with organizational culture in general			
Males	5.55	6.15	5.85
Females	5.25	6.05	5.65
Combined	5.40	6.10	
Satisfaction with organizational culture in specific			
Males	4.70	5.20	4.95
Females	4.20	5.10	4.65
Combined	4.45	5.15	
Satisfaction with work roles in general			
Males	5.10	6.20	5.65
Females	5.80	6.70	6.25
Combined	5.45	6.45	
Satisfaction with work roles in specific			
Males	4.84	6.32	5.58
Females	5.62	6.86	6.24
Combined	5.23	6.59	
Satisfaction with relationship in general			
Males	5.14	6.00	5.57
Females	5.86	6.80	6.33
Combined	5.50	6.40	
Satisfaction with relationship in specific			
Males	5.06	6.18	5.62
Females	5.02	6.72	5.87
Combined	5.04	6.45	
Satisfaction with career development in general			
Males	4.80	5.26	5.03
Females	4.30	4.32	4.31
Combined	4.55	4.79	
Satisfaction with career development in specific			
Males	4.54	5.10	4.82
Females	4.22	5.06	4.64
Combined	4.38	5.08	

Satisfaction with work-life integration in general			
Males	4.86	5.30	5.08
Females	4.62	4.90	4.76
Combined	4.74	5.10	
Satisfaction with work-life integration in specific			
Males	4.04	5.18	4.61
Females	4.02	5.06	4.54
Combined	4.03	5.12	
Positive affect experience			
Males	34.65	41.60	38.13
Females	42.15	44.16	43.16
Combined	38.40	42.88	
Negative affect experience			
Males	30.12	20.16	25.14
Females	40.14	18.80	29.47
Combined	35.13	19.48	
Differential affect experience			
Males	4.90	4.75	4.82
Females	5.20	6.65	5.92
Combined	5.05	5.70	

The comparison of well-being scores of managers with high flow level vis-à-vis managers with low flow level clearly evinces that the former group indicate greater workplace well-being than the latter group. With respect to total life satisfaction, the group difference is highly significant ($F(1,236) = 13.02, p < .01$). Managers with high flow level indicate greater well-being than managers with low flow level ($M = 55.50$ and $F = 49.80$, respectively). Similar pattern is shown with respect to all domain specific satisfactions. Only with respect to differential affect experience, there is a trend in the expected direction though the difference does not reach the level of statistical difference.

In summation, flow experience is significantly associated with all three indicators of workplace well-being. However, workplace well-being is not sex-linked. Yet female managers indicate greater positive affect experience as well as negative affective experience than do male managers. Managers with high flow level exhibit greater workplace well-being than do managers with low flow level.

Discussion and Implications

The findings of the present study have both theoretical as well as applied significance.

Theoretically, it delineates an important causal route of well-being. While the role of flow experience in human happiness has been documented (Sahoo & Sahu, 2009), the linkage has been extended to workplace well-being. It appears that work settings offer greater possibility of blending the challenges like nature of the task with high skill sets. In such situations, people with predisposing tendency of flow experience exploit the situation to their full advantage.

For flow experiences to occur, the manager must have a good chance of combining skill with challenge. Such activity of combining the two require concentration so that the person becomes deeply and effortlessly involved in them, so much so that he or she no longer thinks of the worries and frustrations of everyday life. The sense of self disappears when involved in these tasks and paradoxically the sense of self emerges as strengthened after the task is completed. Time perception is altered during the flow experiences.

Activities that lead to flow experiences are said to be autotelic. Two major implications flow from such observations. First, organizations need to identify the match between challenging task and high skill set. Second, managers need to have requisite autonomy in choosing the task such that tasks would be viewed as self-set, rather than being imposed.

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