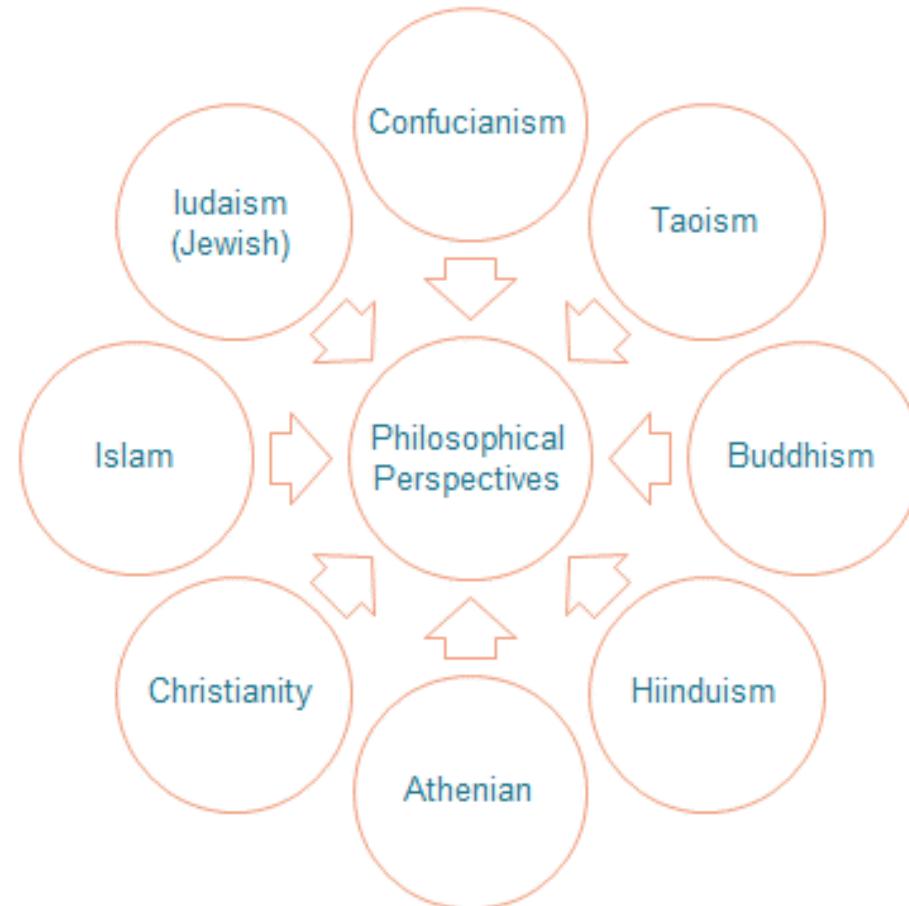


# Virtues & Qualities

They say that these make you a better person...

# Virtues

## Philosophical perspectives



# Virtues

## Convergence of Virtues – Core Virtues

### *Core Virtues*

Virtue	Description
Courage	Emotional strengths that involve the exercise of will to accomplish goals in the face of opposition, external or internal; examples include bravery, perseverance, and authenticity (honesty)
Justice	Civic strengths that underlie healthy community life; examples include fairness, leadership, and citizenship or teamwork
Humanity	Interpersonal strengths that involve “tending and befriending” others (Taylor et al., 2000); examples include love and kindness
Temperance	Strengths that protect against excess; examples include forgiveness, humility, prudence, and self-control
Wisdom	Cognitive strengths that entail the acquisition and use of knowledge; examples include creativity, curiosity, judgment, and perspective (providing counsel to others)
Transcendence	Strengths that forge connections to the larger universe and thereby provide meaning; examples include gratitude, hope, and spirituality

## Convergence of Virtues – Commonalities

Tradition	Courage	Justice	Humanity	Temperance	Wisdom	Transcendence
Confucianism		E	E	T	E	T
Taoism		E	E	E	E	T
Buddhism		E	E	E	T	E
Hinduism	E	E	E	E	E	E
Athenian philosophy	E	E	E	E	E	T
Christianity	E	E	E	E	E	E
Judaism	E	E	E	E	E	E
Islam	E	E	E	E	E	E

*Note.* E = explicitly named; T = thematically implied.

# Virtues

## Intellectual Virtues



# Virtues

## Leadership Qualities



# Virtues

## Personal Qualities

In 1968 Norman Anderson came up with the 555 personal characteristics (listed below) and had hundreds of students rank order the 555 words

from **most desirable** (Note the top 4 are Sincere, Honest, Understanding, and Loyal)

to **most distasteful** (the last 4 are cruel, mean, phony, and liar).

The order of the list below represents the average of the students' rating.

Here is the reference if you would like to read Anderson's original article:

Anderson, N. H. (1968). Likableness ratings of 555 personality-trait words. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 9, 272-279.

# Virtues

## Personal Qualities

- |                  |                  |                  |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Sincere       | 11. Wise         | 21. Happy        |
| 2. Honest        | 12. Considerate  | 22. Clean        |
| 3. Understanding | 13. Good-Natured | 23. Interesting  |
| 4. Loyal         | 14. Reliable     | 24. Unselfish    |
| 5. Truthful      | 15. Mature       | 25. Good-Humored |
| 6. Trustworthy   | 16. Warm         | 26. Honorable    |
| 7. Intelligent   | 17. Earnest      | 27. Humorous     |
| 8. Dependable    | 18. Kind         | 28. Responsible  |
| 9. Open-Minded   | 19. Friendly     | 29. Cheerful     |
| 10. Thoughtful   | 20. Kind-Hearted | 30. Trustful     |

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# Personal and Professional Development

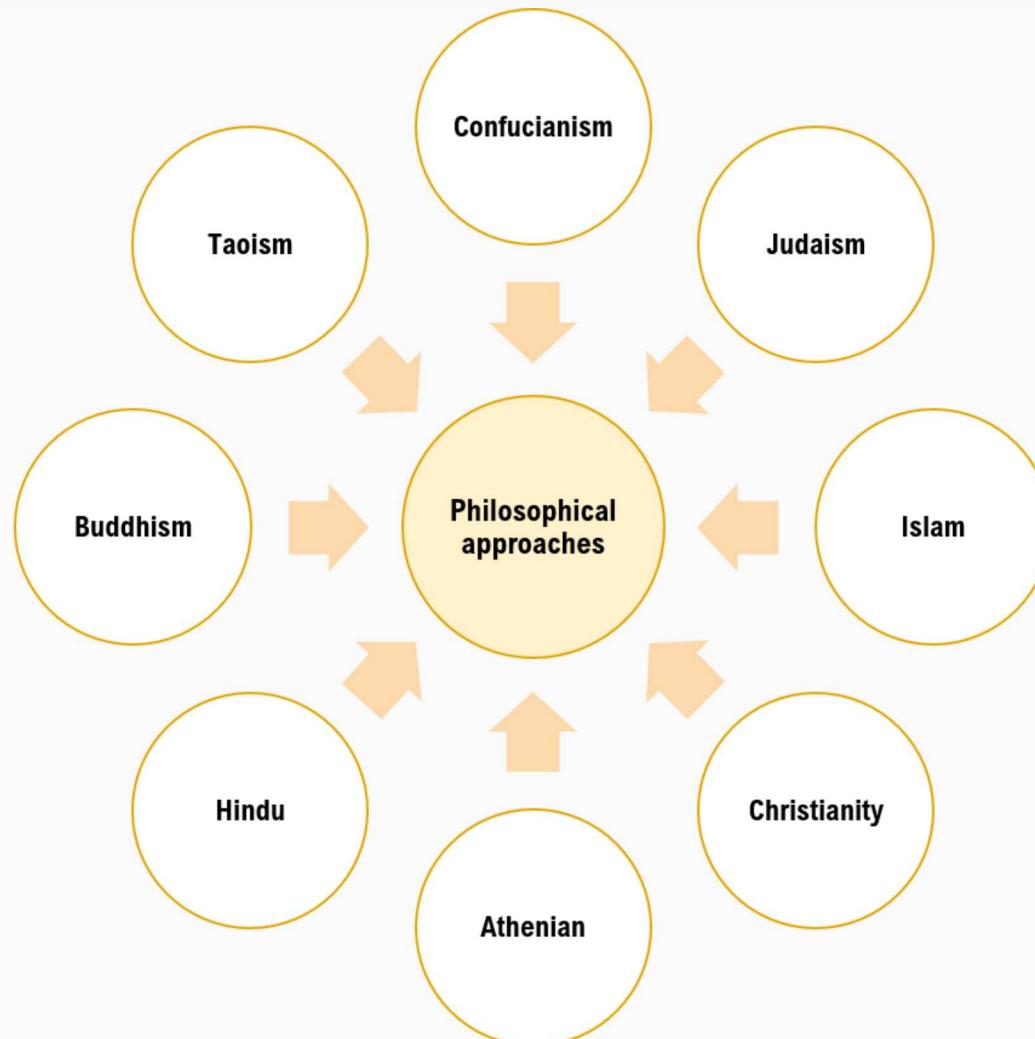
## L1 – Qualities & Virtues

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Dorin Stanciu  
Technical University of Cluj-Napoca  
last update 15 October, 2020

# qualities & virtues

# qualities and virtues



# qualities and virtues

- the societal perspective

They are mentioned in major philosophies and religious currents of the world.

All philosophical currents promote a certain desirable set of stable traits that characterize human thinking and behavior.

These are the so-called **core virtues**.

- the individual perspective

Each individual has a set of personal values. We do not always agree among ourselves to what constitutes a valuable/commendable trait

# qualities and virtues

## qualities and virtues. list & description

### *Core Virtues*

Virtue	Description
Courage	Emotional strengths that involve the exercise of will to accomplish goals in the face of opposition, external or internal; examples include bravery, perseverance, and authenticity (honesty)
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# qualities and virtues.

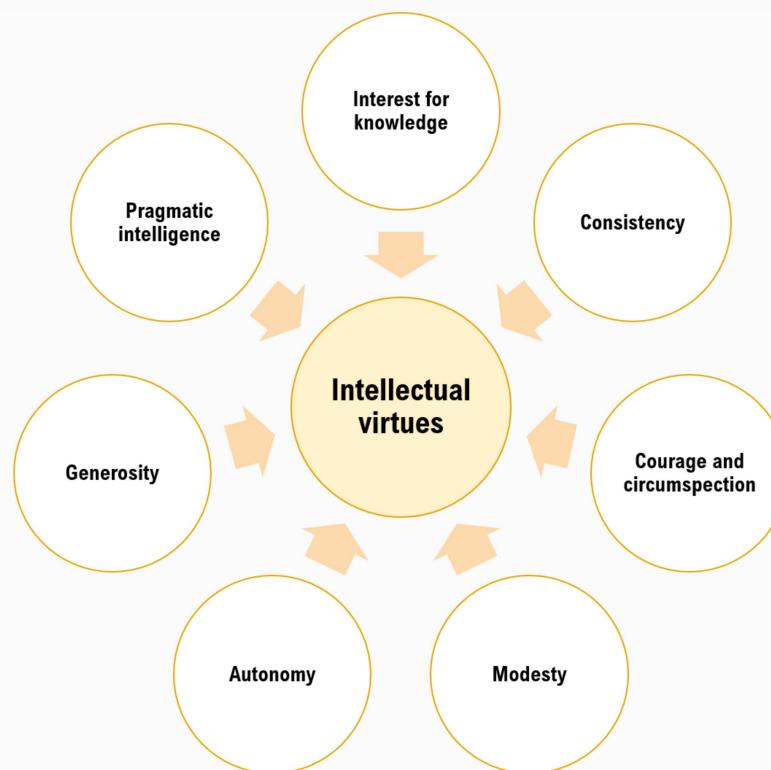
core qualities & description. integration with main currents

Tradition	Courage	Justice	Humanity	Temperance	Wisdom	Transcendence
Confucianism		E	E	T	E	T
Taoism		E	E	E	E	T
Buddhism		E	E	E	T	E
Hinduism	E	E	E	E	E	E
Athenian philosophy	E	E	E	E	E	T
Christianity	E	E	E	E	E	E
Judaism	E	E	E	E	E	E
Islam	E	E	E	E	E	E

Note. E = explicitly named; T = thematically implied.

# qualities and virtues

## intellectual virtues



# qualities and virtues

## leadership qualities



# qualities and virtues

## personal qualities

In 1968, Norman Anderson<sup>1</sup> came up with the 555 personal characteristics (listed below) and had hundreds of students rank order the 555 words

from most desirable (Note the top 4 are Sincere, Honest, Understanding, and Loyal)

to most distasteful (the last 4 are cruel, mean, phony, and liar).

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[1] Anderson, N. H. (1968). Likeableness ratings of 555 personality-trait words. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 9, 272-279.

# qualities and virtues

## personal qualities

- |                  |                  |                  |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Sincere       | 11. Wise         | 21. Happy        |
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# Personal and Professional Development

L2-The self and self constructs. Extra/suportting materials –  
Video sources

Dorin Stanciu

15 October, 2020

## Contents

Video sources	<b>2</b>
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## Video sources

- Allan Jones - A map of the brain
- Antonio Damasio - The Quest to Understand Consciousness
- Dan Dennett - The illusion of consciousness
- Daniel Goldstein - The battle between your present and future self
- Daniel Kahneman - Two Systems of the Mind
- Daniel Wolpert - The real reason for brains
- David Brooks - The Social Animal
- Ivan Joseph - The Skill of Self-Confidence
- Jeni Cross - Three myths about behavior change. What you think you know that you don't
- Neil Burgess - How your brain tells you where you are
- Neil Burgess - How your brain tells you where you are
- Rory Sutherland - Life lessons from an ad man
- RSA Animate - The Divided Brain
- Vilayanur Ramachandran - The neurons that shaped civilization
- Rory Sutherland - Perspective is Everything
- Richard Dawkins - Why the universe seems so strange
- Sasha Dichter -The Generosity Experiment
- Daniel Kahneman - The Trouble with Confidence

**Note:** The above-mentioned materials can be found on YouTube.

# Personal and Professional Development

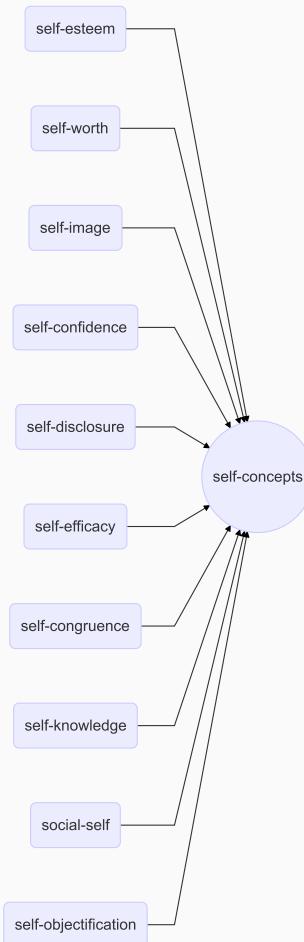
## L2 – Self-constructs

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last update 15 October, 2020

# self-constructs

# self-constructs



There are almost as many self-concepts as you can develop by intersecting one's self-awareness with a specific psychological trait.

For instance, self-confidence has to do with confidence related to one's individuality. The main aspect being, of course, *is that person confident in his/herself? do they trust themselves? are they true to themselves?*

Self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy are among the most commonly known self-constructs.

It is immediately apparent that almost all self-constructs are related with each other. For instance, self-worth is clearly related with self-esteem, and self-efficacy with self-confidence.

# self-constructs

## aspects of immediate importance. things to remember

The most important thing to remember about self-constructs is that they play a crucial role in how we define ourselves, and, consequently, how we approach various circumstances and context in life.

For instance, a person with low self-worth would more liable to expect lower rewards for their work than a person with higher self-worth.

Another aspect to be aware of is that high levels of a certain self-construct do not necessarily constitute a desirable thing. For instance, unsupported levels of self-confidence or self-esteem can lead that person into taking risks, based on their subjective beliefs of their own abilities.

Ultimately (for the limited purposes of this brief presentation), self-constructs are not always aligned, or consistent with each other. A person can have a high self-esteem but, concurrently, they can have a low self-efficacy. In other words, a person may think highly of themselves, but still have a low appraisal of their abilities to perform effectively.

# self-constructs

## self-esteem

**Self-esteem** is also a very common and important self-construct. It also have a particular importance due to many people believing that having high self-esteem is automatically a good thing (as pointed out above).

Individuals with high self-esteem, in position of social success, tend to compare themselves with others with respect to their best or equal qualities, whereas those with lower self-esteem and in less favorable positions tend to compare themselves with others with respect to their shortcomings.

High self-esteem persons show higher motivation in engaging in risk-loaded social interactions than those with lower self-esteem. Concurrently, the latter show higher motivation to engage in social interaction from which they expect social gains.

# self-constructs

## self-efficacy & locus of control

**Self-efficacy** is one of the most important appraisals that we build for ourselves. It refers to the extent to which we believe in our performance effectiveness. While it starts with appraisals of specific and concrete performances of our actions in clearly localized contexts, it grows naturally into forming a 'generic' construal of our abilities in general.

As we grow older and our proficiency is validated (or invalidated) repeatedly, we begin to form a general impression of ourselves as being effective persons ('doers'). Like most other beliefs, it is recommended to resort regularly to scrutinizing this belief for ourselves (we can resort to introspection as well as to external opinions, and even to professional, more objective evaluations).

# self-constructs

## self-efficacy & locus of control

Evaluation regarding one's self-efficacy are closely used in conjunction with their beliefs pertaining to their **locus of control**. Locus of control refers to the extent to which one believes that the outcome of a certain situation is controlled by factors outside the person's control and/or actions.

For instance, an individual may have high levels of self-efficacy, *i.e.*, they trust they have the required skills to perform successfully and effectively a certain task, but, at the same time, they believe that the outcome of that task does not depend on their contribution, but rather on external factors (these factors vary substantially, from spiritual or superstitious beliefs to beliefs that others control the outcome)

# DPP-EN

Personality. Big 5

Dorin Stanciu

11 November, 2020

## **Abstract**

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“Man’s main task in life is to give birth to himself, to become what he potentially is. The most important product of his own effort is his own personality.”

Erich Fromm<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Erich From (“Erich Fromm,” 2020), American psychologist, born in Germany (1900-1980)

## The Big Five personality traits

Note: this lecture content on Big 5 borrows heavily from the corresponding Wikipedia entry<sup>2</sup>, but why reinvent the wheel when the Wikipedia article is a very good synthesis of Big 5.

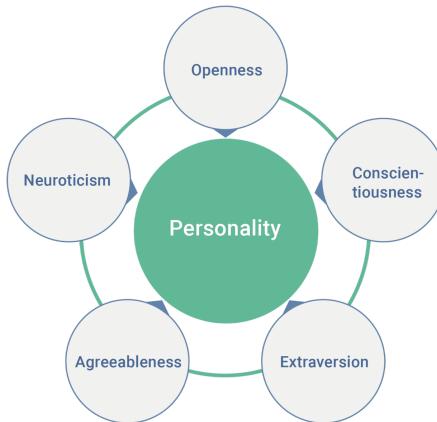


Figure 1: The Big Five Model (By Anna Tunikova for peats.de and wikipedia)

### Overview

- aka as the five-factor model (FFM) and the OCEAN model;
- developed from the 1980s onwards;
- developed in psychological trait theory;
- is a suggested taxonomy, or grouping, for personality traits

### Factors in Big 5

- openness to experience (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious);
- conscientiousness (efficient/organized vs. extravagant/careless);
- extraversion (outgoing/energetic vs. solitary/reserved);
- agreeableness (friendly/compassionate vs. challenging/callous);
- neuroticism (sensitive/nervous vs. resilient/confident);

### Description of Big 5 factors

#### 1) Openness to experience

---

<sup>2</sup>Big Five personality traits

- overview of *openness*
  - a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience.
  - intellectually curious, open to emotion, sensitive to beauty and willing to try new things.
  - more creative and more aware of their feelings.
  - more likely to hold unconventional beliefs.
- high openness
  - can be perceived as unpredictability or lack of focus, and more likely to engage in risky behavior or drug-taking.
  - are said to pursue self-actualization specifically by seeking out intense, euphoric experiences.
- low openness
  - seek to gain fulfillment through perseverance and are characterized as pragmatic and data-driven—sometimes even perceived to be dogmatic and closed-minded.
- Sample items
  - I have excellent ideas.
  - I am quick to understand things.
  - I use difficult words.
  - I am full of ideas.
  - I am not interested in abstractions. (reversed)
  - I do not have a good imagination. (reversed)
  - I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (reversed)

## 2) Conscientiousness

- Overview of *consciousness*
  - a tendency to display self-discipline, act dutifully, and strive for achievement against measures or outside expectations.
  - related to the way in which people control, regulate, and direct their impulses.
- high conscientiousness
  - often perceived as being stubborn and focused.
- low conscientiousness

- associated with flexibility and spontaneity,
  - can appear as sloppiness and lack of reliability.
- additional notes
  - High scores on conscientiousness indicate a preference for planned rather than spontaneous behavior.
  - The average level of conscientiousness rises among young adults and then declines among older adults.
- Sample items
  - I am always prepared.
  - I pay attention to details.
  - I get chores done right away.
  - I like order.
  - I follow a schedule.
  - I am exacting in my work.
  - I never forget my belongings.
  - I always end up being helpful to most things.
  - I often remember where I last put my things.
  - I give attention to my duties.

### 3) Extraversion

- Overview of *extraversion*
- *extraverts:*
  - breadth of activities (as opposed to depth),
  - surgency from external activity/situations,
  - energy creation from external means.
  - pronounced engagement with the external world.
  - enjoy interacting with people,
  - often perceived as full of energy.
  - tend to be enthusiastic, action-oriented.
  - they possess high group visibility, like to talk, and assert themselves.
  - may appear more dominant in social settings (as opposed to introverted people in this setting).
- *introverts:*
  - have lower social engagement and energy levels than extraverts. tend to seem quiet, low-key, deliberate, and less involved in the social world

- need less stimulation, and more time alone than extraverts.

Notes on *introversion*

- > Their lack of social involvement should not be interpreted as shyness or depression; instead they are more independent of their social world than extraverts.
- > This does not mean that they are unfriendly or antisocial; rather, they are reserved in social situations.

- *people are a combination of extraversion and introversion* (see Hans Eysenck about the basis of the individual differences).
- Sample items
  - I am the life of the party.
  - I do not mind being the center of attention.
  - I feel comfortable around people.
  - I start conversations.
  - I talk to a lot of different people at parties.
  - I do not talk a lot. (reversed)
  - I think a lot before I speak or act. (reversed)
  - I do not like to draw attention to myself. (reversed)
  - I am quiet around strangers. (reversed)
  - I have no intention of talking in large crowds. (reversed)

4) Agreeableness

- Overview
  - general concern for social harmony.
- Agreeable individuals
  - value getting along with others.
  - generally considerate, kind, generous, trusting and trustworthy, helpful, and willing to compromise their interests with others.
  - have an optimistic view of human nature.
- Disagreeable individuals
  - place self-interest above getting along with others.
  - generally unconcerned with others' well-being,
  - less likely to extend themselves for other people.

- sometimes suspicious, unfriendly, and uncooperative.
- often competitive or challenging people, which can be seen as argumentative or untrustworthy.

Note: discuss the relationship agreeableness - leadership > *Goes both ways*

- Sample items

- I am interested in people.
- I sympathize with others' feelings.
- I have a soft heart.
- I take time out for others.
- I feel others' emotions.
- I make people feel at ease.
- I am not really interested in others. (reversed)
- I insult people. (reversed)
- I am not interested in other people's problems. (reversed)
- I feel little concern for others. (reversed)

5) Neuroticism

- Overview

- the tendency to experience negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, or depression.
- sometimes called *emotional instability* (or stability).

- According to Hans Eysenck's (1967) theory of personality:

- neuroticism is interlinked with low tolerance for stress or aversive stimuli.

**Note** Neuroticism is a classic temperament trait that has been studied in temperament research for decades, before it was adapted by the FFM.

- high neuroticism

- emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress.
- more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening.
- can perceive minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult.
- tend to be flippant in the way they express emotions.

- Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood.

The text below is a verbatim quote from the source article (I place it without any paraphrasing because it is very clear and concise and it conveys an important message):

"For instance, neuroticism is connected to a pessimistic approach toward work, to certainty that work impedes personal relationships, and to higher levels of anxiety from the pressures at work. Furthermore, those who score high on neuroticism may display more skin-conductance reactivity than those who score low on neuroticism. These problems in emotional regulation can diminish the ability of a person scoring high on neuroticism to think clearly, make decisions, and cope effectively with stress. Lacking contentment in one's life achievements can correlate with high neuroticism scores and increase one's likelihood of falling into clinical depression. Moreover, individuals high in neuroticism tend to experience more negative life events, but neuroticism also changes in response to positive and negative life experiences. Also, individuals with higher levels of neuroticism tend to have worse psychological well being.

At the other end of the scale, individuals who score low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings. Freedom from negative feelings does not mean that low-scorers experience a lot of positive feelings.

Neuroticism is similar but not identical to being neurotic in the Freudian sense (i.e., neurosis.) Some psychologists prefer to call neuroticism by the term emotional instability to differentiate it from the term neurotic in a career test."

- Sample items
  - I get irritated easily.
  - I get stressed out easily.
  - I get upset easily.
  - I have frequent mood swings.
  - I worry about things.
  - I am much more anxious than most people.
  - I am relaxed most of the time. (reversed)
  - I seldom feel blue. (reversed)

## References

Erich Fromm. (2020). *Wikipedia*.

# DPP-RO

## Personalitatea

Dorin Stanciu

04 November, 2020

### Abstract

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## Introducere

–(Hogan et al., 1997)

Miller și Shelly (2000) fac observația, corectă, că este ușor să vorbim despre personalitate, însă este mult mai dificil să o definim suficient de adekvat/bine. Este ușor de formulat observații, chiar și de nespecialiști. Pe de o parte, cu toții suntem capabili de observații de finețe, corecte, și utile, chiar dacă, cel mai adesea ele sunt parțiale/punctuale. Pe de altă parte, complexitatea și pervazivitatea aspectelor care interesează personalitatea sunt atât de mari, încât ele sunt aproape imposibil de evitat, în special pentru aceia care, datorită profesiei sau altor motive, lucrează îndeaproape sau au de-a face adesea cu oamenii.

Începuturile preocupărilor științifice și coagularea unor termeni precum „personalitate” și „caracter” se regăsesc în anii 1930, datorită contribuțiilor unor cercetători și oameni de știință precum Adler, Jung, Spearman, Frenkel-Brunswik, Rosenzweig, and MacKinnon. Însă, cea mai importantă contribuție, de departe, la dezvoltarea inițială a „personologiei” (studiu personalității umane) a avut-o Gordon Alport.

La acea vreme, psihologia experimentală era preocupată în principal de studiul unor fenomene individuale și observabile direct, bine diferențiate de context, precum comportamente specifice. Dincolo de această abordare „atomică”, psihologia experimentală mai căuta „legătăți” universale, aplicabile tuturor indivizilor. Prin contrast, studiul personalității promova (și asuma) fenomene ascunse, subiacente, neobservabile direct. Mai mult, se căutau resorturi ascunse ale individului pe ansamblu, într-o abordare holistică, precum și identificarea aspectelor care diferențiază indivizii între ei dar și a acelor aspecte sub care suntem similari.

De-a lungul istorie formării sale ca știință, studiul personalității a evoluat de la focusarea pe factorii motivaționali, iar mai apoi pe factorii de diferențiere inter-individuală, înspre teorii integrative psihodinamice și ale învățării, până la teorii bazate pe “factori” de personalitate (cu susținerea statistică-matematică subiacentă). Privind retrospectiv, în lumina nivelului de cunoaștere existent, această evoluție este și firească și fluidă. De asemenea, în relație cu dezvoltarea personologiei, mai trebuie amintit că, în paralel a existat și o creștere a interesului și preocupărilor de cercetare privind construcțele de personalitate<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>Cele patru mari construcții ale vremii au fost *autoritarianismul, motivația de performanță (achievement motivation), anxietatea, și independența de context (field independence)*

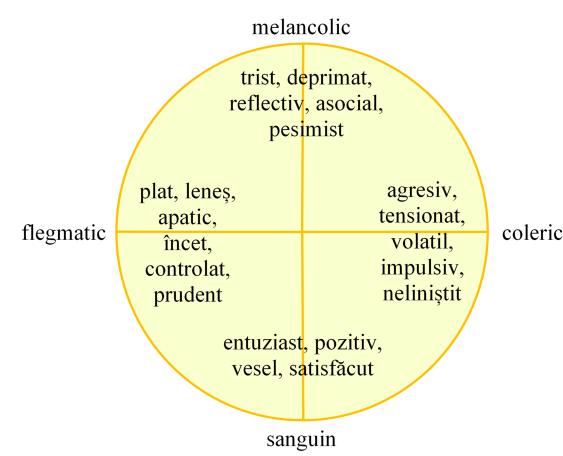
## Perspective clasice asupra personalității

– (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2005) []

Anii 1930 au marcat începuturile personologiei ca știință, însă încercările de a clasifica și a descrifra/explica oamenii și comportamentul lor sunt, probabil, la fel de vechi ca și omenirea însăși. Încă din antichitate, anumite caracteristici comportamentale, precum rapiditatea în reacții și gândire, sau iritabilitatea și opusul ei, calmitatea, au sugerat ideea că oamenii s-ar putea grupa distinct în funcție de asemenea caracteristici.

Hippocrates și Galen, încă de acum 2000 de ani, au diferențiat între tipurile sanguin, coleric, flegmatic, și melancolic. Per ansamblu, tipologia care se desprinde din această perspectivă asupra diferențelor dintre oameni este cunoscută sub numele de **temperament**. Cei mai impulsivi și ușor iritabili sunt denumiți “colerici”, în timp ce aceia calmi și pasivi, până la a părea impasibili, sunt numiți “flegmatici”. Cei tăcuți și retrăsi, gânditori și contemplativi au fost numiți “melancolici”, în timp ce aceia care păreau cel mai echilibrați au fost numiți “sanguini”.

Încă de pe atunci, vechii greci considerau că aceste tipologii țineau de natura internă a individului, și le atribuiau, în mod naiv, desigur, unor umori (fluid) tipice fiecărui grup în parte. Mai specific, dominantă uneia sau alteia dintre aceste “umori” (*i.e.*, sănge, bila neagră, bila galbenă, sau, respectiv mușcul/flegma), sau echilibrul lor, ar fi cauza formării unuia sau altuia dintre cele patru temperamente. În această conceptualizare, o dominantă a bilei galbene ar fi responsabilă pentru temperamentul coleric, bila neagră pentru cel melancolic, flegma pentru cel flegmatic, iar săngele pentru cel sanguin.



Deși, în lumina cunoștințelor pe care le avem astăzi, explicațiile vechilor greci, atribuite “umorilor” dominante, ne apar imediat ca neștiințifice, diferențele identificate de ei sunt totuși observabile și reale. Așadar, este de înțeles de ce chiar și în secolul XX, oamenii de știință le-au luat în serios și au încercat să găsească explicații științifice pentru aceste diferențe.

Eysenck<sup>2</sup> a încercat o fundamentare științifică a temperamentelor prin descrierea lor pe un sistem cartezian (ortogonal/independent) compus din continuumurile dimensiunilor **extraversiune și neuroticism**. În această conceptualizare, flegmaticul se situează înspre extrema minimă a neuroticismului iar colericul se plasează înspre extrema maximă a neuroticismului, în timp ce melancolicul și sanguinul se distribuie dinspre un minim înspre un maxim de extraversiune.

Nu insistăm mai mult, aici, pe bazele istorice și pe munca de pionierat în personalologie. Pe de o parte, aspectele criticabile depășesc obiectivele educaționale ale acestui curs, iar pe de altă parte, astăzi, accentul se pune mai mult pe valoarea predictivă a măsurării diferitelor aspectelor de personalitate și mai puțin pe aspectul lor descriptiv. Dar, descrierile anterioare sunt importante sub aspectul depășirii psihologiei de simț comun, accesibilă oricui (cu limitările și erorile inerente), și plasării pe o poziție de cunoaștere validă și actuală, necesară portofoliului de competențe al profesiei didactice.

## Conceptul de trăsătură

Trăsăturile au fost definite ca fiind patternuri stabile<sup>3</sup> în gândire, emoționalitate, sau comportament, care diferențiază între indivizi. Însă, această conceptualizare nu a fost scutită de critici. Una dintre cele mai importante abordări critice la adresa existenței trăsăturilor, *provocarea situatională/contextuală*, reclamă/atacă în principal stabilitatea în timp a trăsăturilor.

Ca argument fundamental al criticii formulate, abordarea *situatională/contextuală*<sup>4</sup> invocă una dintre legile fundamentale ale behaviorismului/comportamentalismului, conform căreia răspunsul comportamental (R) este funcție directă a stimulu (S), într-o relație particulară și indisolubilă ( $S \rightarrow R$ ). Deși potențial seducătoare, și aparent suficientă, această argumentație este mai degrabă una filosofică decât una susținută factual.

### Contra-argumente la *provocarea situatională/contextuală*

1) Însăși postularea unei relații stimul situational (sau a influenței situaționale)

<sup>2</sup>a nu fi confundat cu fiul său, Michael Eysenck, un alt mare psiholog

<sup>3</sup>consistent, în engleză, în original

<sup>4</sup>această sintagmă indică/postulează dependența de situație/context a comportamentului, și, consecutiv, lipsa unei stabilități temporale/consistențe suficiente pentru a vorbi de trăsături

presupune existența unei *capacități* individuale de a fi influențat, capacitate care nu poate apărea și dispare din senin, ci este persistentă.

2) Indivizii răspund diferit la același stimul. Acest lucru este explicabil prin existența unor diferențe inter-individuale (așa cum postulează teoria trăsăturilor) și, prin extensie, de diferențele între personalitățile indivizilor.

3) A poseda trătăsuri înseamnă să reacționezi consistent (într-o manieră stabilă/similară) la aceeași situație, și nu în situații diferite. Cu această observație, proponentii și susținătorii teoriei trăsăturilor contra-argumentează că inconsistența în răspunsul/reactia persoanelor în situații diferite este irelevant pentru validitatea conceptului de trăsătură (caracteristica sării de a se dizolva în benzină nu are nicio relevanță pentru caracteristica sării de a se dizolva în apă).

4) A avea trăsături nu înseamnă că reacțiile/răspunsurile individului trebuie să fie absolut identice de fiecare dată. Nu doar că teoria trăsăturilor nu reclamă o stabilitate perfectă a răspunsurilor/reactiilor persoanei, dar indică/recunoaște și că reacțiile sunt dependente și de alte variabile (nu doar de personalitate).

5) Inconsecvența comportamentală (la nivel de reacții/răspunsuri) nu este un argument fundamental și suficient pentru a afirma inconsistența internă. Simpla variabilitate externă a comportamentului (reactiei/răspunsurilor) nu înseamnă că la nivel intern nu există stabilitate. Precum și în argumentul de la punctul anterior, pot exista și alte variabile influențatoare. În plus, diferențele pot fi un produs al măsurătorii/cuantificării diferite.

### Fenotipal vs. genotipal și observabil vs. postulat rațional<sup>5</sup>

Prin analogie cu biologia, unde genotipul este fundamentalul ascuns, dar real și determinant, iar fenotipul este multitudinea de manifestări observabile, dar derivate din interacțiunile și combinațiile genetice, în personologie se vorbește de trăsături externe, care sunt observabile direct (*i.e.*, cele comportamentale) și de trăsături interne (*i.e.*, cele cognitive și emoționale). Unul dintre cele mai importante principii în personologie (deși nu scutit de critici), legat de această conceptualizare intern vs. extern, este că trăsăturile externe, observabile direct, sunt accesibile pentru măsurare și evaluare obiectivă, în timp ce cele interne sunt doar inferabile pe baza celor dinainte.

Mai jos este prezentată schematic evoluția explicativă conform teoriei trăsăturilor.

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<sup>5</sup>În logică, deducția este întotdeauna corectă dacă premizele sunt corecte, în timp ce inferența este o procedură mai generală și se referă la orice fel de raționament prin care se ajunge la o concluzie. În acest context, postularea rațională este o inferență

interior vs exterior	dogma/teoria vs empiric/faptic	explicat vs nonexplicat
act	fapt	non-explicant explicat
comportamental: “Florin l-a lovit pe Mihai”		
↑	↑	↑
trăsătură	lege/legitate	explicant explicat
comportamentală: agresivitatea		
↑	↑	↑
trăsătură internă: (afect) agresiv	asumptie dogmatică/teorie	explicant ne-explicat

Explicarea comportamentului în termeni de trăsături (*e.g.*, Florin l-a lovit pe Mihai deoarece Florin e agresiv) este adesea criticată ca fiind mai degrabă o descriere decât o explicație. Mai concret, Florin e agresiv e doar o descriere, un nume dat situațiilor relativ stabile în care Florin lovește. Așadar, criticii teoriei trăsăturilor acuză o logică circulară și lipsită de explicație reală. Un alt exemplu ar fi diagnosticarea unei persoane cu *cardiopatie* sau *nefropatie*. Deși aparent explicativă, *cardiopatia* desemnează situația în care *inima e bolnavă/suferă*, dar nu explică, în realitate, cauza pentru care organismul e în distress.

### Aspecte fundamentale ale operaționalizării personalității în termenii teoriei trăsăturilor

1. Actorul (agentul comportamentului) experiențiază (trăiește) direct propriile trăsături interne, dar observatorii (externi) trebuie să inferențieze trăsăturile interne ale altora
2. Observatorii pot experienția direct trăsăturile externe ale altora, dar actorii trebuie să-și inferențieze propriile lor trăsături externe
3. Mecanismele defensive pot să obtureze auto-evaluarea
4. Acordul inter-observatori necesită o conceptualizare similară
5. Validitatea evaluării observatorilor trăsăturilor externe este presupusă aproape automat/implicit

# Evaluarea (măsurarea) personalității

## Fidelitatea (consistența internă)

### Definiție

La bază, **fidelitatea**<sup>6</sup> este un construct simplu. Fidelitatea este un indice al reproductibilității măsurării sau al consecvenței obținerii acelaiași rezultat, în condiții de testare similare (de unde și traducerea în lb. română prin *fidelitate*). În cadrul conceptual al *teoriei clasice a testelor*<sup>7</sup>, o măsurare ( $X$ ; rezultat al unei observații) are două componente, *i.e.*, **scorul real** ( $T$ ) și **eroarea de măsură** ( $E$ );

$$X = T + E$$

Din punct de vedere al calcului/conceptualizării matematice, scorul real ( $T$ ) reprezintă media unui număr foarte mare (*i.e.*, suficient<sup>8</sup> de mare) de măsurători privind un individ (obiect al observației). Prin contrast, eroarea de măsură combină toate influențele tranziente care pot afecta măsurarea scorurilor.

Asemenea influențe care pot induce erori de măsură includ:

1. aspecte legate de subiect<sup>9</sup>. De exemplu: concentrarea, sinceritatea, starea de sănătate, factori distractori, evenimente recente;
2. aspecte legate de contextul testării (măsurării). De exemplu, stimuli concurenți, fluctuații ale caracteristicilor fizice ale mediului (*e.g.*, zgomote);
3. aspecte legate de examinator. De exemplu, idiosincrazi și biasări particulare examinatorului (*e.g.*, prejudecăți, inconsistență în relaționarea cu subiecții, etc.);

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<sup>6</sup>în practică, în raportarea rezultatelor, în literatura dominantă internațională, este folosită sintagma *consistența internă* pentru raporta rezultatele analizelor de fidelitate deoarece cvasimajoritatea studiilor raportează procedura de analiză a consistenței interne

<sup>7</sup>*classical test theory*, în engleză, în original

<sup>8</sup>condiție de semnificativitate statistică

<sup>9</sup>în ultimele decenii se promovează și se folosește termenul *participant*; cel mai adesea, motivul invocat este acela că ar putea induce o imagine negativă persoanelor care dau testul; deoarece eu nu am reușit să identific nicio încălcare a eticii sau vreo nuanță ofensativă, voi folosi acest termen consecvent cu exprimarea autorilor ale căror materiale le folosesc în elaborarea acestui curs

4. caracteristici ale instrumentelor de măsură. De exemplu, probleme inopinate ale echipamentelor de măsură/înregistrare, etc.

O noțiune fundamentală în *teoria clasica a testelor* este cea de **formă paralelă a unui test**. Mai precis, este presupus (și căutat de reprobus în practică, pentru confirmare) că orice test are una sau mai multe forme paralele, iar acestea au aceeași medie, varianță, și caracteristici ale distribuției, ca și forma originală. În plus, formele paralele coreleză identic între ele, precum și cu criteriul (sau măsurile criteriu) în eșantioane (suficient<sup>10</sup> de) mari.

Conform asumpțiilor (cadrului teoretic de lucru) de mai sus, scorul real (T) este considerat independent de eroarea de măsură (E). Consecutiv, varianțele (felul în care variază) erorii și a scorului real pot fi însumate pentru a da varianța scorului observat. Sau, alternativ, varianța scorului observat poate fi considerată ca fiind compusă din varianța scorului real însumată cu varianța erorii de măsură<sup>11</sup>.

$$\sigma_X^2 = \sigma_T^2 + \sigma_E^2$$

În acest cadru de lucru, fidelitatea este definită ca proporția sau raportul dintre varianța scorului real raportată la varianța scorului observat:

$$\rho_{XX} = \frac{\sigma_T^2}{\sigma_X^2}$$

### **Evaluarea practică a fidelității**

**Metoda consistenței interne** Consistența internă reprezintă “gradul de acord” sau de “similaritate” a itemilor (e.g., întrebările unui test). Măsurarea ei se face împărțind în jumătăți itemii unui test și calculând corelația scorurilor la cele două jumătăți. Unul dintre indicii de consistență internă cei mai utilizați este  $\alpha$  Cronbach, care se calculează făcând media corelațiilor tuturor înjumătăților posibile ale itemilor testului.

O mențiune importantă legată de  $\alpha$  Cronbach este că depinde de numărul de itemi folosiți (crește odată cu creșterea numărului de itemi folosiți). Prin urmare, această caracteristică a lui  $\alpha$  Cronbach este importantă pentru cei care doresc să construiască teste și care urmăresc să aibă un număr relativ mic de itemi. În mod concret,  $\alpha$  Cronbach este considerată o măsură a unui test *de o anumită lungime (număr de itemi)*.

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<sup>10</sup> condiție de semnificativitate statistică

<sup>11</sup> fiind independente, varianțele lor nu se suprapun și pot fi considerate distințe

**Metoda test-retest** Această metodă abordează problema stabilității (temporale a) constructelor de personalitate. Ea constă în calcularea coeficientului de corelație Pearson între scorurile subiecților la o testare efectuată la momentul T1 și o testare ulterioară, la momentul T2.

La baza folosirii acestei metode stau două asumptii principale (axiomatice):

1. nivelurile abilității sau trăsăturii măsurate la un subiect nu se schimbă între cele două momente ale testării;
2. subiecții nu își reamintesc nimic relevant care le-ar putea influența performanța (răspunsurile) la a doua administrare a testului.

În realitate, nivelurile trăsăturilor sau abilităților pot fluctua în timp, iar subiecții pot să-și reamintească aspecte de natură să le influențeze răspunsurile la o testare ulterioară. Așadar, cercetătorii sunt într-o căutare constantă a unui echilibru suficient sau acceptabil între o durată prea mare (care ar asigura uitarea, dar ar spori probabilitatea existenței fluctuațiilor nivelului trăsăturii/abilității măsurate) și o durată prea scurtă (care ar crește probabilitatea reamintirii, dar ar favoriza stabilitatea trăsăturilor/abilităților).

### Concluzii privind evaluarea fidelității

Trebuie observat că cele două forme ale fidelității răspund unor cerințe diferite. Consistența internă se referă la consistența în alegerea itemilor și la fluctuațiile intra-test ale caracteristicilor subiecților. La rândul său, fidelitatea test-retest se referă la variațiile de la o zi la alta, de-a lungul timpului, în caracteristilor subiecților.

Deși, în mod ideal, un test ar trebui să raporteze atât o bună fidelitate test-retest, cât și o bună consistență internă, în practică există situații în care această așteptare este nerealistă. Spre exemplu, măsurările privind afectivitatea/emoționalitatea, sunt adesea susceptibile să prezintă o bună consistență internă dar o stabilitate în timp discutabilă, și, consecutiv, o fidelitate test-retest fluctuantă.

Importanța fidelității în testare este ușor de observat. Pe de o parte, stabilitatea în timp contribuie la o bună predictivitate. Pe de altă parte, ea afectează în mod direct mărimea efectului pe care o variabilă-cauză o are asupra unei variabile-răspuns.

## **Validitatea**

Validitatea reprezintă măsura în care dovezile empirice și justificarea/fundamentarea teoretică sprijină corectitudinea interpretărilor derivate din scorurile la test și alte date legate de măsurare. Această definiție este formulată intenționat la acest nivel de generalitate pentru a permite dezvoltări explicative ulterioare cu privire la a) relația dintre teoria constructelor și validitate, și la b) întărirea accentului care se pune pe validitatea de construct.

### **Clarificări conceptuale privind validitatea**

1. Validitatea este o proprietate a *interpretării* unei măsuri, și nu măsura sau măsurarea în sine. Spre exemplu, pentru testul de inteligență Stanford-Binet există o corp masiv de dovezi experimentale care sprijină interpretarea rezultatelor ca fiind semnificative pentru inteligență la copii mici, mai puține dovezi pentru copii, și încă și mai puține pentru studenți.
2. Validitatea implică interpretarea (formularea unei ipoteze asupra) semnificației scorurilor la un test. Cu cât teoria este mai bine formulată (mai explicativă și mai închegată), cu atât e mai ușor pentru cercetător să identifice dovezile pro sau contra unei anumite interpretări a scorurilor.
3. Validitatea unei interpretări este întotdeauna bazată pe dovezile dominante existente, și se poate schimba cu timpul (și cu schimbarea balanței dovezilor). Este greșit să afirmi stabilirea validității interpretării unei măsuri/instrument de măsură – ea poate fi doar sprijinită într-o oarecare măsură de dovezile empirice.
4. Validitatea este dificil de operaționalizat și cuantificat în practică. Din acest motiv, pentru multă vreme, a existat o penuria de raportări ale validității în studiile științifice, iar când aceasta era totuși raportată, indicii furnizați se bazau pe corelațiile cu alte instrumente de măsură.

### **Forme ale validității**

**A. Validitatea de conținut** Se referă la măsura în care semnificația acoperită (sau furnizată) de itemii unui instrument de măsură este similară cu cea furnizată de teoria constructului.

Aspecte problematice posibile:

1. Nereprezentarea sau reprezentarea slabă a unora dintre fațetele/dimensiunile

constructului în eșantionul itemilor folosiți.

2. Suprareprezentarea/inflația artificială a unora dintre fațele/dimensiunile constructului în eșantionul de itemi.
3. Măsurarea (neintenționată) a unor aspecte nerelevante pentru constructul teoretizat, care sunt totuși măsurate datorate biasării unora dintre itemi (e.g., formularea într-o manieră dezirabilă social, bias de metodă comună, etc.).

**B. Validitatea convergentă și divergentă** Validitatea convergentă se referă la măsura în care itemii care se presupune că măsoară un anumit construct sau subconstruct/dimensiune “converg” în măsurarea acestuia. Sub aspect statistic, sau al aparatului matematic subiacent, itemii respectiv trebuie să “încarce”<sup>12</sup> suficient și să contribuie suficient la definirea constructului.

Validitatea divergentă se referă la măsura în care constructul măsurat este suficient de bine izolat față de alte constructe, mai mult sau mai puțin înrudite/similare. Statistic, aceasta înseamnă că itemii care definesc constructul (sau subconstructul/dimensiunea) în cauză nu contribuie la/nu măsoară și alte constructe.

#### **Suport vizual pentru fidelitate și validitate**

Figura de mai jos prezintă diferite combinații de validitate și fidelitate redusă, respectiv ridicată. La o primă vedere poate părea relativ dificil de înțeles, însă după lecturarea explicațiilor oferite mai sus, puteți reveni la figură ca la un marker vizual. În această analogie vizuală, punctele reprezintă aplicări diferite ale unui test. Cu cât punctele sunt mai apropiate unele de altele, cu atât fidelitatea (consistența) în testare e mai bună. De asemenea, cu cât punctele sunt mai apropiate de centrul țintei, cu atât validitatea testării este mai bună (nimerește ceea ce vizează de la bun început).

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<sup>12</sup>load, în engleză, în original; corelația cu factorul-părinte

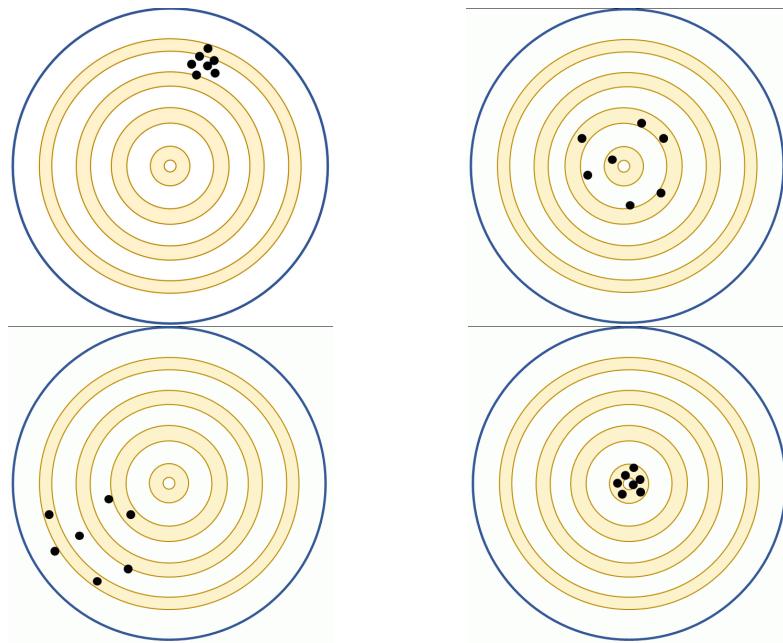


Figure 1: Diferite niveluri de validitate si fidelitate

În partea din stânga sus a figurii este prezentată o situație de fidelitate bună dar validitate proastă (punctele sunt relativ strâns grupate, dar toate au ratat ținta). În partea din dreapta sus este prezentată o situație de validitate relativ bună dar fidelitate proastă (punctele sunt foarte slab grupate, dar toate sunt într-o relativă proximitate de centrul). Partea stânga-jos a figurii prezintă o situație de proastă validitate și proastă fidelitate (punctele sunt și disperse și depărtate față de centrul țintei). Finalmente, în partea dreapta-jos a figurii este prezentată situația dezirabilă, de bună fidelitate și bună validitate (punctele sunt și strâns grupate și toate în apropierea centrului).

## Masurarea/evaluarea personalității

### Considerente generale

Evaluarea personalității este una dintre topicile cele mai de importante în psihologie. O bună definire și fundamentare teoretică este importantă, dar, finalmente, aplicabilitatea practică este cea care dă obiectivul final și motivează eforturile în acest domeniu. Dincolo de curiozitatea epistemică, există o varietate enormă de interes în a încadra corect oamenii în categorii cu sens care au valoare predictivă pentru comportamentele lor într-un anumit context sau rol.

Așadar, nu e de mirare că, de-a lungul timpului, au fost create poate mii de variante de inventare de personalitate, cu diferite grade de succes și de relevanță. De la recrutarea soldaților și a angajaților în anumite posturi, până la simple curiozități personale și compatibilități de cuplu, evaluarea personalității interesează aproape pe oricine la un moment dat în viața sa personală sau profesională.

Însă, varietatea enormă a “testelor” de personalitate face extrem de dificilă alegerea unuia adecvat sarcinii. De multe ori, managerii sau recruterii sunt forțați să identifice rapid un inventar de personalitate pe care să îl folosească în justificarea deciziilor legate de personal. Însă, chiar și pentru psihologii care beneficiază de instruire specifică, identificarea “testului” corect (sau, mai bine zis, și corect și adecvat) este o sarcină foarte complexă, care necesită expertiză de specialitate autentică.

La o primă vedere, multe din instrumentarele de personalitate sunt relativ similare. Aproape toate constau în a-ți adresa un număr oarecare de întrebări, unele mai multe, altele mai puține, și se finalizează prin a-ți oferi câteva etichete/descriptori care, teoretic, ar trebui să îți definească personalitatea respondentului. Eventual, unele dintre sursele acestor inventare de personalitate îți indică sau îți recomandă că ar fi bine să folosești îndrumarea unui expert atunci când aplici și interpretezi rezultatele.

Pe internet, și chiar și în literatura accesibilă, se găsesc o multitudine de asemenea teste de personalitate. Trebuie remarcat că multe sunt oferite doar contracost, însă asta nu le face în mod automat mai bune (mai valide și mai utile) decât unele dintre cele gratuite. De asemenea, deși interpretarea lor pare relativ ușoară și directă, în special deoarece majoritatea “etichetelor” (categoriilor de personalitate) vin îmsoțite de descrieri suplimentare, în realitate, aceasta este o altă “capcană” a folosirii testelor de personalitate fără a avea cunoștințele și pregătirea (expertiza) necesare.

În cîmp didactic, acest pericol al amatorismului și superficialității autosuficiente trebuie evitat cu toată fermitatea. Cazurile în care profesorii nu îi cunosc celor cărora le predau sunt îngrijorător de dese, iar acuzele că acest fenomen se produce pe fondul unei carențe semnificative în pregătirea cadrelor didactice sunt justificate în bună măsură. Cunoașterea temeinică a unor cunoștințe fundamentale de personologie este imperativă pentru cadrele didactice, pentru că, în absența ei, nu se poate obține o educație adaptată, individualizată, și centrată-pe-elev în mod autentic.

Mai jos este prezentată o scurtă listă de website-uri care își promovează teste de personalitate, și care pot servi drept exemple bune de situații în care cei aflați în căutarea unor teste ar trebui să dea dovadă de (multă) circumspectie

și rezervare:

- <https://wwwenneagraminstitute.com/>;
- <https://www.gallup.com/cliftonstrengths/en/home.aspx>;
- <https://www.howtofascinate.com/about-the-personality-test>;
- <https://www.16personalities.com/>;
- <https://www.gotolaunchstreet.com/innovation-training-programs/whats-your-innovation-type/>;

Lista de mai sus este recomandată într-un articol din HuffingtonPost.com Inc, “[5 Best Personality Tests For Personal and Professional Growth](#)”, aşa cum sunt foarte multe articole publicate pe internet. Din nefericire, marketingul agresiv și prezentările profesioniste foarte persuasive ale acestor website-uri/articole sunt suficient atraktivitate pentru mulți dintre cei eventual interesați, care aleg să ignore verificările privind validitatea și valoarea științifică a respectivelor instrumente.

Prin contrast cu lista de mai sus, un exemplu de website online care permite aplicarea unui test de personalitate foarte cunoscut și acceptat pe larg în psihologia științifică este <https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/16PF.php>. La acest URL puteți găsi chestionarul celor 16 Factori de Personalitate construit de [Raymond Cattell](#), unul dintre cei mai importanți cercetători în domeniul psihologiei. Website-ul vă permite aplicarea gratuită a chestionarului, și oferă și o descriere minimală dar utilă a scorurilor pe care le obțineți.

Începuturile chestionarului 16 PF Cattell<sup>13</sup> se întrezăresc în munca lui [Gordon Allport](#) care a colectat nu peste 4000 de cuvinte/termeni în limba engleză care pot fi folosiți ca descriptori de personalitate. Ulterior, acești descriptori au fost reduși la cca. 171 de către Raymond Cattell, care și-a finalizat munca prin identificarea a 16 dimensiuni majore de personalitate. Cele 16 dimensiuni sunt:

---

<sup>13</sup>mai multe, [aici](#)

<b>Dimensiune</b>	<b>Descriere</b>
Abstractism	imaginativ vs. practic/pragmatic
Aprehensiune	ingrijorat vs. increzator
Dominanta	dominant vs. submisiv
Stabilitate emotională	calm vs. incordat
Vivacitate	spontan vs. retinut
Deschidere la schimbare	flexibil vs. atasat de familiar
Perfectionism	controlat vs. indisciplinat
Importanta intimitatii	discret vs. deschis
Rationament	abstract vs. concret
Respectarea regulilor	conform vs. non-conform
Auto-sustenabilitate	auto-suficient vs. dependent
Senzitivitate	senzitiv vs. non-senzitiv
Impetuozitate (activism) sociala	dezinhibat vs. timid
Tensiune	nerabator vs. relaxat
Vigilenta	suspiciozitate vs. incredere
Caldura (afectiune)	expansiv vs. rezervat

Deși cuestionarul 16 PF Cattell este unul dintre cele mai uzitate și mai acceptate cuestionare de personalitate, el nu este necriticabil. Chiar fără cunoștințe de specialitate, pot fi observate direct o serie de aspecte neclare. Spre exemplu, traducerea unora dintre termenii care desemnează "dimensiunile" de personalitate este clar imprecisă. *Căldură* este o traducere acceptabilă pentru originalul *warmth*, dar nu este neapărat și cea mai inspirată; *afectuozitate* ar fi un termen mai precis.

Mai mult încă, descrierile dimensiunile pot fi, la rândul lor, criticabile. Este un continuum expansiv vs. rezervat potrivit pentru *afectuozitate* sau este mai degrabă apropiat de extraversiune? Această a doua întrebare sau aspect problematic este mai dificil de abordat doar prin logică pură, și necesită o analiză de validare de conținut mult mai elaborată. Însă, aspectul problematic al descrierii este vizibil încă de la bun început.

Marea majoritate a cuestionarelor de personalitate conțin un număr mare de itemi (întrebări), zeci sau sute, ceea ce face ca aplicarea lor să fie și destul de anevoiească, și supusă unor influențe nedorite precum instalarea oboselii, plăcătiselii, sau apariția unor factori perturbatori inopinați. În plus, atât pregătirea (instructajul prealabil, aranjamentele settingului de testare, etc.) cât și calcularea și interpretarea corectă a scorurilor și, eventual, raportarea lor la standarde populationale validate, necesită resurse (e.g., timp, materiale, expertiză, etc.)

adecvate și substanțiale. De aceea, este recomandabil ca efectuarea testărilor de personalitate să fie făcută cu consilierea și eventual îndrumarea unui specialist în domeniu.

## References

- Chamorro-Premuzic, T., & Furnham, A. (2005). *Personality and intellectual competence*. L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Hogan, R., Johnson, J., & Briggs, S. R. (Eds.). (1997). *Handbook of personality psychology*. Academic Press.
- Miller, A. R., & Shelly, S. (2000). *The complete idiot's guide to personality profiles*. Alpha Books.

# Emotional Intelligence and self-motivation

# Go, goal, goaling...

---



Let's ... exercise...

The dreaded words: “Pull out a sheet of paper and prepare to write...”

- What I want from this school/program is...
  - And what I want from this lecture of today is...
- My main strength is ...
- What I want to develop in myself is...

# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

---

Do you recognize any of these people?



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# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

Can you guess how smart they are?



Sharon Stone  
154



Stephen Hawking  
160



Andrew Wiles  
170



Paul Allen  
170



Rick Rosner  
192



Christopher Langan  
195



Kim Ung-Yong  
210



Terence Tao  
230

154

154

161

168

175

182

189

196

203

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217

224

230

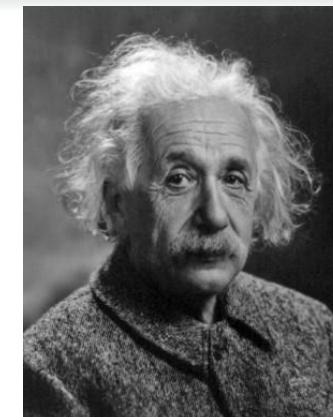


Garry Kasparov  
170

Judith Polgar  
170



James Woods  
180



Albert Einstein --- let's not find a place ...

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Christopher Hirata  
225

# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

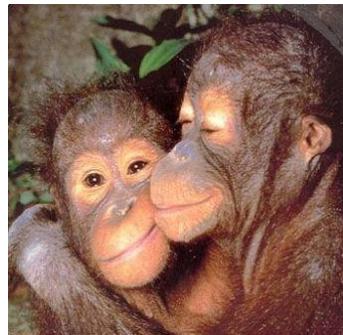
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Every other person in your life knows what's best for you

Your mother  
seems to know  
what you  
should/can do



Your girlfriend/BF  
certainly does



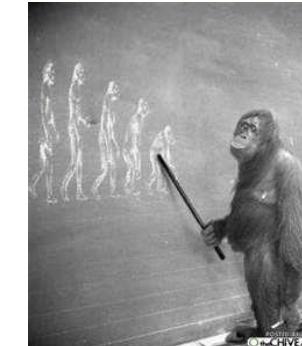
Wouldn't be  
much of a  
surprise if EBE  
know also



So, what's a poor  
boy suppose to  
do?

Dorin Stanciu, DPsy PhD, TUCN--DSPP; ionut.stanciu@dppd.utcluj.ro

Some resort to  
priests and the  
divine to seek  
the answers



The BOSS  
You won't get far  
without being on  
the same page

Admitting there's no  
guru might be a  
good way to start  
planting your feet

# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

---

C'mon, such a widespread concept...

Everyone thinks they know what EI is

**Where to look for meaning...**

Can we find definitions, cues, examples, techniques, etc. on the Internet? Sure we can. And, after all, why shouldn't we use the Internet for this? We practically live in it. But... would you rely on the Internet to provide you with the TRUTH?

**Let's try together...**

Suppose it has something to do with INTELLIGENCE, we all know what that is, right?

Also, assume it has something to do with EMOTIONS, too

# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

---

How did we come across this concept/construct of EI... some important people.  
You may want to read their books...

Salovey (Peter) and Mayer (Jack) --- 1990 --- “Emotional Intelligence”, article

*The ability to perceive emotion in self and others, to understand emotions,  
and to manage emotion in self and others*

Goleman (Daniel) --- 1995 --- “Emotional Intelligence. Why It Can Matter More Than IQ”, book

*Emotional Competency Index*

Bar-On (Reuven) --- 1997 --- measurement/instrument EQ-i

Others> Hooper, Schutte, Wong, Law

# What is emotional intelligence (EI) ?

---

How did we come across this concept/construct of EI...

## Anecdotal /empirical evidence

Seeing apparently not-so-bright people succeed

People promoted / praised for .... (guess, not-high IQ), etc.

Even popular sayings: “you catch more flies with honey than...”

## Research into

Achievement / success

Leadership

Persuasion

Emotions / affectivity

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

## Other Intelligences

Are there other intelligences .... How many?

Yes, there are, BECAUSE, intelligence is a measure of / has to do with **efficiency of adaptation**

This means, getting the best possible outcome given a possible situation.

If the context in which we measure intelligence is one which implies problem-solving, most likely we'll be dealing with 'classical' intelligence, measured via I.Q.

If the context is more real-life-like, involving achieving desired results by any means, we may encounter other behavioral strategies. If they involve the control and usage of emotions, we most likely may have to do Emotional Intelligence, measured via E.Q.

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

## Other Intelligences

Some definitions describe intelligence tests as tests/exercises that measure mental abilities

This description is plain wrong, BECAUSE, mental doesn't mean, in fact, only cognitive!

if we restrict it cognitive, incl. reasoning, then OK, deal with it, and move on...

however, if one understands that mental means other things, incl. emotions, there's a different story all together... (see hot cognitions vs. cold cognitions)

Much more honest may be another 'definition' --- more appropriately *mock-initon*— “intelligence is *whatever (sic!) intelligence tests measure*”.

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

---

Could it be...

The “intelligent use of emotions”?

“Intelligent emotions”?

The “emotional side of intelligence”?

What it actually is...

"recognizing, learning and evaluating one's own feelings and those of others; it means being able to reflect the knowledge about feelings and their energy to the daily life and work environment efficiently and responding to the feelings properly"  
(Goleman, 1998, p. 393).

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

---

What it actually is...

"recognizing, learning and evaluating one's own feelings and those of others; it means being able to reflect the knowledge about feelings and their energy to the daily life and work environment efficiently and responding to the feelings properly" (Goleman, 1998, p. 393).

Even earlier than that:

1990 – Salovey & Mayer speak about “emotional intelligence as an intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and behavior

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

---

A rather more complex view but extremely similar:

1997 – Patrick Merlevede:

“the complex whole of behaviors, capabilities (or competencies), beliefs, and values, which enables someone to successfully realize their vision and mission, given the context of this choice.”

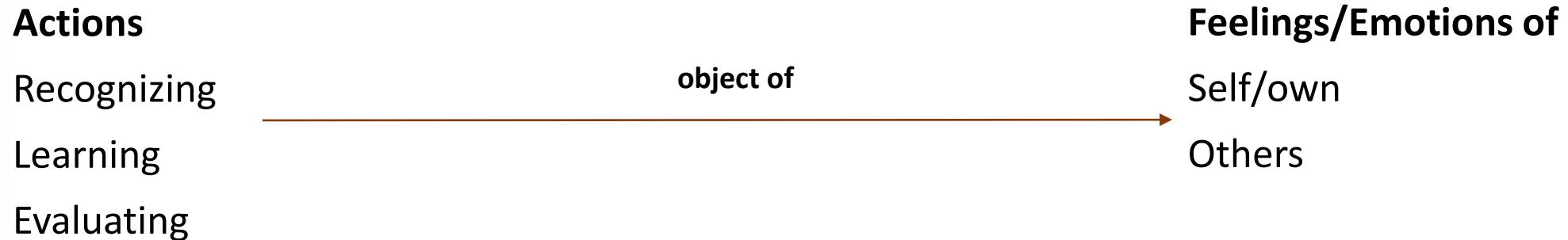
And he speaks here of two types of intelligence:

- A. An intrapersonal intelligence --- moods, feelings, and other mental states and how these affect one's behavior, self-motivation, etc.
- B. Interpersonal / Social Intelligence --- based on recognizing emotions and moods in others and using this information to guide one's behavior, decisions, and to build and maintain relationships

# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

---

Let's see it one more time...



...but it is also an **Ability to**  
**Reflect** (and reflect upon) the knowledge  
**React / respond adequately, i.e., intelligently**



# Defining emotional intelligence (EI)

## The 2-factorial EI

- Emotional intelligence -“is a term used to describe the various competencies that are essential for building, developing and managing relationships” (Peters, 2008, p.13). Emotional intelligence consists of two dimensions, intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence.
- Intrapersonal intelligence – “being intelligent in identifying our own thoughts and feelings (self awareness) and being effective at dealing with those thoughts and feelings (self management)” (Palethorpe, 2006, p.13).
- Interpersonal intelligence – “being intelligent in identifying the thoughts and feelings of others and between others (other awareness) and being effective in how we tailor our actions to work with others most appropriately (relationship management)” (Palethorpe, 2006, p.13).

**Intrapersonal intelligence + Interpersonal Intelligence = Emotional Intelligence**

# Components/dimensions of emotional intelligence (EI)

---

How do we measure it...

Would you be surprised to find out that some tests/instruments identified 7 dimensions?

- Innovation
- Self-awareness
- Intuition
- Emotions
- Motivation
- Empathy
- Social skills



# Measurements of emotional intelligence (EI)

---

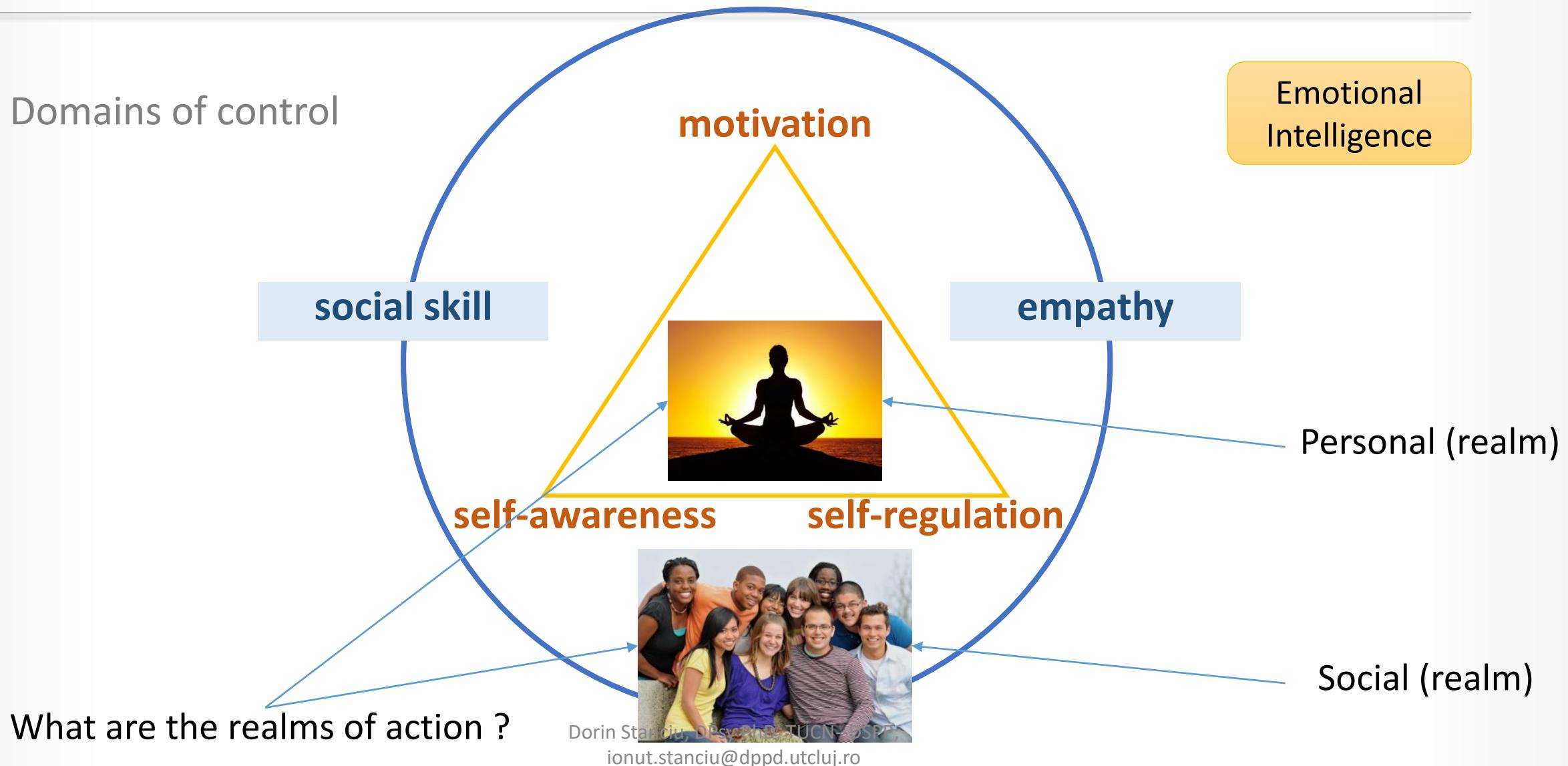
How do we measure it...

Other instruments which measure

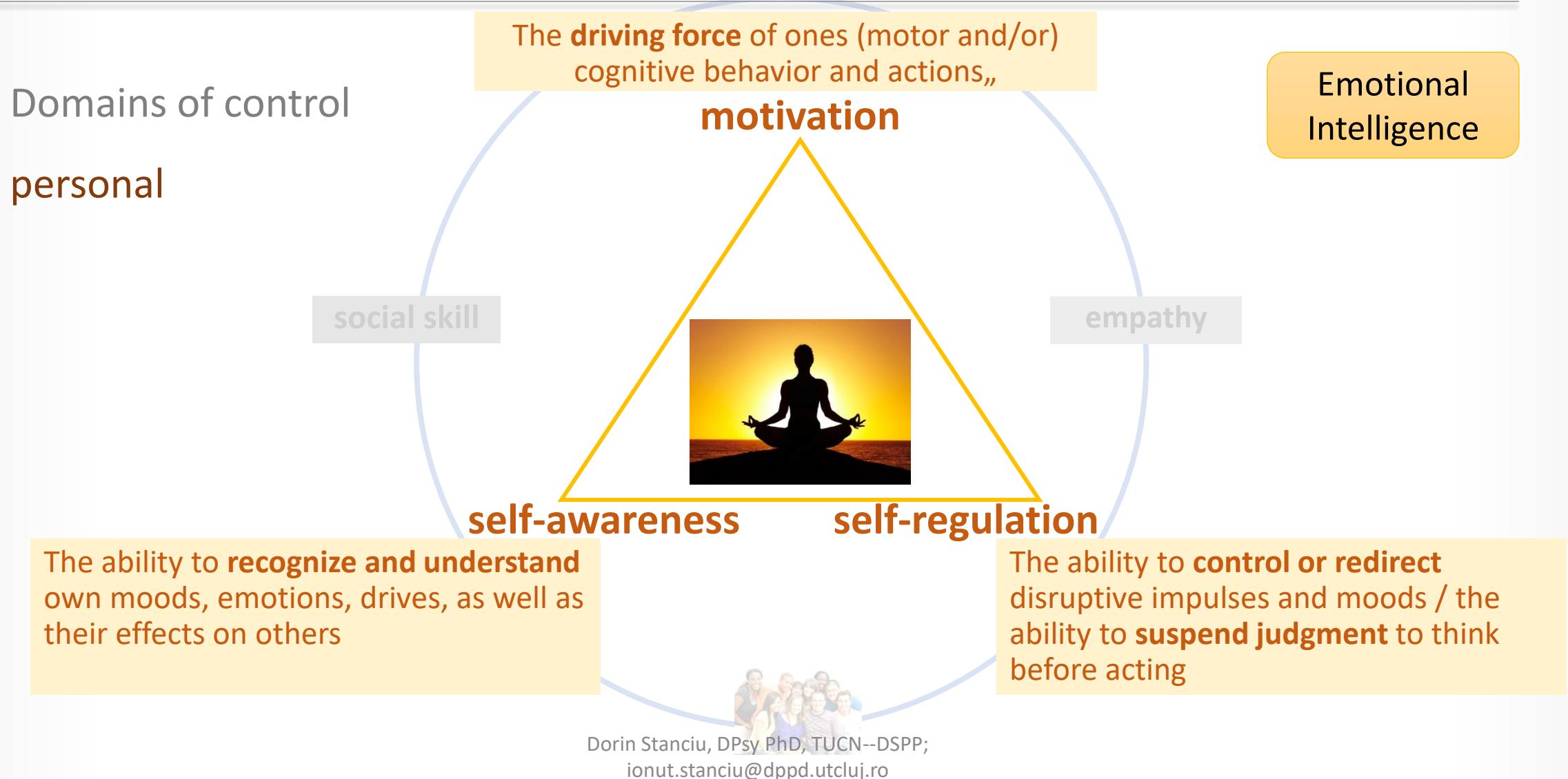
Emotional  
Intelligence

- Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory
- Work Profile Questionnaire for EI
- Emotional Intelligence Appraisal
- Emotional Competence Inventory
- Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI Test

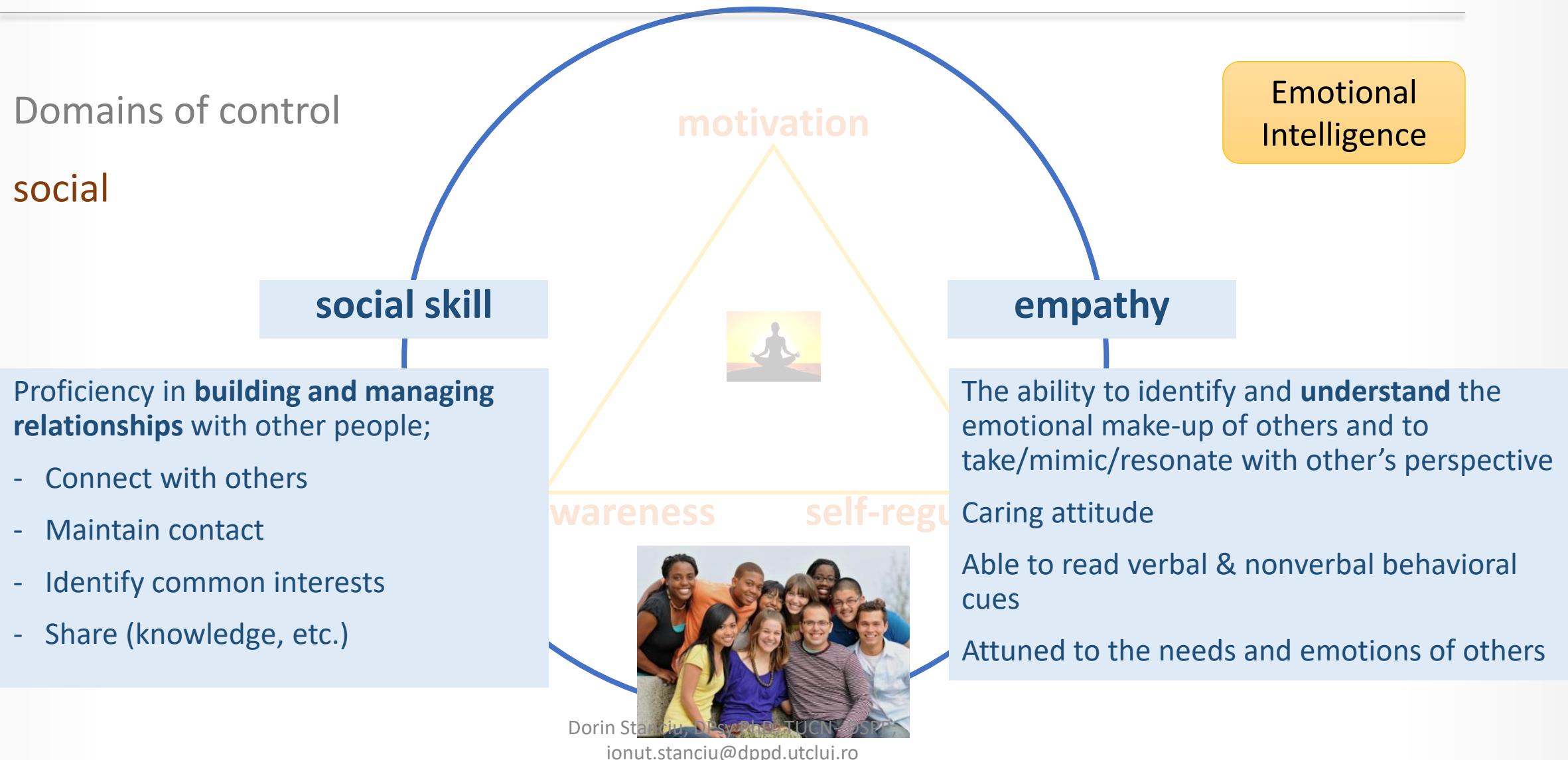
# Domains of emotional intelligence (EI)



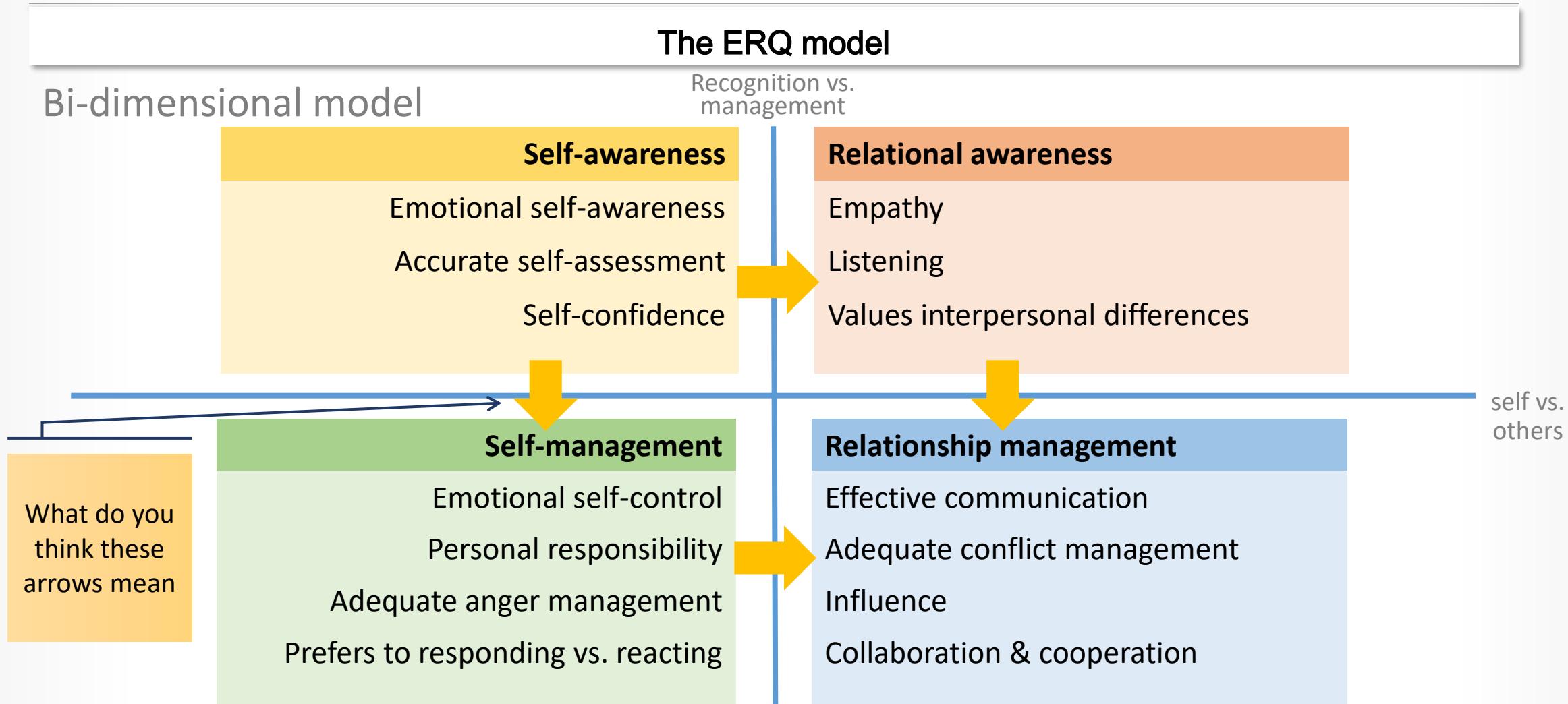
# Domains of emotional intelligence (EI) ---



# Domains of emotional intelligence (EI) ---



# Domains of emotional intelligence (EI) ---



# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

---

Remember when we talked about how did we come across this concept/construct of EI...

## Anecdotal /empirical evidence

Seeing apparently not-so-bright people succeed

People promoted / praised for .... (guess, not-high IQ), etc.

Even popular sayings: “you catch more flies with honey than...”

## Research into

Achievement / success

Leadership

Persuasion

Emotions / affectivity

# Usefulness ---- The Sales Pitch

## Disorders correlates of emotions

Remember that emotions were important. Just how much so...?

Anger	Cardio-vascular disorders and high blood pressure
Sadness	Clinical depression, low blood pressure, depleted immune response
Fear	Allergies, overreaction of immune system
Disgust	Obsessive-compulsive disorders
Regret / mourning	Alzheimer's
Conflict	Cancer
Shame	Dermatological problems

# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

---

Remember when we talked about how did we come across this concept/construct of EI...

## **Important for...**

Psychological well-being

Quality of life and interpersonal relationships

Success in professional life (i.e., leadership, sales, psychotherapy, acting, etc.)

Also, it refines what we understand by intelligence

# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

---

“...emotional competencies – and doing the right thing – may play at least as important role as technical competencies and industry knowledge, perhaps even more so”

Whatever this may mean...

Goleman, D. Boyatzis, R.E., and Mc Kee, A. *Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence*

These days, there is common practice in “smart” organizations (world-wide) to identify and develop a so-called “leadership competence model” --- that is, to identify, train, and promote likely ‘stars’

# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

## EI & Leadership

OK, so now we have some idea of what EI is, but...

What does it do for us? What are the benefits of having high EQ

## Emotional Intelligence & Leadership

### Definition

Ability to perceive and:

- Apply emotions to life's tasks
- Reason/understand emotions
- Express emotions
- Use emotions to facilitate thinking
- Manage emotions within oneself & with other / in relationships

### Underlying premise

The more people are sensitive to their emotions & their emotions' impact on other people's lives, the more productive they will be

# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

## EI & Leadership

OK, so now we have some idea of what EI is, but...

What does it do for us? What are the benefits of having high EQ

Leaders must be aware of their emotions and of the emotions of the people in their surrounding (employees, team members, competitors, clients, etc.)

Leaders have to know HOW to express (use) emotions and understand (read) other people's emotions (... and use)



# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

## EI & Leadership

OK, so now we have some idea of what EI is, but...

What does it do for us? What are the benefits of having high EQ

If you open any random book on EI, chances are you may find something like this

Take this with a grain, no, strike that, with a fist full of salt...

- Leadership
  - EI predicts leader emergence and is related to transformational leadership.
- Job performance/Emotional labor
  - ‘Emotional Labor’ - Defined as ‘managing emotion for remuneration’.
  - In jobs requiring high emotional labor, an individual’s EI predicted better performance.



# Usefulness of EI ---- The Sales Pitch

## EI & Leadership

OK, so now we have some idea of what EI is, but...

What does it do for us? What are the benefits of having high EQ.

- Positive organizational behavior
  - Those actions in the workplace that benefit working relationships and contribute to a positive working climate.
  - High EI indicates increased commitment, organizational citizenship and improved morale.
- Working with others
  - Better relationships in the workplace: interpersonal sensitivity and prosocial tendencies.
  - Indicates better team performance.
- Conflict resolution
  - Individuals with higher levels of EI are more able to engage in collaborative conflict resolution.

Be very wary taking this for granted !!!  
**Sociopaths are also masters at manipulating others**



# Usefulness of EI ---- Research/Solid Facts

## EI & Leadership

Not to any leadership (this is not an absolutistic measure)

- “Emotional intelligence is correlated to **charismatic** or **transformational** leadership. Transformational leaders project a vision that their followers believe in, and inspire and motivate their followers. Transformational leaders stimulate their followers’ intellect, and provide individual consideration and succor to their followers” (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002, p. 81).
- “There is, however a dark side to charismatic leadership. Leaders can be **manipulative** and **emotionally demanding**, especially when followers are open to such exploitation” (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002, p. 81).

# Pseudoscience

## Pseudo-science / the trap of 'snake oil'

Really? So, are we to understand that all that brain power sitting on top of your neck is there to keep the rain from pouring in?

### High IQ

- Critical
- Condescending
- Inhibited
- Uncomfortable with sensuality
- Emotionally bland



### High Emotional IQ

- Poised
- Outgoing
- Committed to people and causes
- Sympathetic and caring
- Comfortable with themselves



The real problem is not that it may not be true. Sometimes it certainly is. But, the left side is simply wishful thinking, and the comparison is a lame proof of anything

Well, we don't have time to go through them all, but... the last one deserves special attention, especially because in its extreme is a symptom of narcissist personality disorder

All this comes from people who charge money for their garbage

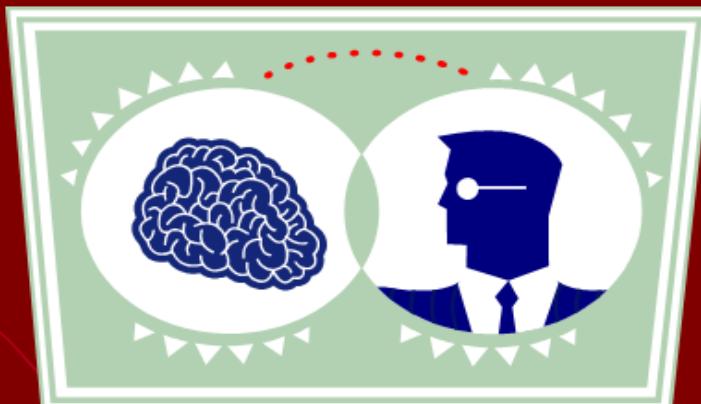


# Pseudoscience

## Pseudo-science / the trap of 'snake oil'

Really? According to what study. How do YOU define success? How crucial is to have a brain...?

IQ contributes only about 20% to success in life



The same source of 'knowledge'

# Pseudoscience

## Pseudo-science / the trap of 'snake oil'

They cannot restrain themselves. Besides the sheer stupidity of this assertion, there no real possibility to design a study to PROVE any of these

Except when you consider being born in a 'high social class' equal to success....

### Other forces contribute to success

- Emotional Intelligence
- Luck
- Social Class

More praying on the naïve and gullible payer of the course

Yeah, we can all agree on that. It actually may be the single scientifically acceptable part of the assertion. If you define luck as chance/random even, unforeseeable and unpredictable ...

The same source of 'knowledge'



# Neural basis of EI / brain's emotional architecture

## The limbic system

Remember an earlier slide when we asked how did we come across this concept/construct of EI... ---- and, anecdotal but also scientific/research evidence?

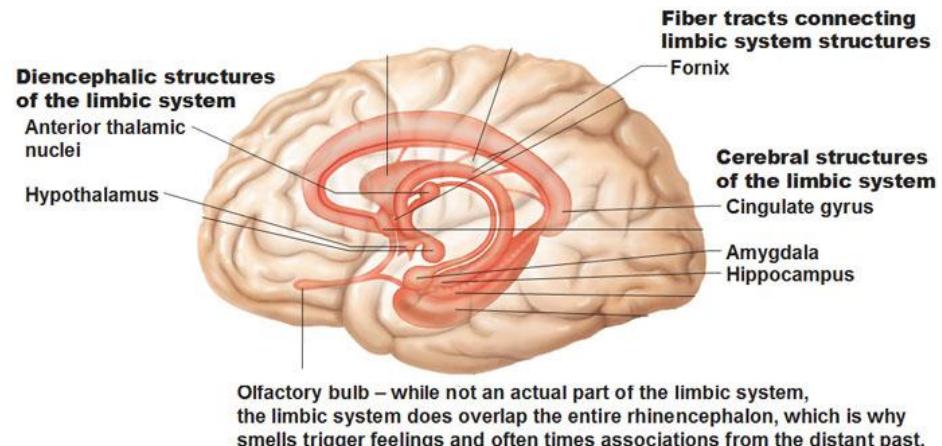
### The “emotional” architecture of the brain

Limbic structures provide neurophysiological support for feelings and emotions

The so-called ‘reptilian’ brain ‘downshifts’ while the amygdala performs ‘neural hijacking’

The adrenal glands provide ‘juice’ for the fight

### The Limbic System (the basics)



Nobody really cares, that is why the picture is very small and I won't be upset if you ask me to go faster to the next slide...

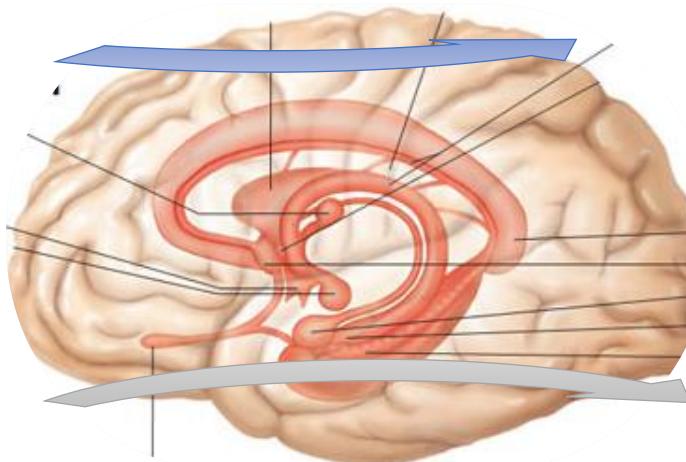
# Neural basis of EI / brain's emotional architecture

## Positive affect, negative affect and cognition

Remember an earlier slide when we asked how did we come across this concept/construct of EI... ---- and, anecdotal but also scientific/research evidence?

There is a direct connection (neural pathways) between the *affective centre* of the brain (also called *the limbic system*) and the *frontal lobes* (which are crucial in reasoning and learning)

Positive emotions



**Opens / elicits** cognitive processes  
(i.e., attention, memory, formation  
of new connections)

Negative emotions

**Closes / downshifts** the cognitive  
processes  
(i.e., attention, memory, etc.)

# Emotions' recognition

## Basic Emotions

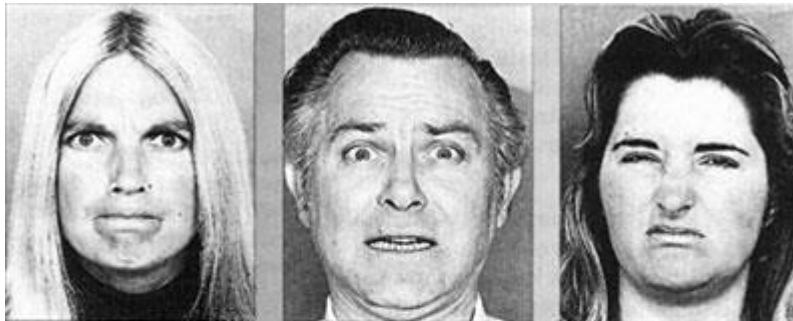
If emotions are that important, and if you still want to know more about EI, let's see how good are you at identifying emotions...

{name a few basic  
and most commonly  
known emotions}...

Happiness

Fear

Anger



Surprise

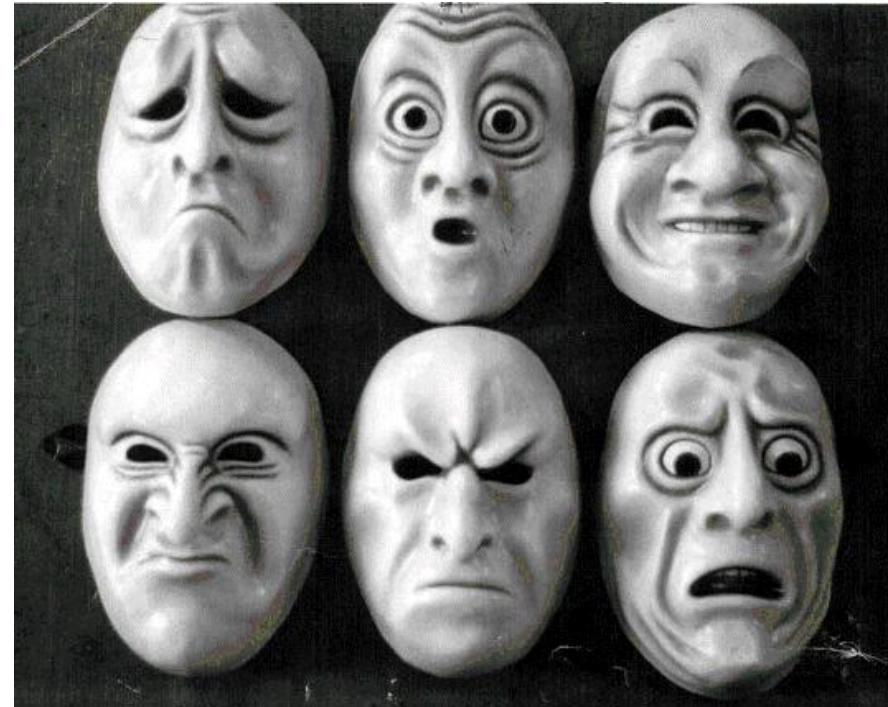
Disgust

Sadness

# Emotions' recognition

## Sketched emotions

If emotions are that important, and if you still want to know more about EI, let's see how good are you at identifying emotions...



Is it easier now?

If so, why?

# Tell me...

---



Let's continue with another... exercise...

1. Ask yourself how confident in yourself you feel right now. Right it down, on a piece of paper, rating it on a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is the least confident you have ever felt and 10 the most confident you ever felt/think you can feel.
  
2. Take a 2 minutes brake and stretch your legs. Go to someone in this room, preferably, someone who you don't know, yet. Tell that person something private, something intimate, **something that you would NOT normally tell a stranger**.
  
3. Come back to your seat and think how you feel. Rate your confidence in yourself again and see if improved in any way.

# Underlying assumptions / Principles of EI

Caruso & Salovey,  
2004

## Again...Emotions

Emotion = Information => Knowledge

Emotion is pervasive / you can't evade it

Can't separate thinking from emotions

So, better get used to it and make better use of it

Also, see hot cognitions vs. cold cognitions

Is hiding your emotion a winning strategy?

A girl may not be as good at hiding as a girl thinks...

How predictable are the patterns of emotions?

Or... 'the logic' of emotions' patterns

Remember the specificities of emotions

We know basic / primary emotions, but there are also a lot of specificities of emotions.  
There is also a crucially significant cultural component of emotions

# Underlying assumptions / Principles of EI

Caruso & Salovey,  
2004

## Key skills for EI competency

The ability to  
fully access your own  
emotions

The ability to  
shut down / ignore / block  
emotions

The ability to experience  
& reflect upon  
& describe your own emotion

So, better get used to it and make better use of it

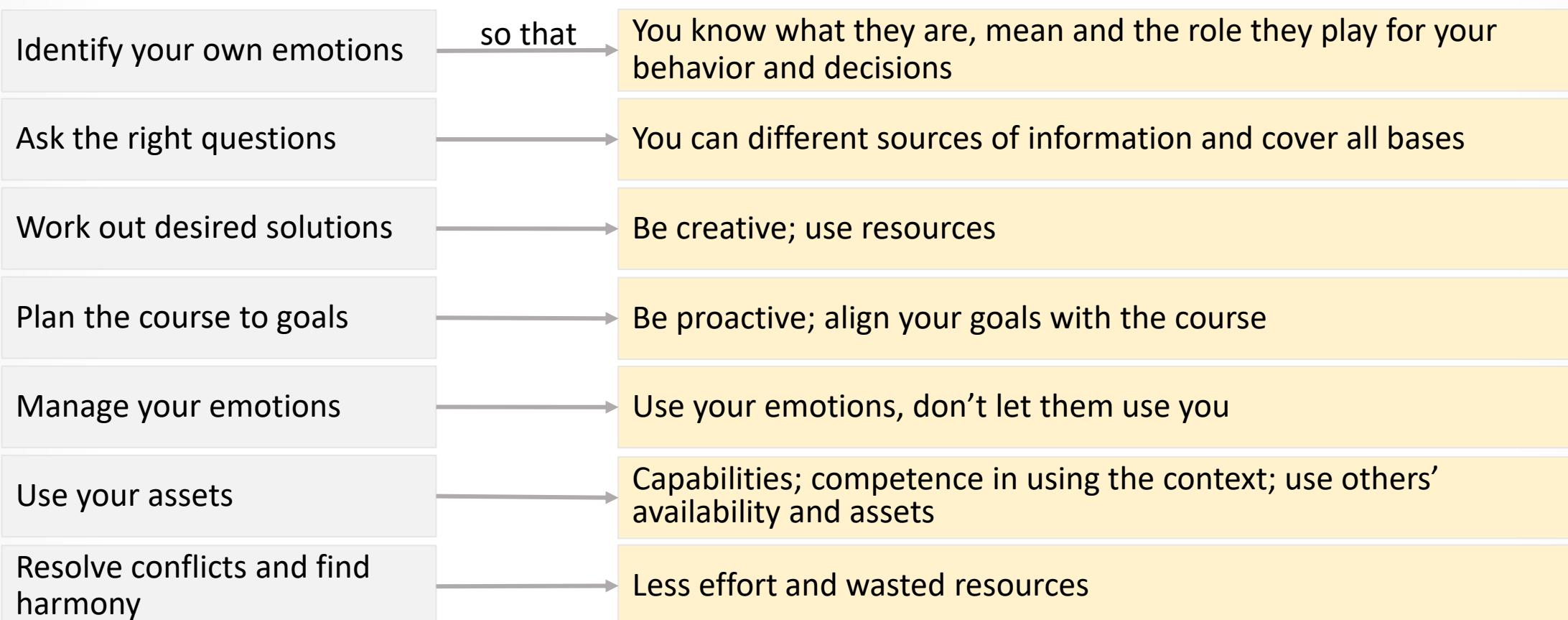
Also, see hot cognitions vs. cold cognitions

# Develop & Control EI

Marlevede

## 7 steps to emotional intelligence

Now, that we've established how vulnerable we are to irrational thinking, let's go a step further



# Cognitive errors / biases

## The dangers of not being rational ---- common thinking errors

- Discounting positive information
- Jumping to a negative conclusion
- Going beyond the facts
  - Using absolutes to describe events
  - More dire than justified
  - Faulty prediction
  - Invalid allocation of responsibility
  - Invalid conclusions about motives
  - Using only dichotomous categories
  - And many more

# Cognitive errors / biases

## The dangers of not being rational ---- common thinking errors

Wouldn't it be great if everything was according to merit?

Economy makes its predictions this way...

Maybe, that is why it is so wrong, so often...

But people are not perfect computing machine. Actually, as far as rational decision making is concerned, they are rather lousy performers.

See [Ariely](#) (17:21), also Kahneman

Specifically, a **cognitive bias is a pattern of reasoning distortion** which causes people to formulate erroneous inferences on other people or situations (Haselton, Nettle, & Andrews, 2005).

Biases affect not only the individual and his/her decision, but they also bear social and welfare costs (Trout, 2005)

# Cognitive errors / biases

## Biases --- Factors & Causes

Factors which hinder good reasoning & decision making:

- Quality of available information
- Quantity of available information
- Certain/Specific learned thinking procedures –i.e., heuristics, algorithms (Kahneman et al., 1982)
- Specific interests
- Number of competing sources of information (Simon, 1955)
- Too many sources that distract attention & disrupt thinking
- The conditionalities and emotions are too high (Pfister & Bohn, 2008)
- Too much social pressure (Wang, Simons, & Bredart, 2001)

# Cognitive errors / biases

## Biases ---- examples of common thinking errors

### Examples

Wishful thinking bias; self-serving bias

Hindsight bias

Confirmatory bias

The status quo bias

### Remember

High Pervasiveness + Inter-related & Overlapped + Always Filtering

# ABC

Albert Ellis, REBT

## Again...Emotions, but this time, THOUGHTS also

Now, that we've established how vulnerable we are to irrational thinking, let's go a step further

A = Activating Event

Anything can constitute an activating event: external happenings, thoughts, others' actions, etc.

B = Beliefs

And, herein lies  
the great danger

Nothing happens without us appraising, assessing, evaluating that event. We reason (sometimes in an subconscious manner) about everything that happens to us and we allocate values of TRUTH

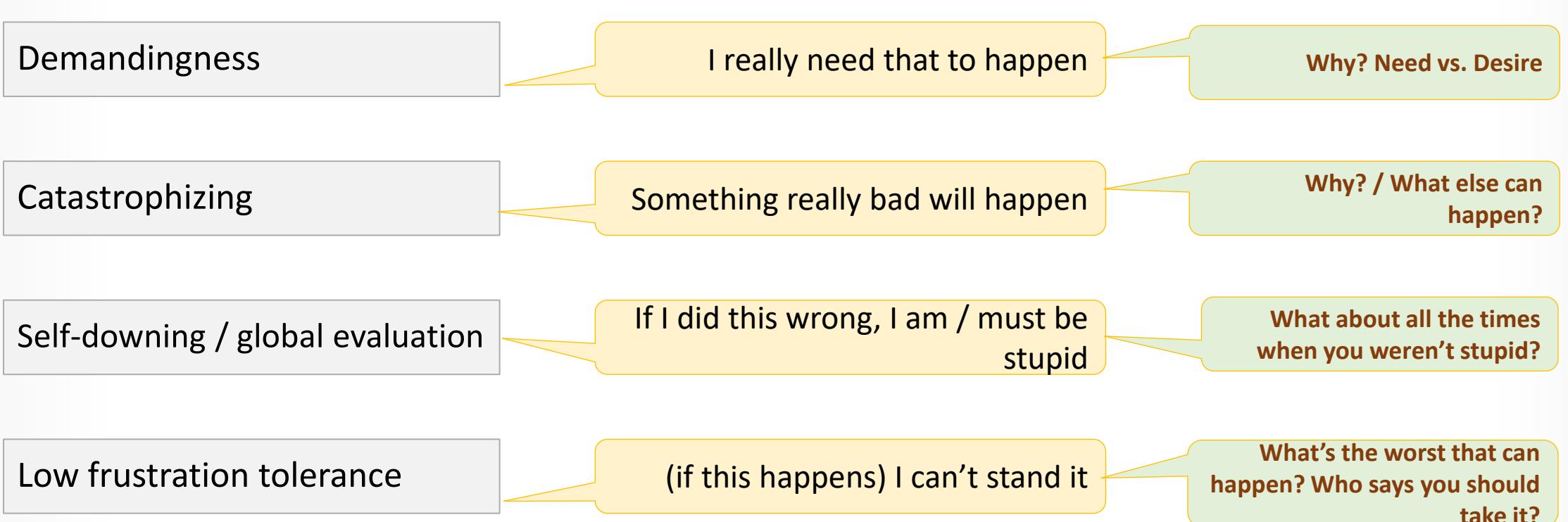
C = Consequences

We 'come' to feel in a certain way about what happened and this particular/individual way of feeling is determined by what our previous thoughts (B = Beliefs) were

# ABC

Albert Ellis, REBT

## The dangers of not being rational ---- see also absolutistic / black-or-white thinking



# How rational are you?

---



## Exercise...? Being rational vs. rationalizing

Think of the worst thing in your life right now. The thing that scares you the most. I hope it is not the case, but it may be the suffering of someone very dear to you.

ABC yourself.

Auto-assess how *irrational* your B is.

Think of the consequences it has on your behavior.

# Personal Control

Rothbaum, later Hall et al., Heckhausen

## Control – Bi-processual

Now, that we've established how vulnerable we are to irrational thinking, let's go a step further

PC = Primary control

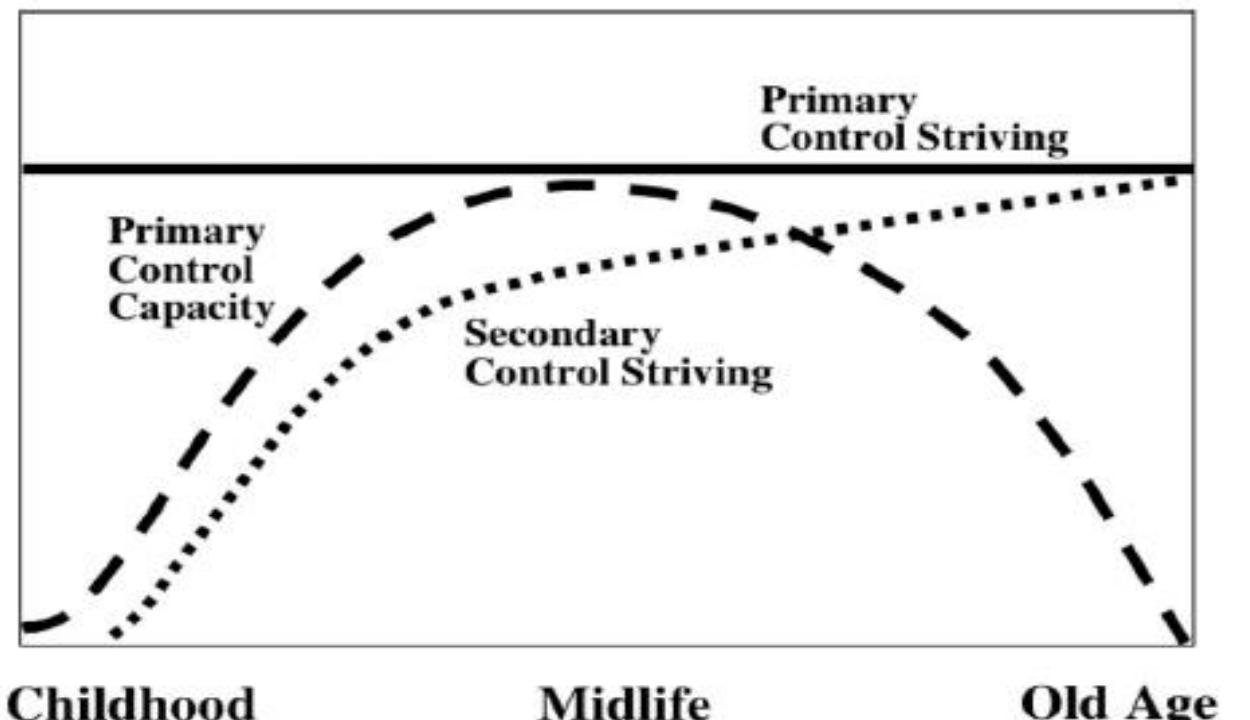
Dangerously low (decreases) after certain events ( and with age)

SC = Secondary Control

Some people forget this is an option, it develops over time. Back-up

RCA = Reported Congruence Ability

This is 'the key to success'. Also --- mediates the impact of irrationality (see ABC below)



# Research results

## Critics

- At least 3 main points of criticism

Daus & Ashkansy,  
2005

- A lot of ‘academic-turned-consultants’ going after their spot in the light, selling an artificial construct that is pseudoscience

- Unreliable and invalid measurements --- instruments change too often and too much; psychometrical properties are lame

- No evidence (scientific, controlled or observational) that EI really matters in organizations

# Research results

## Facts derived from research / State of the Art --- Conclusions

Remember

Not just one single construct --- rather, a composed, overlapping, bouillabaisse

e.g., never a thought without emotion, never an emotion without underlying reasoning proc.

High Pervasiveness of emotions and of biases/fallacies +

Inter-related & Overlapped (sources, causes, processes, manifestations) +

Always Filtering (information is ALWAYS processed preferentially & particularly)

# T & T (teaser)



# T&T (Recap)

- EI is all about 2 things... which may become a few more, later on...

- Identifying emotions
  - In self
  - In others

• Clear reasoning

- Using emotions

• Self-control

Knowing

- The causes
- The techniques

# T&T (choices)

- Eliminate useless choices
- Like this?



# T&T (choices)

- Not quite

The screenshot shows the 'Subscriptions' section of The Economist's website. On the left, there is a vertical sidebar with links to various sections: OPINION, WORLD, BUSINESS, FINANCE & ECONOMICS, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY, PEOPLE, BOOKS & ARTS, MARKETS & DATA, and DIVERSIONS. The main content area has a light gray background and features the heading 'SUBSCRIPTIONS' in large, bold, black capital letters. Below it, a red banner reads 'Welcome to The Economist Subscription Centre'. A sub-headline says 'Pick the type of subscription you want to buy or renew.' There are three subscription options listed, each preceded by a checkbox:

- Economist.com subscription - US \$59.00**  
One-year subscription to Economist.com.  
Includes online access to all articles from *The Economist* since 1997.
- Print subscription - US \$125.00**  
One-year subscription to the print edition  
of *The Economist*.
- Print & web subscription - US \$125.00**  
One-year subscription to the print edition  
of *The Economist* and online access to all

# T&T (choices)

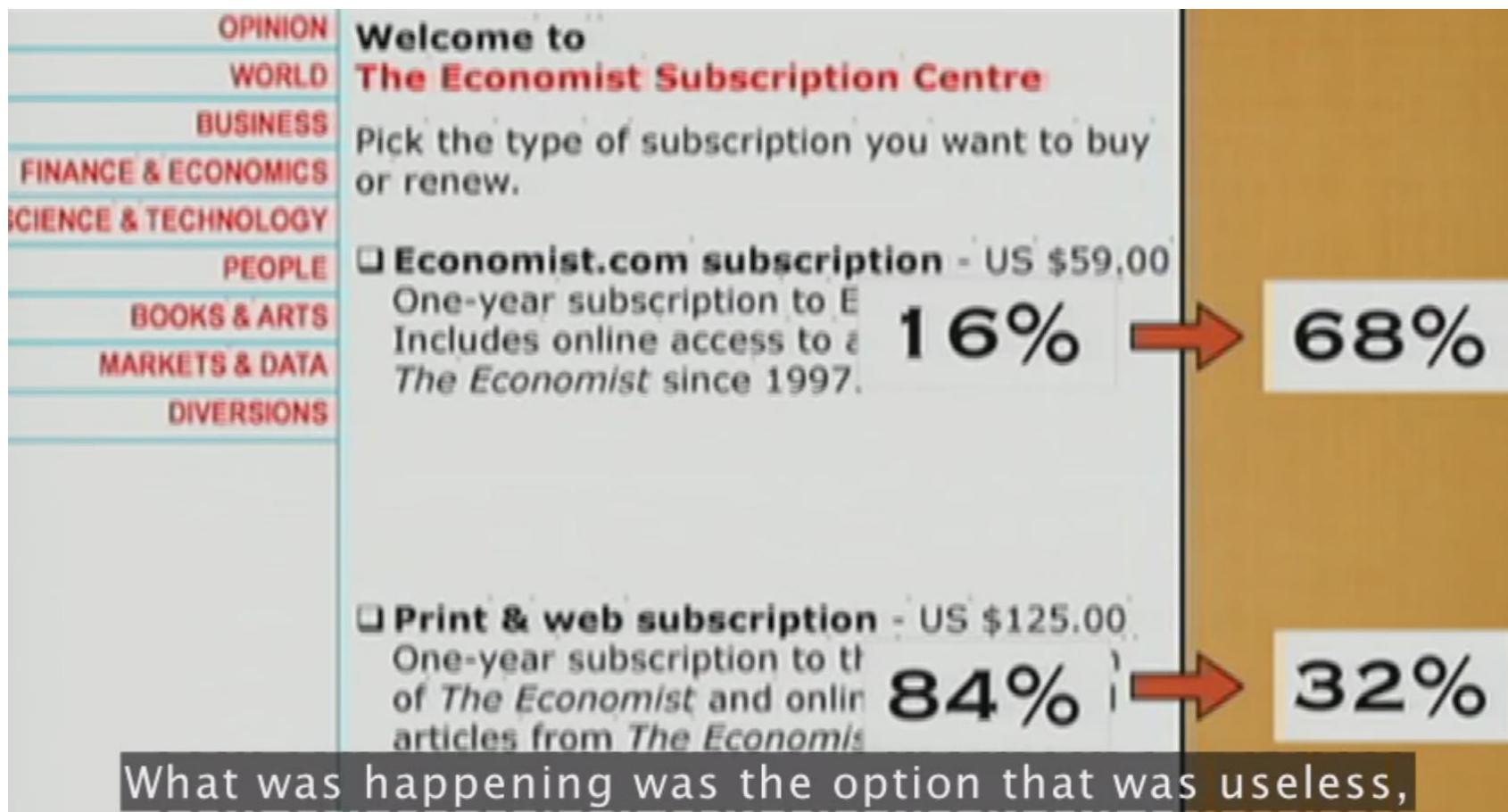
- Not quite there yet

The screenshot shows the 'Welcome to The Economist Subscription Centre' page. On the left, a vertical sidebar lists categories: OPINION, WORLD, BUSINESS, FINANCE & ECONOMICS, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY, PEOPLE, BOOKS & ARTS, MARKETS & DATA, and DIVERSIONS. The main content area displays three subscription options:

- Economist.com subscription - US \$59,00**  
One-year subscription to E  
Includes online access to e  
**16%**  
*The Economist* since 1997.
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One-year subscription to t  
of *The Economist*.  
**0%**
- Print & web subscription - US \$125.00**  
One-year subscription to t  
of *The Economist* and onlin  
**84%**

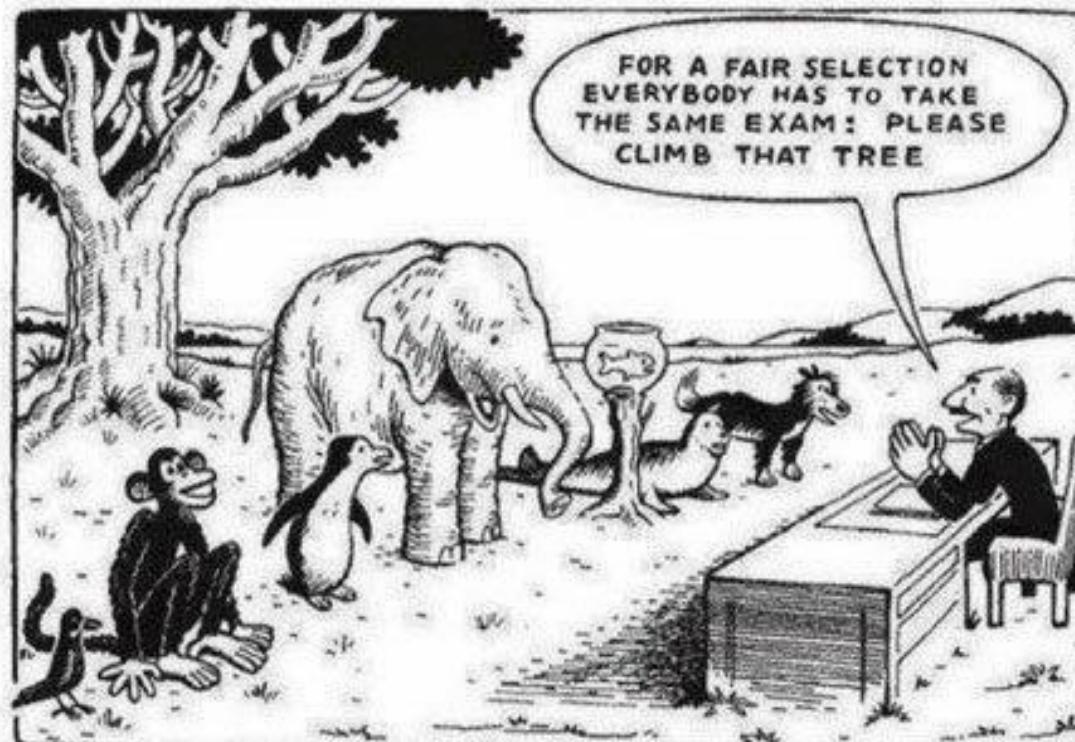
# T&T (choices)

- ...there



# T&T (self-awareness)

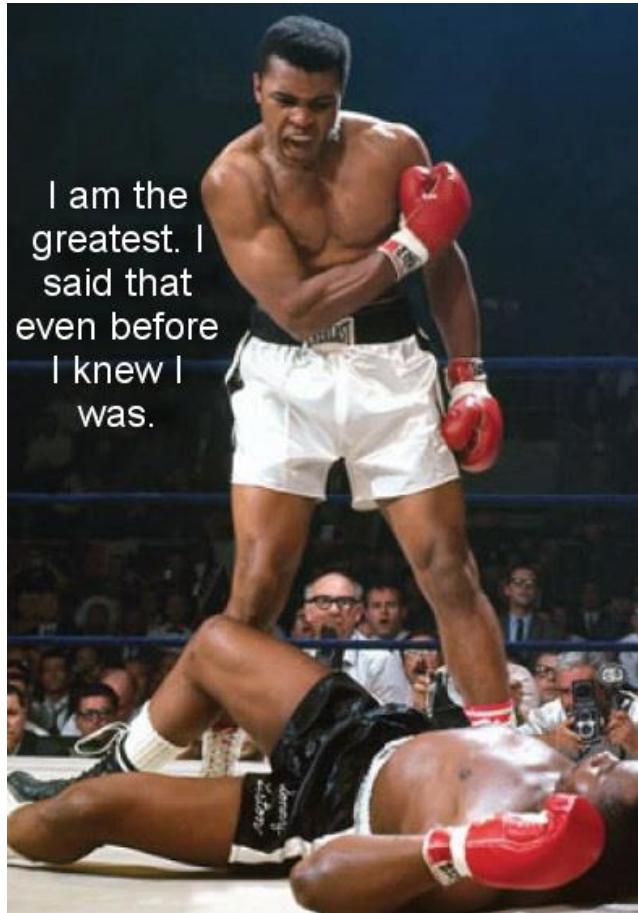
- The correct criteria



## Our Education System

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# T&T (Motivation)



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# “Be water, my friend”... fill the shape

---



## Exercise...

1. Assess yourself as being tough or mushy
2. Watch picture and assess its impact on your emotional state
3. Take indicated posture (A or B) and practice
4. Reassess your feelings

# T&T(Motivation)

- Always create need
- The need is the driving force for creating anything
- Discard the inefficient old
  - The Apple method (cynically embrace the future)  
No CD (blasphemy !!!), slick, light, shinny, extremely poor performance (at least compared with), however... hip



# T&T (Motivation)

- Learn what motivates you – anything will do
- Value
  - Cost
  - Utility
  - Importance
  - Interest (intrinsic)
- Expectation



# T&T (Emotional control)

- The problem is not THE emotion in & of itself, but rather the behavior it triggers
- The mental attitude is everything
- What's that “holding out your glass” about?



Work on  
your muscle  
tone



# T&T (emotional control)

- Accept

that there are things outside your control (no, not chance, not God, not destiny, just causality in which you don't matter much)

- Remember that there are...

Two forms/ways of control (primary & secondary).

Attributions matter a lot

# T&T (empathy)

- Factors that hinder empathy

- Intolerance --- inability / lack of willingness to accept difference in people
- Prejudice & stereotypes --- mental/cultural clichés based on nothing / false claims
- Unrealistic expectations about other people or events
- Excessively critical attitude --- while a little criticism may be useful...
- Ego & infatuation --- leads to poor /& one-sided communication
- *Can you think of others?*

# T&T (general advice)

## General advice which co-interests abilities of Emotional Intelligence

- Learn

- Exercise/practice observation
- Go to counselling and Learn, don't just talk
- Identify mentors (where?/too old?)
- Ask successful friends

- Un-stress

- Do yoga
- Spend time alone
- Go hiking
- Listen to nature
- Take breaks, much more often

- Communicate

- Talk to yourself, record
- Talk to friends
- Talk to complete stranger
- Explore avatars, virtual persona
- Use empathy
- Read incl. non-verbal cues

- Negotiate

- Align interests with possibilities and resources
- Align interests with others
- Avoid conflict – wasted effort
- Be assertive (learn how)

- Take control

- Cultivate proactive not reactive
- Plan ahead
- Sketch, draw, rip/burn & again
- Be assertive (learn how)

# T&T (general advice)

- Resources
  - $E = MC^2$
  - Time is relative... sometimes
  - Don't burn the candle at both ends
  - Make every breath count
  - Take everything in life with a grain of salt

# T&T (warnings)

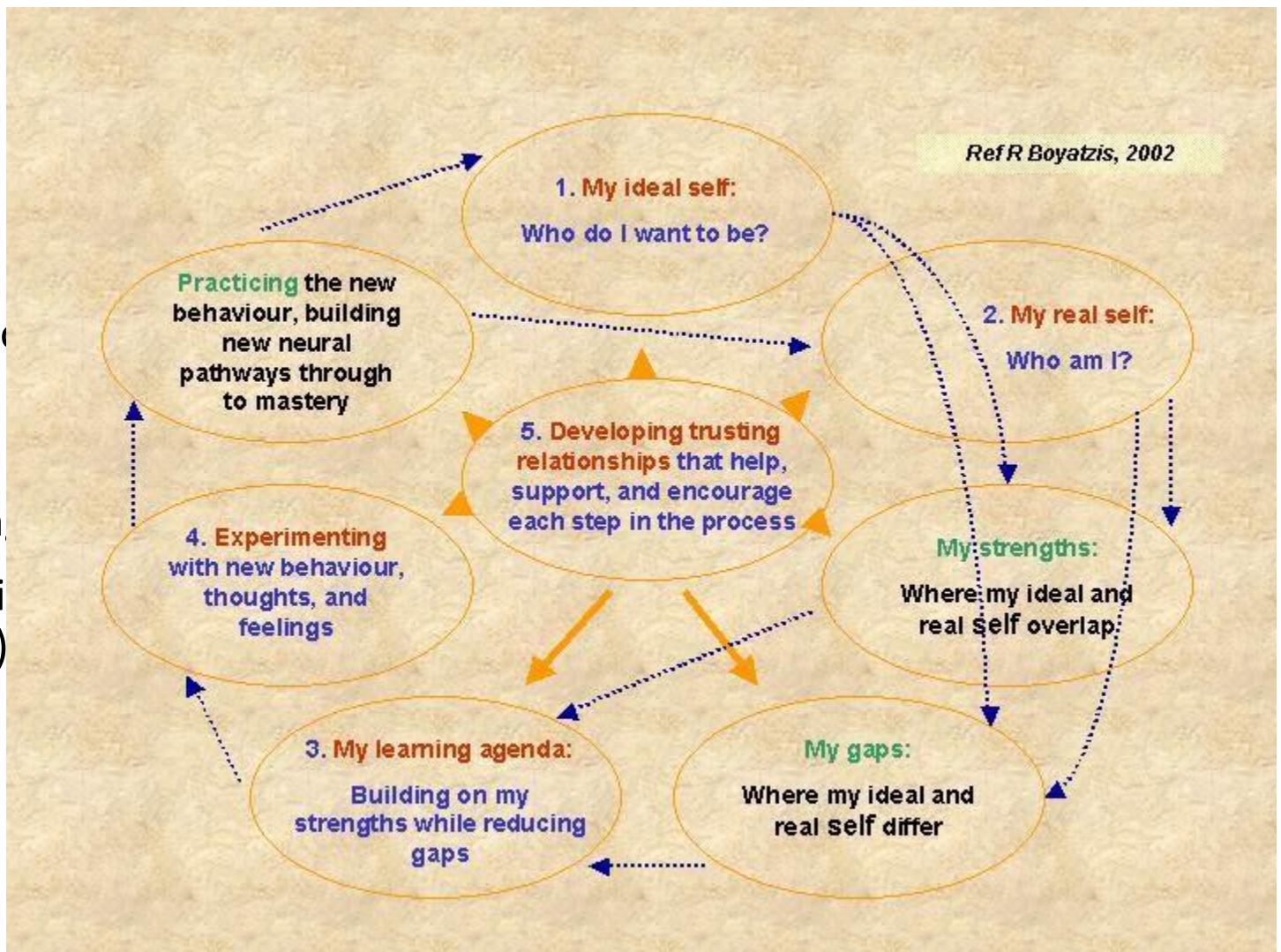
- The bads of good (the two-sided coin)
  - Pride vs. Dignity
  - Perseverance vs. Obstination
  - Driven vs. manic
  - Prudent/cautious vs. paranoid
  - Caring vs. controlling
  - Self-conscious vs. Ego(manic/centered)
  - Love vs. In-love
  - Laid-back/relaxed vs. lazy/...
- *Guess what... the list is never-ending*

# T&T (warnings)

A really, really dangerous concept if not used carefully

- People pleasers;
- devious &/ manipulative
- Goal driven to the extreme of ending up dead

Watch this final example of pseudoscience writing (argh.. ‘new neural pathways’)



T&T (V

Hopefully, after  
Emotional Intel

Training for bu

- for people w
- For people w

Would you go



## Ideal Leaders in Venezuela

P. R. Sarkar, founder of Prout, visited Venezuela in 1979. When he was leaving he gave a message of encouragement and hope:

**"Venezuela needs good spiritual political leaders. If Venezuela can produce spiritual political leaders, it will be not only the leader of Latin America, but also the leader of the planet. Venezuela is a blessed country."**

**It is your duty to accelerate the process to create spiritual political leaders.**

# T&T (fun stuff)

## Funny stuff

- We all accept that things such effort, goals, hard work, etc. contribute to the final success in various proportions
- Let's assume that each letter has a weighing in the final score of the word. For instance, if A=1, B=2, etc. such as bellow:

A = 1	F = 6	V = 22	G O A L
B = 2	G = 7	W = 23	7 15 1 12
C = 3	H = 8	X = 24	
D = 4	I = 9	Y = 25	
E = 5	J = 10	Z = 26	

and,  
so on

then

Right? You can  
verify it on your  
own if you want.

Now, let's see what this means

# The end

- So, in the end, what is all about?
- In a nutshell --- is doing whatever makes you happy when doing it
- ... and getting paid for it



# L07-mental wellbeing part 1. Irrationality & ABC model

Personal and Professional Development

---

Dorin Stanciu  
Technical University of Cluj-Napoca  
last update 19 November, 2020



# mental hygiene & normality

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

Mental hygiene refers to a person's healthy psychological, *i.e.*, cognitive and emotional functioning.

However, what is *healthy*, just as what is *normal* is not easy to define. We're mostly 'living inside our own minds', in the sense that there is a certain level of egocentrism and self-centeredness that obscures other perspectives of the world than our own.

Moreover, while we are all capable (in various degrees) of empathy and understanding other people's perspective or points of view, thinking and acting with these in mind is neither easy nor does it come automatically.

Being able to see other people's perspective and understand their emotional state must be doubled by conscious efforts to do so.

# mental hygiene & normality

## biases and cognitive distortions

People tend to process negative information deeper and more thoroughly than positive information, with very few exceptions. This tendency affects a large variety of psychological experiences, including the way we interact with others, how we form more distant or closer relationships with others, our emotional life, the way we learn, what we remember, how we think, the perception we create (including those referring to ourselves).

Studies suggest that the source of this preferential information processing is evolutionary in nature. More specifically, it may have served as an adaptive and protective mechanism during our evolution as a species and its main purpose was to protect us from negative events by functioning as an 'early warning' system. Other attempts to explain it indicate that negative stimuli may be processed preferentially because they are more contagious than positive stimuli, *i.e.*, their association levels with other elements/construals in our cognitive system is higher than for positive stimuli.

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

Mental hygiene needs conscious efforts to be maintained. It is neither a given nor a certitude. People cope with stress, suffering and trauma in various ways, and not all coping mechanisms are healthy.

Consequently, the individual may develop coping mechanisms that, albeit alleviating the problem on the moment, turn out to be detrimental for the individual and/or for others around him, on the long run.

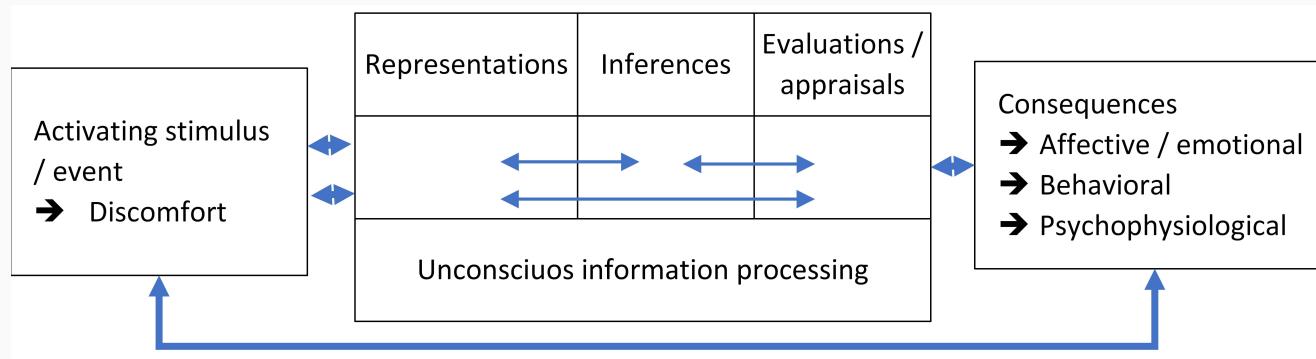
For instance, drinking socially is mostly viewed as an accepted behavior. There are also places where using recreational drugs, like marijuana, is allowed legally. From this legal and social acceptance, there is a very small step to use the effects of these substances to alleviate emotional problems.

However, not only both are only temporary solutions, addressing the symptoms and not the causes, they're also very detrimental on the long run.

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### the ABC model



The ABC model (apud David, 2006)<sup>1</sup>

The ABC model above describes how our behaviors and emotional states occur. Once a stimulus is powerful and/or significant enough, it triggers a series of mental information processing (many of which can be unconscious).

---

[1]David, D. O. (2006). *Psihologie clinică și psihoterapie: fundamente*. Polirom

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### the ABC model

The information processings include representations, inferences, evaluations/appraisal which can build upon each other and other pre-existing knowledge.

It is important to note that the information processings include the previously mentioned beliefs, *i.e.*, consolidated appraisals held as valid with a high degree of certitude.

In turn, these cognitive processings trigger decisions, behaviors, emotional, and physiological consequences.

While the model was developed based on clinical and psychotherapeutic observations (hence the example of negative stimulation in the picture), it is a valid conceptualization for the entire causal mechanisms behind our behaviors and emotional states.

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### the ABC model

Also important is that the sequence can, and usually is repeated in a loop, and the various components feed each other.

For instance, once a stimulus triggers the information processing, the individual may become more proactive in searching for other 'relevant' stimuli, meaningful for that particular context.

In turn, certain consequences, like highly loaded emotional states may either influence the information processing, or serve as stimuli.

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### beliefs

We entertain a series of beliefs, *i.e.*, evaluations of reality and parts of the reality with a high degree of certitude and temporal stability.

In other words, we can appraise our knowledge of a certain situation or event as having a certain truth value associated with it (or certitude with respect to how well and complete our knowledge is in relation to said situation or event; this can also be another person, ourselves, our traits, etc.).

However, over time, certain beliefs tend to strengthen and consolidate. And, while some of these beliefs are objectively supported by evidence, some of them are rather naive.

Another important aspect of our beliefs is that they are not necessarily limited to straightforward appraisals, like, for instance, "X people are bad", but they may expand to include thought processes, like, for instance, "X people are bad because they don't believe in (this) God" or "gypsies are bad because everyone (*sic!*) knows that gypsies steal things".

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### irrational beliefs

As mentioned above, our system of beliefs may, and sadly, often does include also 'detrimental' beliefs. Because almost all these beliefs originate from a distorted/biased and/or incomplete process of construction (belief consolidation is in significant part a process of knowledge building) they were termed "irrational beliefs".

Here, "irrational" designates not the absence of rationality or justification, but rather that they are the 'fruit of the poisoned tree', so to speak. At some point in our construction of these beliefs, parts of our reasoning were not valid, either because of false information or wrong reasoning.

# mental hygiene and normality

## rationality and irrationality

### irrational beliefs. types

Clinical research identified four main types of irrational beliefs that are responsible for our emotional suffering:

- demandingness
- awfulizing
- self-downing / global evaluation
- catastrophization

an important caveat is that these types of beliefs do not occur in a vacuum, isolated from each other. They often combine with each other and form more complex maladaptive schemas.

# mental health and irrationality

## irrational beliefs. demandingness

### **demandingness**

This type of thinking is characterized by formulating our thoughts of the manner "I must have/do/acquire/feel something/in a certain way, etc." or "Things/this/they need to be this/that way".

For instance, a maladaptive schema centered around demandingness may sound like "I must succeed in that interview (no matter what)" and be continued by expectations of bad consequences, e.g., "otherwise this *bad consequence* will happen".

There is very little, if any room at all for alternatives, especially for variations less valued by that person. The person's ability to compromise is reduced significantly, and even dramatically in more severe cases.

# mental health and irrationality

## irrational beliefs. awfulizing

### **awfulizing**

This type of thinking is characterized by formulating our thoughts of the manner "This is (absolutely) awful/terrible/horrendous, what's happening to me" or "If X happens, this will be awful". While frequent, the condition is not always explicit or if it is it doesn't have to be logically coherent.

For instance, an example of awfulizing thinking may be "If I don't get this job, *things will be terrible for me*".

People who exhibit this type of thinking tend to appraise the situations and events with a predominance of their worst aspects and/or take their negative aspects to the extreme, sometimes even presuming such catastrophic consequences without an immediate or direct basis.

# mental health and irrationality

## irrational beliefs. self-downing/global evaluation

### **self-downing/global evaluation**

This type of thinking is characterized by formulating our thoughts of the manner "(if this happens) I am a terrible/bad/awful person". While frequent, the condition is not always explicit or if it is it doesn't have to be logically coherent.

For instance, an example of self-downing thinking may be "If I don't get this job, (it means that) *I am worthless*".

People who exhibit this type of thinking tend to evaluate themselves globally as less worthy if some condition is not met.

# mental health and irrationality

## irrational beliefs. low frustration tolerance

### **low frustration tolerance**

This type of thinking is characterized by formulating our thoughts of the manner "(if this happens) I cannot take/stand/suffer it/this". While frequent, the condition is not always explicit or if it is it doesn't have to be logically coherent.

For instance, an example of low-frustration tolerance when thinking may be "If I don't get this job, (it means that) *I am worthless*".

People who exhibit this type of thinking tend to appraise their own abilities to be insufficient to withstand a certain situation or a challenging/troublesome context.

# L02-Biases

Personal and Professional Development

Dorin Stanciu

25 November, 2020

## Definition/Overview

Biases: **Cognitive biases** are systematic patterns of deviation from norm and/or rationality in judgment. (“List of cognitive biases,” 2020)

## Notes

While it is very comprehensive, the list of biases presented in Appendix is *exhaustive*, *i.e.* there are other biases not included in this list. This is the effect of the underlying analysis that defines what a bias is. More specifically, depending on the type, depth, and level of analysis, different biases may emerge.

I recommend consulting the list in English and consult a dictionary, if needed, as there are many terms and descriptions that do not have a faithful representation in the Romanian language.

The following is a brief selection of biases that are either commonly met or present a specific interest. However, different biases are important for different people. It is recommended, therefore, that you consult this list and expand your analysis and understanding of these biases, according to your personality.

## Selection

...1 Name	Description
2 Agent detection	The inclination to presume the purposeful intervention of a sentient or intelligent agent.

3	Ambiguity effect	The tendency to avoid options for which the probability of a favorable outcome is unknown.
4	Anchoring or focalism	The tendency to rely too heavily, or "anchor", on one trait or piece of information when making decisions (usually the first piece of information acquired on that subject).
5	Anthropocentric thinking	The tendency to use human analogies as a basis for reasoning about other, less familiar, biological phenomena.
6	Anthropomorphism or personification	The tendency to characterize animals, objects, and abstract concepts as possessing human-like traits, emotions, and intentions. The opposite bias, of not attributing feelings or thoughts to another person, is dehumanised perception, a type of objectification.
11	Backfire effect	The reaction to disconfirming evidence by strengthening one's previous beliefs. Note: the existence of this bias as a widespread phenomenon has been disputed in empirical studies
13	Belief bias	An effect where someone's evaluation of the logical strength of an argument is biased by the believability of the conclusion.
14	Berkson's paradox	The tendency to misinterpret statistical experiments involving conditional probabilities.
17	Confirmation bias	The tendency to search for, interpret, focus on and remember information in a way that confirms one's preconceptions.
31	Dunning-Kruger effect	The tendency for unskilled individuals to overestimate their own ability and the tendency for experts to underestimate their own ability.
34	End-of-history illusion	The age-independent belief that one will change less in the future than one has in the past.
35	Endowment effect	The tendency for people to demand much more to give up an object than they would be willing to pay to acquire it.
37	Experimenter's or expectation bias	The tendency for experimenters to believe, certify, and publish data that agree with their expectations for the outcome of an experiment, and to disbelieve, discard, or downgrade the corresponding weightings for data that appear to conflict with those expectations.
40	Framing effect	Drawing different conclusions from the same information, depending on how that information is presented.
43	Gambler's fallacy	The tendency to think that future probabilities are altered by past events, when in reality they are unchanged. The fallacy arises from an erroneous conceptualization of the law of large numbers. For example, "I've flipped heads with this coin five times consecutively, so the chance of tails coming out on the sixth flip is much greater than heads."

44	Gender bias	A widely held set of implicit biases that discriminate against a gender. For example, the assumption that women are less suited to jobs requiring high intellectual ability. Or the assumption that people or animals are male in the absence of any indicators of gender.
46	Hindsight bias	Sometimes called the "I-knew-it-all-along" effect, the tendency to see past events as being predictable at the time those events happened.
47	Hot-hand fallacy	The "hot-hand fallacy" (also known as the "hot hand phenomenon" or "hot hand") is the belief that a person who has experienced success with a random event has a greater chance of further success in additional attempts.
49	IKEA effect	The tendency for people to place a disproportionately high value on objects that they partially assembled themselves, such as furniture from IKEA, regardless of the quality of the end product.
68	Non-adaptive choice switching	After experiencing a bad outcome with a decision problem, the tendency to avoid the choice previously made when faced with the same decision problem again, even though the choice was optimal. Also known as "once bitten, twice shy" or "hot stove effect".
69	Normalcy bias	The refusal to plan for, or react to, a disaster which has never happened before.
76	Pareidolia	A vague and random stimulus (often an image or sound) is perceived as significant, e.g., seeing images of animals or faces in clouds, the man in the moon, and hearing non-existent hidden messages on records played in reverse.

**Agent detection**, i.e., *The inclination to presume the purposeful intervention of a sentient or intelligent agent.:*

- the Universe, Nature, Life, are common examples of “intelligent agency”/“intelligent design”

**Ambiguity effect**, i.e., *The tendency to avoid options for which the probability of a favorable outcome is unknown.:*

- related to the behavior of “not taking chances” / “avoiding roads we haven’t traveled before”

**Anchoring or focalism**, i.e., *The tendency to rely too heavily, or “anchor”, on one trait or piece of information when making decisions (usually the first piece of information acquired on that subject).:*

- the Universe, Nature, Life, are common examples of “intelligent agency”/“intelligent design”

## Appendix

Note: some of the biases listed in the tables below are more researched than others. Follow the links on the source page for more details.

### Cognitive biases

	Name	Type	Description
2	Agent detection	False priors	The inclination to presume the purposeful intervention of a sentient or intelligent agent.
3	Ambiguity effect	Prospect theory	The tendency to avoid options for which the probability of a favorable outcome is unknown.
4	Anchoring or focalism	Anchoring bias	The tendency to rely too heavily, or "anchor", on one trait or piece of information when making decisions (usually the first piece of information acquired on that subject).
5	Anthropocentric thinking	Availability bias	The tendency to use human analogies as a basis for reasoning about other, less familiar, biological phenomena.
6	Anthropomorphism or personification	Availability bias	The tendency to characterize animals, objects, and abstract concepts as possessing human-like traits, emotions, and intentions. The opposite bias, of not attributing feelings or thoughts to another person, is dehumanised perception, a type of objectification.
7	Attentional bias	Availability bias	The tendency of perception to be affected by recurring thoughts.
8	Attribute substitution	NA	Occurs when a judgment has to be made (of a target attribute) that is computationally complex, and instead a more easily calculated heuristic attribute is substituted. This substitution is thought of as taking place in the automatic intuitive judgment system, rather than the more self-aware reflective system.

9	Automation bias	False priors	The tendency to depend excessively on automated systems which can lead to erroneous automated information overriding correct decisions.
10	Availability heuristic	Availability bias	The tendency to overestimate the likelihood of events with greater "availability" in memory, which can be influenced by how recent the memories are or how unusual or emotionally charged they may be.
11	Backfire effect	Confirmation bias	The reaction to disconfirming evidence by strengthening one's previous beliefs. Note: the existence of this bias as a widespread phenomenon has been disputed in empirical studies
12	Base rate fallacy or Base rate neglect	Extension neglect	The tendency to ignore general information and focus on information only pertaining to the specific case, even when the general information is more important.
13	Belief bias	Truthiness	An effect where someone's evaluation of the logical strength of an argument is biased by the believability of the conclusion.
14	Berkson's paradox	Logical fallacy	The tendency to misinterpret statistical experiments involving conditional probabilities.
15	Clustering illusion	Apophenia	The tendency to overestimate the importance of small runs, streaks, or clusters in large samples of random data (that is, seeing phantom patterns).
16	Compassion fade	Extension neglect	The predisposition to behave more compassionately towards a small number of identifiable victims than to a large number of anonymous ones.
17	Confirmation bias	Confirmation bias	The tendency to search for, interpret, focus on and remember information in a way that confirms one's preconceptions.
18	Congruence bias	Confirmation bias	The tendency to test hypotheses exclusively through direct testing, instead of testing possible alternative hypotheses.

19	Conjunction fallacy	Extension neglect	The tendency to assume that specific conditions are more probable than a more general version of those same conditions. For example, subjects in one experiment perceived the probability of a woman being both a bank teller and a feminist as more likely than the probability of her being a bank teller.
20	Conservatism bias(belief revision)	Anchoring bias	The tendency to revise one's belief insufficiently when presented with new evidence.
21	Continued influence effect	Confirmation bias	The tendency to believe previously learned misinformation even after it has been corrected. Misinformation can still influence inferences one generates after a correction has occurred. cf. Backfire effect
22	Contrast effect	Framing effect	The enhancement or reduction of a certain stimulus' perception when compared with a recently observed, contrasting object.
23	Curse of knowledge	NA	When better-informed people find it extremely difficult to think about problems from the perspective of lesser-informed people.
24	Declinism	NA	The predisposition to view the past favorably (rosy retrospection) and future negatively.
25	Decoy effect	Framing effect	Preferences for either option A or B change in favor of option B when option C is presented, which is completely dominated by option B (inferior in all respects) and partially dominated by option A.
26	Default effect	Framing effect	When given a choice between several options, the tendency to favor the default one.
27	Denomination effect	Framing effect	The tendency to spend more money when it is denominated in small amounts (e.g., coins) rather than large amounts (e.g., bills).
28	Disposition effect	Prospect theory	The tendency to sell an asset that has accumulated in value and resist selling an asset that has declined in value.

29	Distinction bias	Framing effect	The tendency to view two options as more dissimilar when evaluating them simultaneously than when evaluating them separately.
30	Dread aversion	Prospect theory	Just as losses yield double the emotional impact of gains, dread yields double the emotional impact of savouring.
31	Dunning-Kruger effect	NA	The tendency for unskilled individuals to overestimate their own ability and the tendency for experts to underestimate their own ability.
32	Duration neglect	Extension neglect	The neglect of the duration of an episode in determining its value.
33	Empathy gap	NA	The tendency to underestimate the influence or strength of feelings, in either oneself or others.
34	End-of-history illusion	NA	The age-independent belief that one will change less in the future than one has in the past.
35	Endowment effect	Prospect theory	The tendency for people to demand much more to give up an object than they would be willing to pay to acquire it.
36	Exaggerated expectation	NA	The tendency to expect or predict more extreme outcomes than those outcomes that actually happen.
37	Experimenter's or expectation bias	Confirmation bias	The tendency for experimenters to believe, certify, and publish data that agree with their expectations for the outcome of an experiment, and to disbelieve, discard, or downgrade the corresponding weightings for data that appear to conflict with those expectations.

38	Forer effect or Barnum effect	Egocentric bias	The observation that individuals will give high accuracy ratings to descriptions of their personality that supposedly are tailored specifically for them, but are in fact vague and general enough to apply to a wide range of people. This effect can provide a partial explanation for the widespread acceptance of some beliefs and practices, such as astrology, fortune telling, graphology, and some types of personality tests.
39	Form function attribution bias	NA	In human–robot interaction, the tendency of people to make systematic errors when interacting with a robot. People may base their expectations and perceptions of a robot on its appearance (form) and attribute functions which do not necessarily mirror the true functions of the robot.
40	Framing effect	Framing effect	Drawing different conclusions from the same information, depending on how that information is presented.
41	Frequency illusion or Baader–Meinhof phenomenon	Availability bias	The frequency illusion is that once something has been noticed then every instance of that thing is noticed, leading to the belief it has a high frequency of occurrence (a form of selection bias). The Baader–Meinhof phenomenon is the illusion where something that has recently come to one's attention suddenly seems to appear with improbable frequency shortly afterwards. It was named after an incidence of frequency illusion in which the Baader–Meinhof Group was mentioned.
42	Functional fixedness	Anchoring bias	Limits a person to using an object only in the way it is traditionally used.

43	Gambler's fallacy	Logical fallacy	The tendency to think that future probabilities are altered by past events, when in reality they are unchanged. The fallacy arises from an erroneous conceptualization of the law of large numbers. For example, "I've flipped heads with this coin five times consecutively, so the chance of tails coming out on the sixth flip is much greater than heads."
44	Gender bias	False priors	A widely held set of implicit biases that discriminate against a gender. For example, the assumption that women are less suited to jobs requiring high intellectual ability. Or the assumption that people or animals are male in the absence of any indicators of gender.
45	Hardâ€“easy effect	NA	The tendency to overestimate one's ability to accomplish hard tasks, and underestimate one's ability to accomplish easy tasks
46	Hindsight bias	NA	Sometimes called the "I-knew-it-all-along" effect, the tendency to see past events as being predictable at the time those events happened.
47	Hot-hand fallacy	Logical fallacy	The "hot-hand fallacy" (also known as the "hot hand phenomenon" or "hot hand") is the belief that a person who has experienced success with a random event has a greater chance of further success in additional attempts.

48	Hyperbolic discounting	Extension neglect	Discounting is the tendency for people to have a stronger preference for more immediate payoffs relative to later payoffs. Hyperbolic discounting leads to choices that are inconsistent over time – people make choices today that their future selves would prefer not to have made, despite using the same reasoning. Also known as current moment bias, present-bias, and related to Dynamic inconsistency. A good example of this: a study showed that when making food choices for the coming week, 74% of participants chose fruit, whereas when the food choice was for the current day, 70% chose chocolate.
49	IKEA effect	NA	The tendency for people to place a disproportionately high value on objects that they partially assembled themselves, such as furniture from IKEA, regardless of the quality of the end product.
50	Illicit transference	Logical fallacy	Occurs when a term in the distributive (referring to every member of a class) and collective (referring to the class itself as a whole) sense are treated as equivalent. The two variants of this fallacy are the fallacy of composition and the fallacy of division.
51	Illusion of control	Egocentric bias	The tendency to overestimate one's degree of influence over other external events.
52	Illusion of validity	Egocentric bias	Overestimating the accuracy of one's judgments, especially when available information is consistent or inter-correlated.
53	Illusory correlation	Apophenia	Inaccurately perceiving a relationship between two unrelated events.
54	Illusory truth effect	Truthiness	A tendency to believe that a statement is true if it is easier to process, or if it has been stated multiple times, regardless of its actual veracity. These are specific cases of truthiness.

55	Impact bias	NA	The tendency to overestimate the length or the intensity of the impact of future feeling states.
56	Implicit association	Availability bias	The speed with which people can match words depends on how closely they are associated.
57	Information bias	NA	The tendency to seek information even when it cannot affect action.
58	Insensitivity to sample size	Extension neglect	The tendency to under-expect variation in small samples.
59	Interoceptive bias	NA	The tendency for sensory input about the body itself to affect one's judgement about external, unrelated circumstances. (As for example, in parole judges who are more lenient when fed and rested.)
60	Irrational escalation or Escala- tion of commitment	Logical fallacy	The phenomenon where people justify increased investment in a decision, based on the cumulative prior investment, despite new evidence suggesting that the decision was probably wrong. Also known as the sunk cost fallacy.
61	Law of the instrument	Anchoring bias	An over-reliance on a familiar tool or methods, ignoring or under-valuing alternative approaches. "If all you have is a hammer, everything looks like a nail."
62	Less-is-better effect	Extension neglect	The tendency to prefer a smaller set to a larger set judged separately, but not jointly.
63	Loss aversion	Prospect theory	The perceived disutility of giving up an object is greater than the utility associated with acquiring it. (see also Sunk cost effects and endowment effect).
64	Mere exposure effect	Familiarity principle	The tendency to express undue liking for things merely because of familiarity with them.
65	Money illusion	NA	The tendency to concentrate on the nominal value (face value) of money rather than its value in terms of purchasing power.

66	Moral credential effect	NA	Occurs when someone who does something good gives themselves permission to be less good in the future.
67	Neglect of probability	Extension neglect	The tendency to completely disregard probability when making a decision under uncertainty.
68	Non-adaptive choice switching	NA	After experiencing a bad outcome with a decision problem, the tendency to avoid the choice previously made when faced with the same decision problem again, even though the choice was optimal. Also known as "once bitten, twice shy" or "hot stove effect".
69	Normalcy bias	Cognitive dissonance	The refusal to plan for, or react to, a disaster which has never happened before.
70	Observer-expectancy effect	Confirmation bias	When a researcher expects a given result and therefore unconsciously manipulates an experiment or misinterprets data in order to find it (see also subject-expectancy effect).
71	Omission bias	NA	The tendency to judge harmful actions (commissions) as worse, or less moral, than equally harmful inactions (omissions).
72	Optimism bias	NA	The tendency to be over-optimistic, underestimating greatly the probability of undesirable outcomes and overestimating favorable and pleasing outcomes (see also wishful thinking, valence effect, positive outcome bias).
73	Ostrich effect	NA	Ignoring an obvious (negative) situation.
74	Outcome bias	NA	The tendency to judge a decision by its eventual outcome instead of based on the quality of the decision at the time it was made.
75	Overconfidence effect	Egocentric bias	Excessive confidence in one's own answers to questions. For example, for certain types of questions, answers that people rate as "99% certain" turn out to be wrong 40% of the time.

76	Pareidolia	Apophenia	A vague and random stimulus (often an image or sound) is perceived as significant, e.g., seeing images of animals or faces in clouds, the man in the moon, and hearing non-existent hidden messages on records played in reverse.
77	Pessimism bias	NA	The tendency for some people, especially those suffering from depression, to overestimate the likelihood of negative things happening to them.
78	Plan continuation bias	Logical fallacy	Failure to recognize that the original plan of action is no longer appropriate for a changing situation or for a situation that is different than anticipated.
79	Planning fallacy	Egocentric bias	The tendency to underestimate one's own task-completion times.
80	Present bias	NA	The tendency of people to give stronger weight to payoffs that are closer to the present time when considering trade-offs between two future moments.
81	Plant blindness	NA	The tendency to ignore plants in their environment and a failure to recognize and appreciate the utility of plants to life on earth.
82	Probability matching	NA	Sub-optimal matching of the probability of choices with the probability of reward in a stochastic context.
83	Pro-innovation bias	NA	The tendency to have an excessive optimism towards an invention or innovation's usefulness throughout society, while often failing to identify its limitations and weaknesses.
84	Projection bias	NA	The tendency to overestimate how much our future selves share one's current preferences, thoughts and values, thus leading to sub-optimal choices.
85	Proportionality Bias	NA	Our innate tendency to assume that big events have big causes, may also explain our tendency to accept conspiracy theories.

86	Pseudocertainty effect	Prospect theory	The tendency to make risk-averse choices if the expected outcome is positive, but make risk-seeking choices to avoid negative outcomes.
87	Recency illusion	NA	The illusion that a phenomenon one has noticed only recently is itself recent. Often used to refer to linguistic phenomena; the illusion that a word or language usage that one has noticed only recently is an innovation when it is, in fact, long-established (see also frequency illusion).
88	Systematic Bias	NA	Judgement that arises when targets of differentiating judgement become subject to effects of regression that are not equivalent.
89	Restraint bias	Egocentric bias	The tendency to overestimate one's ability to show restraint in the face of temptation.
90	Rhyme as reason effect	Truthiness	Rhyming statements are perceived as more truthful. A famous example being used in the O.J Simpson trial with the defense's use of the phrase "If the gloves don't fit, then you must acquit."
91	Risk compensation / Peltzman effect	NA	The tendency to take greater risks when perceived safety increases.
92	Salience bias	Availability bias	The tendency to focus on items that are more prominent or emotionally striking and ignore those that are unremarkable, even though this difference is often irrelevant by objective standards.
93	Scope neglect or scope insensitivity	Extension neglect	The tendency to be insensitive to the size of a problem when evaluating it. For example, being willing to pay as much to save 2,000 children or 20,000 children
94	Selection bias	Availability bias	The tendency to notice something more when something causes us to be more aware of it, such as when we buy a car, we tend to notice similar cars more often than we did before. They are not suddenly more common â€“ we just are noticing them more. Also called the Observational Selection Bias.

95	Selective perception	Confirmation bias	The tendency for expectations to affect perception.
96	Semmelweis reflex	Confirmation bias	The tendency to reject new evidence that contradicts a paradigm.
97	Status quo bias	Prospect theory	The tendency to like things to stay relatively the same (see also loss aversion, endowment effect, and system justification).
98	Stereotyping	False priors	Expecting a member of a group to have certain characteristics without having actual information about that individual.
99	Subadditivity effect	Logical fallacy	The tendency to judge the probability of the whole to be less than the probabilities of the parts.
100	Subjective validation	Truthiness	Perception that something is true if a subject's belief demands it to be true. Also assigns perceived connections between coincidences.
101	Surrogation	NA	Losing sight of the strategic construct that a measure is intended to represent, and subsequently acting as though the measure is the construct of interest.
102	Survivorship bias	Availability bias	Concentrating on the people or things that "survived" some process and inadvertently overlooking those that didn't because of their lack of visibility.
103	System justification	Prospect theory	The tendency to defend and bolster the status quo. Existing social, economic, and political arrangements tend to be preferred, and alternatives disparaged, sometimes even at the expense of individual and collective self-interest. (See also status quo bias.)
104	Time-saving bias	Logical fallacy	Underestimations of the time that could be saved (or lost) when increasing (or decreasing) from a relatively low speed and overestimations of the time that could be saved (or lost) when increasing (or decreasing) from a relatively high speed.

105	Parkinson's law of triviality	NA	The tendency to give disproportionate weight to trivial issues. Also known as bikeshedding, this bias explains why an organization may avoid specialized or complex subjects, such as the design of a nuclear reactor, and instead focus on something easy to grasp or rewarding to the average participant, such as the design of an adjacent bike shed.
106	Unconscious bias	NA	Also known as implicit biases, are the underlying attitudes and stereotypes that people unconsciously attribute to another person or group of people that affect how they understand and engage with them. Many researchers suggest that unconscious bias occurs automatically as the brain makes quick judgments based on past experiences and background.
107	Unit bias	NA	The standard suggested amount of consumption (e.g., food serving size) is perceived to be appropriate, and a person would consume it all even if it is too much for this particular person.
108	Weberâ€“Fechner law	NA	Difficulty in comparing small differences in large quantities.
109	Well travelled road effect	Availability bias	Underestimation of the duration taken to traverse oft-travelled routes and overestimation of the duration taken to traverse less familiar routes.
110	Women are wonderful effect	NA	A tendency to associate more positive attributes with women than with men.
111	Zero-risk bias	Extension neglect	Preference for reducing a small risk to zero over a greater reduction in a larger risk.
112	Zero-sum bias	Logical fallacy	A bias whereby a situation is incorrectly perceived to be like a zero-sum game (i.e., one person gains at the expense of another).

## Social Biases

	Name	Type	Description
2	Actor-observer bias	Attribution bias	The tendency for explanations of other individuals' behaviors to overemphasize the influence of their personality and underemphasize the influence of their situation (see also Fundamental attribution error), and for explanations of one's own behaviors to do the opposite (that is, to overemphasize the influence of our situation and underemphasize the influence of our own personality).
3	Authority bias	Association fallacy	The tendency to attribute greater accuracy to the opinion of an authority figure (unrelated to its content) and be more influenced by that opinion.
4	Availability cascade	Conformity bias	A self-reinforcing process in which a collective belief gains more and more plausibility through its increasing repetition in public discourse (or "repeat something long enough and it will become true").
5	Bandwagon effect	Conformity bias	The tendency to do (or believe) things because many other people do (or believe) the same. Related to groupthink and herd behavior.
6	Ben Franklin effect	Cognitive dissonance	A person who has performed a favor for someone is more likely to do another favor for that person than they would be if they had received a favor from that person.
7	Bias blind spot	Egocentric bias	The tendency to see oneself as less biased than other people, or to be able to identify more cognitive biases in others than in oneself.
8	Cheerleader effect	Association fallacy	The tendency for people to appear more attractive in a group than in isolation.
9	Courtesy bias	Conformity bias	The tendency to give an opinion that is more socially correct than one's true opinion, so as to avoid offending anyone.

10	Defensive attribution hypothesis	Egocentric bias	Attributing more blame to a harm-doer as the outcome becomes more severe or as personal or situational similarity to the victim increases.
11	Egocentric bias	Egocentric bias	Occurs when people claim more responsibility for themselves for the results of a joint action than an outside observer would credit them with.
12	Extrinsic incentives bias	Attribution bias	An exception to the fundamental attribution error, when people view others as having (situational) extrinsic motivations and (dispositional) intrinsic motivations for oneself
13	False consensus effect	Egocentric bias	The tendency for people to overestimate the degree to which others agree with them.
14	False uniqueness bias	Egocentric bias	The tendency of people to see their projects and themselves as more singular than they actually are.
15	Fundamental attribution error	Attribution bias	The tendency for people to over-emphasize personality-based explanations for behaviors observed in others while under-emphasizing the role and power of situational influences on the same behavior (see also actor-observer bias, group attribution error, positivity effect, and negativity effect).
16	Group attribution error	NA	The biased belief that the characteristics of an individual group member are reflective of the group as a whole or the tendency to assume that group decision outcomes reflect the preferences of group members, even when information is available that clearly suggests otherwise.

17	Groupthink	Conformity bias	The psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people in which the desire for harmony or conformity in the group results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome. Group members try to minimize conflict and reach a consensus decision without critical evaluation of alternative viewpoints by actively suppressing dissenting viewpoints, and by isolating themselves from outside influences.
18	Halo effect	Association fallacy	The tendency for a person's positive or negative traits to "spill over" from one personality area to another in others' perceptions of them (see also physical attractiveness stereotype).
19	Hostile attribution bias	Attribution bias	The "hostile attribution bias" is the tendency to interpret others' behaviors as having hostile intent, even when the behavior is ambiguous or benign.
20	Illusion of asymmetric insight	Egocentric bias	People perceive their knowledge of their peers to surpass their peers' knowledge of them.
21	Illusion of transparency	Egocentric bias	The tendency for people to overestimate the degree to which their personal mental state is known by others, and to overestimate how well they understand others' personal mental states.
22	Illusory superiority	Egocentric bias	Overestimating one's desirable qualities, and underestimating undesirable qualities, relative to other people. (Also known as "Lake Wobegon effect", "better-than-average effect", or "superiority bias".)
23	Ingroup bias	Ingroup bias	The tendency for people to give preferential treatment to others they perceive to be members of their own groups.
24	Intentionality bias	Attribution bias	Tendency to judge human action to be intentional rather than accidental.

25	Just-world hypothesis	Attribution bias	The tendency for people to want to believe that the world is fundamentally just, causing them to rationalize an otherwise inexplicable injustice as deserved by the victim(s).
26	Moral luck	Attribution bias	The tendency for people to ascribe greater or lesser moral standing based on the outcome of an event.
27	Naïve cynicism	Egocentric bias	Expecting more egocentric bias in others than in oneself.
28	Naïve realism	Egocentric bias	The belief that we see reality as it really is objectively and without bias; that the facts are plain for all to see; that rational people will agree with us; and that those who don't are either uninformed, lazy, irrational, or biased.
29	Not invented here	Ingroup bias	Aversion to contact with or use of products, research, standards, or knowledge developed outside a group. Related to IKEA effect.
30	Outgroup homogeneity bias	Ingroup bias	Individuals see members of their own group as being relatively more varied than members of other groups.
31	Puritanical bias	Attribution bias	Refers to the tendency to attribute cause of an undesirable outcome or wrongdoing by an individual to a moral deficiency or lack of self-control rather than taking into account the impact of broader societal determinants .
32	Pygmalion effect	NA	The phenomenon whereby others' expectations of a target person affect the target person's performance.
33	Reactance	NA	The urge to do the opposite of what someone wants you to do out of a need to resist a perceived attempt to constrain your freedom of choice (see also Reverse psychology).
34	Reactive devaluation	NA	Devaluing proposals only because they purportedly originated with an adversary.

35	Self-serving bias	Attribution bias	The tendency to claim more responsibility for successes than failures. It may also manifest itself as a tendency for people to evaluate ambiguous information in a way beneficial to their interests (see also group-serving bias).
36	Sexual overperception bias / Sexual underperception bias	False priors	The tendency to over-/underestimate sexual interest of another person in oneself.
37	Social comparison bias	NA	The tendency, when making decisions, to favour potential candidates who don't compete with one's own particular strengths.
38	Social desirability bias	Conformity bias	The tendency to over-report socially desirable characteristics or behaviours in oneself and under-report socially undesirable characteristics or behaviours. See also: Â§Â Courtesy bias.
39	Shared information bias	NA	Known as the tendency for group members to spend more time and energy discussing information that all members are already familiar with (i.e., shared information), and less time and energy discussing information that only some members are aware of (i.e., unshared information).
40	Trait ascription bias	Egocentric bias	The tendency for people to view themselves as relatively variable in terms of personality, behavior, and mood while viewing others as much more predictable.
41	Third-person effect	Egocentric bias	A hypothesized tendency to believe that mass communicated media messages have a greater effect on others than on themselves. As of 2020, the third-person effect has yet to be reliably demonstrated in a scientific context.
42	Ultimate attribution error	Attribution bias	Similar to the fundamental attribution error, in this error a person is likely to make an internal attribution to an entire group instead of the individuals within the group.
43	Worse-than-average effect	NA	A tendency to believe ourselves to be worse than others at tasks which are difficult.

## Memory biases

	Name	Description
2	Bizarreness effect	Bizarre material is better remembered than common material.
3	Choice-supportive bias	The tendency to remember one's choices as better than they actually were.
4	Conservatism or Regressive bias	Tendency to remember high values and high likelihoods/probabilities/frequencies as lower than they actually were and low ones as higher than they actually were. Based on the evidence, memories are not extreme enough.
5	Consistency bias	Incorrectly remembering one's past attitudes and behaviour as resembling present attitudes and behaviour.
6	Context effect	That cognition and memory are dependent on context, such that out-of-context memories are more difficult to retrieve than in-context memories (e.g., recall time and accuracy for a work-related memory will be lower at home, and vice versa).
7	Cross-race effect	The tendency for people of one race to have difficulty identifying members of a race other than their own.
8	Cryptomnesia	A form of misattribution where a memory is mistaken for imagination, because there is no subjective experience of it being a memory.
9	Egocentric bias	Recalling the past in a self-serving manner, e.g., remembering one's exam grades as being better than they were, or remembering a caught fish as bigger than it really was.
10	Fading affect bias	A bias in which the emotion associated with unpleasant memories fades more quickly than the emotion associated with positive events.
11	False memory	A form of misattribution where imagination is mistaken for a memory.
12	Generation effect (Self-generation effect)	That self-generated information is remembered best. For instance, people are better able to recall memories of statements that they have generated than similar statements generated by others.
13	Google effect	The tendency to forget information that can be found readily online by using Internet search engines.
14	Humor effect	That humorous items are more easily remembered than non-humorous ones, which might be explained by the distinctiveness of humor, the increased cognitive processing time to understand the humor, or the emotional arousal caused by the humor.

15	Lag effect	The phenomenon whereby learning is greater when studying is spread out over time, as opposed to studying the same amount of time in a single session. See also spacing effect.
16	Leveling and sharpening	Memory distortions introduced by the loss of details in a recollection over time, often concurrent with sharpening or selective recollection of certain details that take on exaggerated significance in relation to the details or aspects of the experience lost through leveling. Both biases may be reinforced over time, and by repeated recollection or re-telling of a memory.
17	Levels-of-processing effect	That different methods of encoding information into memory have different levels of effectiveness.
18	List-length effect	A smaller percentage of items are remembered in a longer list, but as the length of the list increases, the absolute number of items remembered increases as well. For example, consider a list of 30 items ("L30") and a list of 100 items ("L100"). An individual may remember 15 items from L30, or 50%, whereas the individual may remember 40 items from L100, or 40%. Although the percent of L30 items remembered (50%) is greater than the percent of L100 (40%), more L100 items (40) are remembered than L30 items (15).
19	Misinformation effect	Memory becoming less accurate because of interference from post-event information.
20	Modality effect	That memory recall is higher for the last items of a list when the list items were received via speech than when they were received through writing.
21	Mood-congruent memory bias	The improved recall of information congruent with one's current mood.
22	Negativity bias or Negativity effect	Psychological phenomenon by which humans have a greater recall of unpleasant memories compared with positive memories. (see also actor-observer bias, group attribution error, positivity effect, and negativity effect).
23	Next-in-line effect	When taking turns speaking in a group using a predetermined order (e.g. going clockwise around a room, taking numbers, etc.) people tend to have diminished recall for the words of the person who spoke immediately before them.
24	Part-list cueing effect	That being shown some items from a list and later retrieving one item causes it to become harder to retrieve the other items.
25	Peak-end rule	That people seem to perceive not the sum of an experience but the average of how it was at its peak (e.g., pleasant or unpleasant) and how it ended.

26	Picture superiority effect	The notion that concepts that are learned by viewing pictures are more easily and frequently recalled than are concepts that are learned by viewing their written word form counterparts.
27	Positivity effect (Socioemotional selectivity theory)	That older adults favor positive over negative information in their memories.
28	Serial position effect	That items near the end of a sequence are the easiest to recall, followed by the items at the beginning of a sequence; items in the middle are the least likely to be remembered.
29	Processing difficulty effect	That information that takes longer to read and is thought about more (processed with more difficulty) is more easily remembered.
30	Reminiscence bump	The recalling of more personal events from adolescence and early adulthood than personal events from other lifetime periods.
31	Self-relevance effect	That memories relating to the self are better recalled than similar information relating to others.
32	Source confusion	Confusing episodic memories with other information, creating distorted memories.
33	Spacing effect	That information is better recalled if exposure to it is repeated over a long span of time rather than a short one.
34	Spotlight effect	The tendency to overestimate the amount that other people notice your appearance or behavior.
35	Stereotypical bias	Memory distorted towards stereotypes (e.g., racial or gender).
36	Suffix effect	Diminishment of the recency effect because a sound item is appended to the list that the subject is not required to recall.
37	Suggestibility	A form of misattribution where ideas suggested by a questioner are mistaken for memory.
38	Tachypsychia	When time perceived by the individual either lengthens, making events appear to slow down, or contracts.
39	Telescoping effect	The tendency to displace recent events backwards in time and remote events forward in time, so that recent events appear more remote, and remote events, more recent.
40	Testing effect	The fact that you more easily remember information you have read by rewriting it instead of rereading it.
41	Tip of the tongue phenomenon	When a subject is able to recall parts of an item, or related information, but is frustratingly unable to recall the whole item. This is thought to be an instance of "blocking" where multiple similar memories are being recalled and interfere with each other.

42	Travis Syndrome	Overestimating the significance of the present. It is related to chronological snobbery with possibly an appeal to novelty logical fallacy being part of the bias.
43	Verbatim effect	That the "gist" of what someone has said is better remembered than the verbatim wording. This is because memories are representations, not exact copies.
44	von Restorff effect	That an item that sticks out is more likely to be remembered than other items.
45	Zeigarnik effect	That uncompleted or interrupted tasks are remembered better than completed ones.

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## **Web Resources**

- Wikipedia (“List of cognitive biases,” 2020)

## **References**

List of cognitive biases. (2020). *Wikipedia*.