# Personality Development

Course Material

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) determined that, like behaviour and natural intelligences, what motivates you is unique to you and is a combination of your natural motivations and your current lot-in-life.

He developed the Hierarchy of Needs Motivational Model back in the 1940's – yes it's old, but still valid in today's society.

Maslow's model was based on 5 needs:

- Biological and Physiological needs – basic survival needs of food, water, shelter, warmth, sleep, health and air.
- Safety needs – security, order, law, limits, stability, protection from elements, etc.
- Social needs – love, family, affection, relationships, friends, work group, etc.
- Esteem needs – achievement, independence, status, prestige, responsibility, etc.
- Self-Actualization needs – personal growth, self-fulfilment, realising personal potential, seeking knowledge and meaning, etc.
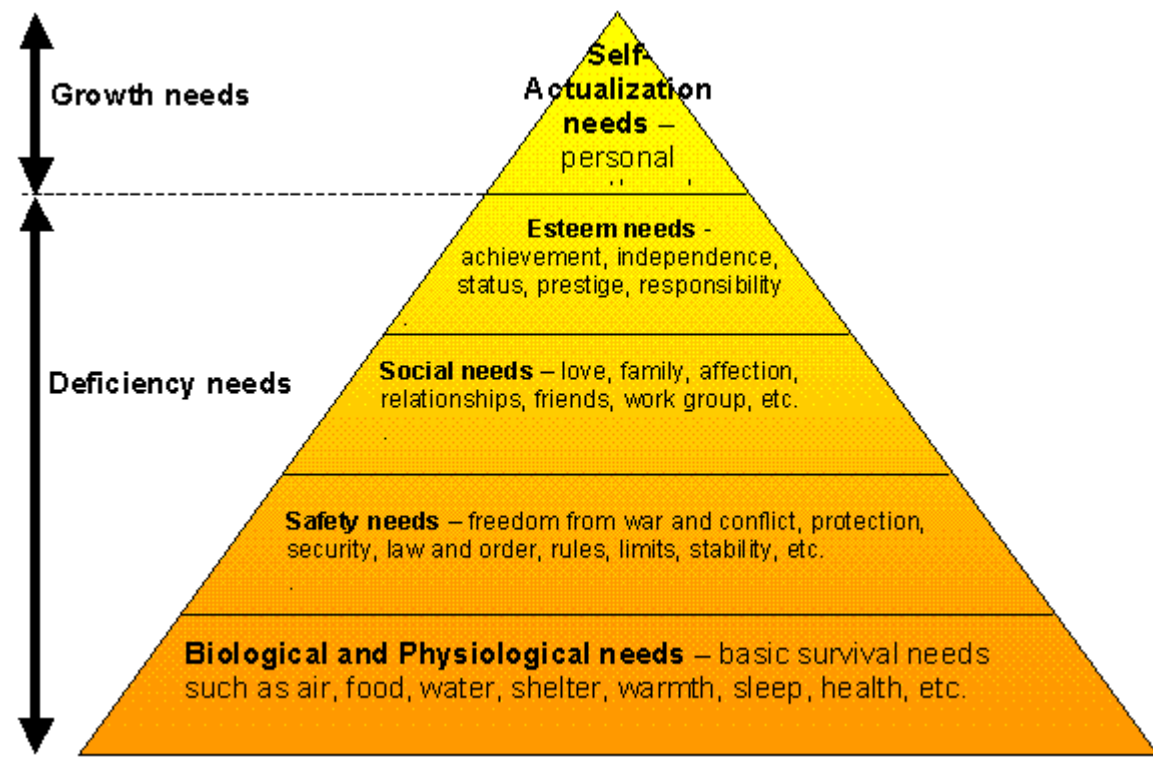
Maslow Motivational Needs Model for Goal Setting:

Think about you and your life as it is at the moment. I'm sure you'll relate to the 5 motivational needs developed by Maslow and obviously you'll have a need to maintain the 'lower' level needs, even if you are mostly at Level 4 or 5.

Ignoring the need to maintain these lower level needs, which level do you think you are mostly focused on? Are there any specific needs you have in any of the other levels? What concerns/ deficiencies do you think you have in these levels?

Maslow's hierarchy implies that the lower-end needs must be mostly satisfied before the higher needs influence your motivation. In other words, if you are struggling to put food on the table, you probably won't really be interested in learning a new language or musical instrument for self-fulfilment. Of course it's not as simple as that.

Like all of the other models we've looked at, you will have a dominant Maslow level but still have motivational needs at the other levels. For example, if you are in Level 4 or 5, you still need to eat (biological need) and will still be seeking friendship (social need) and things like house insurance (a safety need).

In other words, all levels of Maslow's motivational needs have to be maintained for the right life balance. Maslow's model does however help you target areas for your goal setting, by identifying potential 'road-blocks' in the lower levels that are preventing you from achieving higher level needs.

The process of goal setting is typically motivated by Level 4/5 needs, although you may also be utilising the process to address some aspects of the lower needs, such as quitting smoking (which is essentially a health need driven by biological motivators).

Another maestro in the field, David McClelland, proposed 3 different natural motivators that are determined by your personality:

- Achievement motivated - Achievement motivated people love the thrill of reaching challenging goals. They need a sense of accomplishment and need feedback on their progress towards their goals. 'Peacocks' are typically motivated by achievement, and so can 'Owls'.

- Authority motivated - Authority motivated people love being in control, influential leading and personal status/ prestige. They need to feed their egos on their progress towards their goals. 'Eagles' are typically motivated by authority.

- Affiliation motivated - Affiliation motivated people love interaction with other people and need to be liked/ popular. They achieve their goals in a team environment. 'Doves' are typically motivated by affiliation, and so can 'Peacocks'.

- …or a combination of these.

Of these motivators, the 'achievement' motivated person is probably the most balanced and most likely to get results from goal setting – the authority motivated person often puts ego first and the affiliation motivated person often puts personal popularity or other people's needs first – in both cases, they can lose sight of the big picture.

What motivates you – achievement, authority or affiliation?

Understanding Leadership and its significance

Functions and skills of a Leader

Planning

> Planning entails the setting of goals and includes the creation of a blueprint to achieve them. It is essential that managers create objectives, which serve to focus the efforts of employees, motivate them and provide a standard against which performance can be measured. Plans also serve as a guide to action and assist managers in resource allocation. For example, if growth is an objective, a budget may include funds for expansion of facilities.

Organizing

> Another important managerial function is organizing, which can be defined as the allocation of resources to achieve goals. It is clear that this function relates to the planning function, as goals must be set before organizational resources can be deployed to assist in the achievement of them. An important component of organizing is the defining of the chain of command and the utilization of human resources.

Leading

> Without the ability to influence subordinates toward goal achievement, a manger cannot be effective. No matter how well-crafted the objectives or how well-organized the resources, nothing can be achieved if employees are unwilling or unable to work toward the objectives. Managers who lack the ability to influence subordinates are often ineffective and find it difficult to motivate their workers to increase productivity.

Controlling

> Control can be defined as a methodical process through which managers monitor employees and their activities to ensure that they are in alignment with the company's objectives. Control is an extremely important management function, as without it organizational activities would go unchecked, leading to inefficiencies and unfulfilled targets. The control exercise allows managers to take corrective action and contains an element of feedback so that there can be continuous improvement.

Leadership Styles

Leadership is critical to a company's profitability. The methods and manner that a manager uses to spur workers toward the achievement of the company's objectives is termed leadership style. There are four main leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and paternalistic and laissez faire. A manager may have a prevailing style or may change his style depending on the situation. This is known as situational leadership.

Autocratic vs. Democratic Leadership

Autocratic leaders control the decision-making entirely and express no interest in the suggestions of employees. This leadership style is useful in situations that demand speedy decision-making and when information is confidential, but it may demoralize employees and result in less creative decision-making. Democratic leaders seek the input of employees in decision-making. This style motivates employees, but it may be time-consuming because of the ongoing consultations.

Paternalistic Leadership

A paternalistic leader, as the name suggests, adopts a father-like approach. This style is a hybrid of the democratic and autocratic styles. Paternalistic leaders may allow employee input, but they ultimately make the final decision based on what they think is best. The solicitation of feedback can improve morale, but this may be only temporary if employees realize that none of their suggestions are being implemented.

Laissez Faire Leadership

Laissez faire means allowing persons to do as they please. Managers that adopt this style give their employees significant freedom and autonomy. A leader with this style provides very little guidance to his subordinates. Laissez faire leadership is effective when employees are highly skilled or are experts in their field and require little supervision. However, researchers Lewin, Lippit and White found that this style ultimately resulted in lowered productivity, less cohesion and reduced job satisfaction.

TEAM ROLES

Belbin identified nine team roles and he categorized those roles into three groups: Action Oriented, People Oriented, and Thought Oriented. Each team role is associated with typical behavioural and interpersonal strengths.

Belbin also defined characteristic weaknesses that tend to accompany each team role. He called the characteristic weaknesses of team roles the "allowable" weaknesses; as for any behavioural weakness, these are areas to be aware of and potentially improve.

The nine team roles are:

Action Oriented Roles

Shaper (SH)

Shapers are people who challenge the team to improve. They are dynamic and usually extroverted people who enjoy stimulating others, questioning norms, and finding the best approaches for solving problems. The Shaper is the one who shakes things up to make sure that all possibilities are considered and that the team does not become complacent.

Shapers often see obstacles as exciting challenges and they tend to have the courage to push on when others feel like quitting.

Their potential weaknesses may be that they're argumentative, and that they may offend people's feelings.

Implementer (IMP)

Implementers are the people who get things done. They turn the team's ideas and concepts into practical actions and plans. They are typically conservative, disciplined people who work systematically and efficiently and are very well organized. These are the people who you can count on to get the job done.

On the downside, Implementers may be inflexible and can be somewhat resistant to change.

Completer-Finisher (CF)

Completer-Finishers are the people who see that projects are completed thoroughly. They ensure there have been no errors or omissions and they pay attention to the smallest of details. They are very concerned with deadlines and will push the team to make sure the job is completed on time. They are described as perfectionists who are orderly, conscientious and anxious.

However, a Completer-Finisher may worry unnecessarily, and may find it hard to delegate.

People Oriented Roles

Coordinator (CO)

Coordinators are the ones who take on the traditional team-leader role and have also been referred to as the chairmen. They guide the team to what they perceive are the objectives. They are often excellent listeners and they are naturally able to recognize the value that each team member brings to the table. They are calm and good-natured, and delegate tasks very effectively.

Their potential weaknesses are that they may delegate away too much personal responsibility, and may tend to be manipulative.

Team Worker (TW)

Team Workers are the people who provide support and make sure that people within the team are working together effectively. These people fill the role of negotiators within the team and they are flexible, diplomatic and perceptive. These tend to be popular people who are very capable in their own right, but who prioritize team cohesion and helping people get along.

Their weaknesses may be a tendency to be indecisive, and to maintain uncommitted positions during discussions and decision-making.

Resource Investigator (RI)

Resource Investigators are innovative and curious. They explore available options, develop contacts, and negotiate for resources on behalf of the team. They are enthusiastic team

members, who identify and work with external stakeholders to help the team accomplish its objective. They are outgoing and are often extroverted, meaning that others are often receptive to them and their ideas.

On the downside, they may lose enthusiasm quickly, and are often overly optimistic.

Thought Oriented Roles

Plant (PL)

The Plant is the creative innovator who comes up with new ideas and approaches. They thrive on praise but criticism is especially hard for them to deal with. Plants are often introverted and prefer to work apart from the team. Because their ideas are so novel, they can be impractical at times. They may also be poor communicators and can tend to ignore given parameters and constraints.

Monitor-Evaluator (ME)

Monitor-Evaluators are best at analysing and evaluating ideas that other people (often Plants) come up with. These people are shrewd and objective, and they carefully weigh the pros and cons of all the options before coming to a decision.

Monitor-Evaluators are critical thinkers and very strategic in their approach. They are often perceived as detached or unemotional. Sometimes they are poor motivators who react to events rather than instigating them

Specialist (SP)

Specialists are people who have specialized knowledge that is needed to get the job done. They pride themselves on their skills and abilities, and they work to maintain their professional status. Their job within the team is to be an expert in the area, and they commit themselves fully to their field of expertise.

This may limit their contribution, and lead to a preoccupation with technicalities at the expense of the bigger picture.

Figure: Belbin's Team Roles

Action Oriented Roles	Shaper	Challenges the team to improve.
	Implementer	Puts ideas into action.
	Completer Finisher	Ensures thorough, timely completion.
People Oriented Roles	Coordinator	Acts as a chairperson.

	Team Worker	Encourages cooperation.
	Resource Investigator	Explores outside opportunities.
Thought Oriented Roles	Plant	Presents new ideas and approaches.
	Monitor-Evaluator	Analyses the options.
	Specialist	Provides specialized skills.

De Bono's Six Thinking Hats

Used with well-defined and explicit Return On Investment success in corporations worldwide, Six Thinking Hats is a simple, effective parallel thinking process that helps people be more productive, focused, and mindfully involved. A powerful tool set, which once learned can be applied immediately!

You and your team members can learn how to separate thinking into six clear functions and roles. Each thinking role is identified with a coloured symbolic "thinking hat." By mentally wearing and switching "hats," you can easily focus or redirect thoughts, the conversation, or the meeting.

	The White Hat calls for information known or needed. "The facts, just the facts."
	The Yellow Hat symbolizes brightness and optimism. Under this hat you explore the positives and probe for value and benefit.
	The Black Hat is judgment - the devil's advocate or why something may not work. Spot the difficulties and dangers; where things might go wrong. Probably the most powerful and useful of the Hats but a problem if overused.
	The Red Hat signifies feelings, hunches and intuition. When using this hat you can express emotions and feelings and share fears, likes, dislikes, loves, and hates.

|	The Green Hat focuses on creativity; the possibilities, alternatives, and new ideas. It's an opportunity to express new concepts and new perceptions.
	The Blue Hat is used to manage the thinking process. It's the control mechanism that ensures the Six Thinking Hats® guidelines are observed.

Using Six Thinking Hats®, you and your team will learn how to use a disciplined process which will...

- **Maximize** productive collaboration and minimize counterproductive interaction/behavior
- **Consider** issues, problems, decisions, and opportunities systematically
- **Use** Parallel Thinking as a group or team to generate more, better ideas and solutions
- **Make** meetings much shorter and more productive
- **Reduce** conflict among team members or meeting participants
- **Stimulate** innovation by generating more and better ideas quickly
- **Create** dynamic, results oriented meetings that make people want to participate
- **Go** beyond the obvious to discover effective alternate solutions
- **Spot** opportunities where others see only problems
- **Think** clearly and objectively
- **View** problems from new and unusual angles
- **Make** thorough evaluations
- **See** all sides of a situation
- **Keep** egos and "turf protection" in check
- **Achieve** significant and meaningful results in a less time

Significant Applications for the Parallel Thinking Process of Six Thinking Hats

- Leadership Development
- Team Productivity, Alignment and Communication
- Creative and innovative thinking
- Meeting leadership and decision making
- Product and Process Improvement, and Project Management
- Critical, Analytical Thinking and Problem-Solving
- Organizational Change/Performance
- Wherever High Performance Thinking and Action is needed

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory
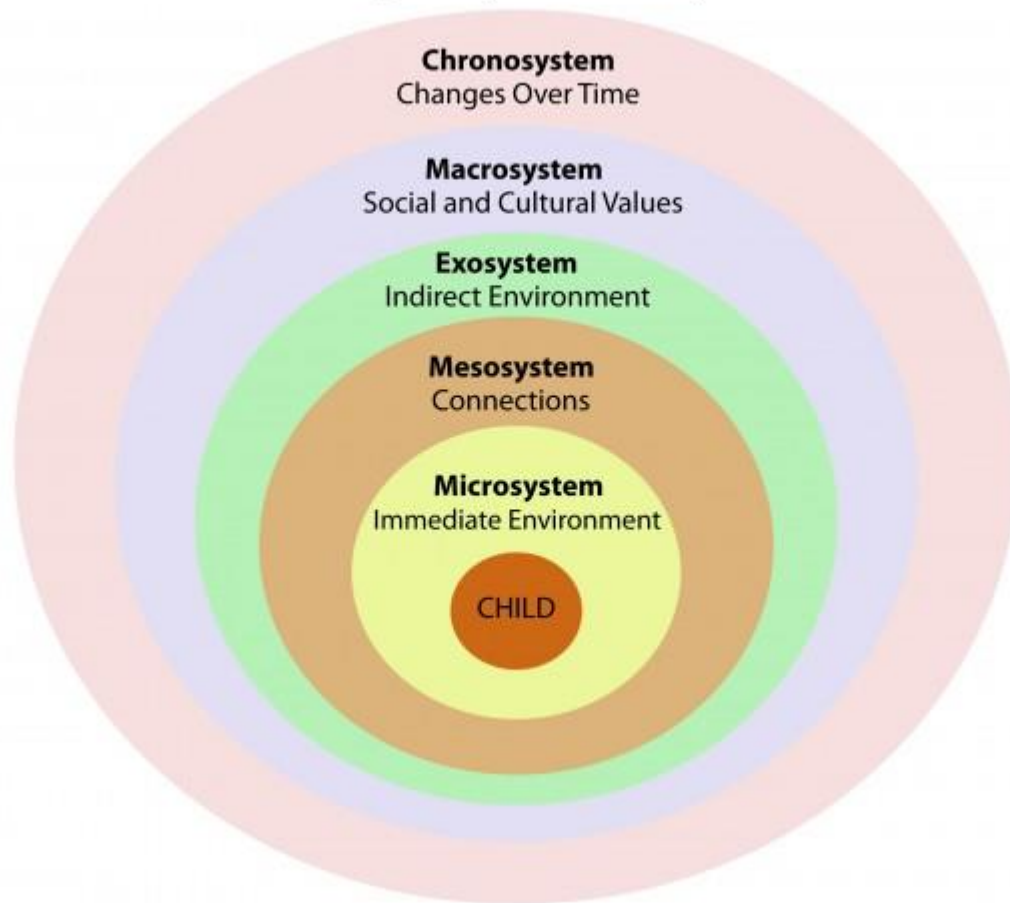
American psychologist, Urie Bronfenbrenner, formulated the Ecological Systems Theory to explain how the inherent qualities of a child and the characteristics of the external environment which the child finds himself in interact to influence how the child will grow and develop. Through his theory, Bronfenbrenner stressed the importance of studying a child in the context of his multiple environments, also known as ecological systems in the attempt to understand his individual development.

A child finds himself simultaneously enmeshed in different ecosystems, from the most intimate home ecological system moving outward to the larger school system and the most expansive system which is society and culture. Each of these systems inevitably interact with and influence each other and every aspect of the child's life.

The Ecological Systems Approach organizes contexts of development into five levels of external influence which interlock. The levels are categorized from the most intimate level to the broadest, with the most intimate being the microsystem. The microsystem is the smallest

and most immediate environment in which the child lives. As such, the microsystem comprises the daily home, school or daycare, peer group or community environment of the child. Interactions within the microsystem typically involve personal relationships with family members, classmates, teachers and caregivers, in which influences go back and forth. How these groups or individuals interact with the child will affect how the child grows. Similarly, how the child reacts to people in his microsystem will also influence how they treat the child in return. More nurturing and more supportive interactions and relationships will understandably foster the child's improved development.

Given two siblings experiencing the same microsystem, however, it is not impossible for the development of the two siblings to progress in different manners. Each child's particular personality traits, such as temperament, which is influenced by unique genetic and biological factors, ultimately have a hand in how he is treated by others. One of the most significant findings that Bronfenbrenner unearthed in his study of ecological systems is that it is possible for siblings who find themselves within the same ecological system to still experience very different environments.

The **mesosystem** encompasses the interaction of the different **microsystems** which the developing child finds himself in. It is, in essence, a system of microsystems and as such, involves linkages between home and school, between peer group and family, or between family and church. If a child's parents are actively involved in the friendships of their child, invite friends over to their house and spend time with them, then the child's development is affected positively through harmony and like-mindedness. However, if the child's parents dislike their child's peers and openly criticize them, then the child experiences disequilibrium and conflicting emotions, probably affecting his development negatively.

The **exosystem**, on the other hand, pertains to the linkages that may exist between two or more settings, one of which may not contain the developing child but affects him indirectly nonetheless. Other people and places which the child may not directly interact with but may still have an effect on the child, comprise the exosystem. Such places and people may include the parents' workplaces, the larger neighborhood, and extended family members. For example, a father who is continually passed up for promotion by an indifferent boss at the workplace may take it out on his children and mistreat them at home.

The **macrosystem** is the largest and most distant collection of people and places to the child that still exercises significant influence on the child. It is composed of the child's cultural patterns and values, specifically the child's dominant beliefs and ideas, as well as political and economic systems. Children in war-torn areas, for example, will experience a different kind of development than children in communities where peace reigns.

The **chronosystem** adds the useful dimension of time, which demonstrates the influence of both change and constancy in the child's environment. The chronosystem may thus include a change in family structure, address, parent's employment status, in addition to immense society changes such as economic cycles and wars.

By studying the different systems that simultaneously influence a child, the ecological systems theory is able to demonstrate the diversity of interrelated influences on the child's development. Awareness of contexts can sensitize us to variations in the way a child may act in different settings. For example, a child who frequently bullies smaller children at school may portray the role of a terrified victim at home. Due to these variations, adults concerned with the care of a particular child should pay close attention to behavior in different settings or contexts and to the quality and type of connections that exist between these contexts.

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Erving Goffman and The Presentation of the Self in Everyday Life

The best way to understand human action is by seeing people as actors on a 'social stage' who actively create an impression of themselves for the benefit of an audience (and, ultimately themselves).

When we act in the social world, we put on a 'front' in order to project a certain image of ourselves (call this part of our 'social identity' if you like) – we create a front by manipulating the setting in which we perform (e.g. our living room), our appearance (e.g. our clothes) and our manner (our emotional demeanour).

In the social world we are called upon to put on various fronts depending on the social stage on which we find ourselves and the teams of actors with whom we are performing – the work-place or the school are typical examples of social stages which require us to put on a front. On these social stages we take on roles, in relation to other team-members and

carefully manage the impressions we give-off in order to 'fit in' to society and/ or achieve our own personal goals

Impression management involves projecting an 'idealised image' of ourselves, which involves concealing a number of aspects of a performance – such as the effort which goes into putting on a front, and typically hiding any personal profit we will gain from a performance/ interaction.

Unfortunately because audiences are constantly on the look-out for the signs we give off (so that they can know who we are) *'performers can stop giving expressions, but they cannot stop giving them off'*. This means that we must be constantly on our guard to practice 'expressive control' when on the social stage. There are plenty of things that can go wrong with our performance which might betray the fact that we are not really the person who our act suggests that we are – we might lose bodily control (slouch), or make mistakes with our clothing (a scruffy appearance) for example.
Acting out social roles is quite demanding and so in addition to the front-stage aspect of our lives, we also have back-stage areas where we can drop our front and be more relaxed, closer to our 'true-selves', and where we can prepare for our acting in the world.

We generally tend to think of performances as being of one or two types – the sincere and the contrived. Some people sincerely believe in the parts they are playing, they invest their true selves in the impression they give off, this is the typical case. However, other people act out their roles more cynically – they do not believe the parts they are playing are a reflection of their 'true selves' but instead only play their part in order to achieve another end.

However, most performances on the social stage fall somewhere between these two realities. What is required in social life is that the individual learn enough about role-playing to fulfil the basic social roles that are required of him during his life – most of us 'buy into this' and act out what is expected of us, so we invest an element of ourselves into our roles, but at the same time we don't necessarily get into our roles in a gung-ho sort of way…. So most acting is neither fully 'sincere' or fully 'contrived' and most people oscillate between sincerity and cynicism throughout the day and throughout the role they are playing.

Some of the roles we play contradict each other – and so we need to keep audiences separate – some performances are only meant for certain audience members – For example a student might act studiously while at school but more care-free while amongst his friends outside of school.

Thankfully most audience members are tactful and voluntarily stay away from back-stage areas where we prepare for our social roles, and if we ever 'fall out of character' they tend to engage in 'tactful inattention' in order to save the situation.

The significance of Goffman's work

From a research methods point of view the significance of Goffman lies in the fact that f we really want to understand people, we would need to engage in participant-observation in order to get back-stage with them, because we only get to see peoples true feelings when they stop performing.

If a researcher merely gave people a questionnaire to fill out, or even if they did an in-depth interview with them – they could be perceived by the respondent as a member of an audience – and the results we get could just be a performance put on for the benefit of the researcher.

Ultimately from this Interactionist/ dramaturgical perspective human interaction is so intricately complex that the correct way to study human action is to look at either individuals or small groups and focus on the efforts they make to maintain their identities in public, and how these social identities differ from their more relaxed selves when they are back-stage.

Dramaturgy is a sociological concept developed by Erving Goffman that uses the metaphor of theater to explain human behaviour.

KEY POINTS

- All identities and behaviors are dependent upon the audience to whom one performs.
- Everyone seeks to control others' impressions of themselves. This is called impression management.
- Dramaturgy emphasizes the dual evaluative work that is undertaken by both the performer and the audience, thus demonstrating the inseparable link between performer and audience, individual and society.
- Front stage behaviors are those that are visible to the audience, while back stage behaviors are those to which the audience does not have access.

TERMS

- Impression Management
  In sociology and social psychology, impression management is a goal-directed conscious or unconscious process in which people attempt to influence the perceptions of other people about a person, object or event; they do so by regulating and controlling information in social interaction.

- Back Stage
  Actions that only occur when the audience is not around.

- Front Stage

Actions that are visible to the audience and are part of the performance.

Dramaturgy is a sociological perspective that is a component of symbolic interactionism and is used in sociological analysis of everyday life. Developed by American sociologist Erving Goffman in his seminal 1959 text *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*, dramaturgy uses the metaphor of theatre to explain human behaviour. According to this perspective, individuals perform actions in everyday life as if they were performers on a stage. Identity is performed through roles. Here, the term "role" works in two ways, referencing both the name for a theatrical character and the ways in which individuals fill roles in reality by acting as a mother, friend, husband, etc. Dramaturgy argues that the presentation of oneself through role is a way of engaging with society.

Impression Management

Goffman contends that each performance is a presentation of self and that everyone seeks to create specific impressions in the minds of others. This universal drive is called impression management. Individuals manage others' impressions of them by successfully portraying themselves "onstage," or in public. People present themselves to others based on cultural values, norms, and expectations. Most of the time, people seek to meet society's expectations, but the dramaturgical frame applies even in cases of rebellion. If an individual wishes to convey that she does not agree or identify withsocial norms, she must use a commonly legible system of symbols in order to communicate that information. As such, she is still engaging in impression management by trying to present herself in a particular way to society. From a dramaturgical perspective, a performance of identity is successful when the audience sees the performer as he or she wishes to be viewed.

The Two-Way Street

The innovative strength of the dramaturgical perspective is its recognition of the "two-way street" nature of identity management. An individual invests energy in portraying a particular identity to other people. Dramaturgy binds both presentation and reception, demonstrating that one's identity is fundamentally intertwined with society outside of oneself. The performer

is always aware that the audience is doing evaluative work on its own and might doubt the authenticity of the performance.

The interrelatedness of the individual's sense of identity and society is evidenced by the actor's acute awareness of the audience. Goffman explains this awareness in terms of front stage and back stage behaviours. Front stage actions are those that are visible to the audience and are part of the performance, while back stage actions only occur when the audience is not around.