

CHAPTER 2

PERSONALITY AND ATTITUDES

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- To study the concept of personality as a reflection of individualistic characteristics.
- To differentiate between type A and type B personalities.
- To learn the nature of factors contributing towards development of personality.
- To understand various determinants of personality.
- To differentiate between introvert and extrovert personality.
- To know the psychoanalytical theory of personality.
- To study personality as a reflection of inborn traits.
- To study personality as explained by self-concept theory and social learnings theory.
- To understand the concept of attitudes
- To understand different types of attitudes
- To comprehend the meaning and importance of job satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

Personality is a concept that we use continuously in our day-to-day routine when dealing with people. We talk about people as having a good personality or a bad personality or arrogant and aggressive personality. Sometimes we refer to disagreements among people as being due to personality conflicts. Personality can be reflected in a person's temperament and is a key factor influencing individual behaviour in organizations. Often the wrong type of personality of a superior proves disastrous in terms of worker unrest and protests. Sometimes the personality difficulties are the root cause of labour strikes. No matter how good the superior is in technical knowledge or other behavioural characteristics, it is the "temperament" of the superior that is crucial in cordial interaction with subordinates.

Personality has been defined by Salvatore Maddi as follows:

"Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities

and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feeling and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment."

There are several aspects of this definition that need to be considered. The first aspect is that of relative stability of characteristics. These characteristics account for "consistent patterns" of behaviour. If a person's entire personality could change suddenly, then we would not be able to predict his personality traits. For example, if a person is sometimes warm and friendly and at other times he is cold and hostile, then we cannot conclude that his personality is warm and friendly. Accordingly, when assessing a person's personality, we need to look for characteristics that are relatively stable or that change only very slowly over a long period of time.

The second aspect is the "commonalties and differences" in the behaviour of people. We are interested in understanding as to what an individual has in common with others as well as what sets that individual apart from others. Every person is in certain aspects,

- like all other people
- like some other people
- like no other person

Organizationally, a manager must understand that all subordinates are not alike and that each subordinate is unique and may or may not respond to the same stimuli, such as pay raise or reprimands.

Finally, we are interested in such aspects of personality that induce people to behave in a manner as required by social pressures or biological pressures. For example, if your boss wants you to do a job in a certain way, you will do it even if you disagree with your boss. That is a kind of social pressure. Similarly, you will stop working and go for lunch because you are hungry. That is a biological pressure. Hence, these behaviours do not require any explanation in terms of personality factors because the causes of such behaviour are clearly understood.

TYPES OF PERSONALITIES

These are as many personalities as there are persons. Personalities differ in traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Though behavioural researchers have attempted to identify the personality traits, the 16 traits reported by Cattel are generally accepted. These are listed in the following table.

Sixteen Primary Traits of Personality		
1. Reserved	vs	Outgoing
2. Less intelligent	vs	More intelligent
3. Affected by feeling	vs	Emotionally stable
4. Submissive	vs	Dominant
5. Serious	vs	Happy-Go-Lucky
6. Expedient	vs	Conscientious
7. Timid	vs	Venturesome
8. Tough-minded	vs	Sensitive

9. Trusting	vs	Suspicious
10. Practical	vs	Imaginative
11. Forthright	vs	Shrewed
12. Self-assured	vs	Apprehensive
13. Conservative	vs	Experimenting
14. Group-dependent	vs	Self-sufficient
15. Uncontrolled	vs	Controlled
16. Relaxed	vs	Tense

Groups of above traits serve as the basis for classifying personalities into types. Based on these groups, following are the main types of personalities:

1. Introvert and extrovert personalities
2. Type A and type B personalities
3. Judging and perceptive personalities

Introvert and Extrovert Personalities

Introvert is one of the two basic orientations of people. Persons with introvert orientation are primarily oriented to the subjective world. Such people look inward and experience and process their thought and ideas with themselves. They also avoid social contact and interaction with others. They are withdrawn, quiet and enjoy solitude. People with introvert personality are more inclined to excel at tasks that require thought and analytical skill.

On the other hand, extroverts are just contrary to introverts. They are friendly, sociable, lively, gregarious, aggressive and express their feelings and ideas openly. Accordingly, they are more suitable and successful for the positions that require considerable interaction with others. Sales activities, publicity departments, personal relations unit, etc., are examples of activities suitable for extroverts. The following table shows how introverts differ from extroverts.

<i>Introverts</i>	<i>Extroverts</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Like to be quiet for concentration 2. Tend to be careful with details, dislike sweeping statements 3. Have trouble remembering names and faces 4. Like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting 5. Work contentedly alone 6. Have some problems communicating 7. Tend not to mind working on one 8. Dislike telephone intrusions and interruptions 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Like variety and action 2. Tend to work faster, dislike complicated procedure 3. Are often good at greeting people 4. Often act quickly, sometimes without thinking 5. Like to have people around 6. Usually communicate freely 7. Are often impatient with long, slow jobs 8. Often do not mind interruptions of answering the telephone.

Type A and Type B Personality

One dimension of personality that is getting attention both from organizational as well as medical researchers is the Type A and Type B behaviour profiles. A person exhibiting Type A behaviour is generally restless, impatient with a desire for quick achievement and perfectionism. Type B is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressure, less competitive and more philosophical in nature. Some of the characteristics of Type A personality are given below.

- Is restless, so that he always moves, walks and eats rapidly.
- Is impatient with the pace of things, dislikes waiting and is impatient with those who are not impatient.
- Does several things at once.
- Tries to schedule more and more in less and less time, irrespective of whether everything is done or not.
- Usually does not complete one thing before starting on another.
- Uses nervous gestures such as clenched fists and banging on tables.
- Does not have time to relax and enjoy life.

Type B behaviour is just the opposite and is more relaxed, sociable and has a balanced outlook on life.

Type A behaviour profile tends to be obsessive and, managers with such behaviour are hard-driving, detailed oriented people with high performance standards. Such managers have difficulties in creating cordial interpersonal relationships and create a lot of stress for themselves and the people they deal with. They specially feel pressurised if they have to complete a task within a given deadline. Type B persons on the other hand do put in extra effort in order to meet a deadline but do not feel pressurised.

Those persons who are classified as Type A have a strong desire and tendency to control all aspects of the situation and if they are unable to control a situation, they react with anger and frustration. Because of their obsession with perfection, they are more apt to fear of failure and even if their work is good, they tend to underestimate the quality of their work. In the case of negative outcomes, they blame themselves more than the external factors.

A comprehensive identification of Type A personality is given by Karen A. Mathews as follows:

"The Type A pattern can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons. The overt manifestations of this struggle include explosive, accelerated speech, a heightened pace of living, impatience with slowness, concentrating on more than one activity at a time, self-preoccupation, dissatisfaction with life, evaluation of the worthiness of one's activities in terms of numbers, a tendency to challenge and compete with others even in noncompetitive situations, and a free floating hostility. The major facets of "core" elements of the behaviour pattern are extremes of aggression, easily aroused hostility, a sense of time urgency and competitive achievement surviving."

Research has indicated that such patterns of behaviour as exhibited by Type A personality profile, lead to health problems, specially heart related illness. In contrast, Type B persons may be hard working but feel no pressing conflict with people or time and hence are not prone to stress and coronary problems.

Judging and Perceptive Personalities

People with judging personality types like to follow a plan, make decisions and need only what is essential for their work.

Perceptive personalities are those when the people adapt well to change, want to know all about a job and at times may get overcommitted. The following table shows the differences between judging vs perceptive personalities.

<i>Judging personalities</i>	<i>Perceptive Personalities</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work best-when the work is planned properly and plan is followed with seriousness. 2. Like to get things settled 3. May decide things too quickly 4. May not notice new things that need to be done 5. Want only essential things needed to begin their work. 6. Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgment on a thing or situation or person 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Adopt well to changing situations. 2. Do not mind leaving things open for alternatives 3. May have trouble making decisions 4. May start too many projects and have difficulty finishing them 5. Want to know all about their work. 6. Tend to be curious and welcome new information on a thing, situation or a person

MAJOR CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

While we know what personality is, we are interested to know how a given personality is formed. What determines an individual's personality? Personality can be compared to a jigsaw puzzle in which we are interested in finding out the sources of all the pieces in the puzzle as well as their interrelationships.

There are two broad categories of factors that influence the formation and development of personality. These are heredity factors and environmental factors. It is debatable as to which of these factors have a greater influence on the structure of personality. Some behaviour scientists argue that personality characteristics are derived from heredity factors and the right type of environment only brings them out. Others feel that the effect of environment is quite strong. According to Maier, "knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience."

The probable consensus is that heredity and environment jointly affect personality development. The full potential of a person may or may not be achieved due to environmental constraints and requirements, but the potential for development, both physically and psychologically is determined by the complex set of genes.

The factors affecting personality development are illustrated as follows:

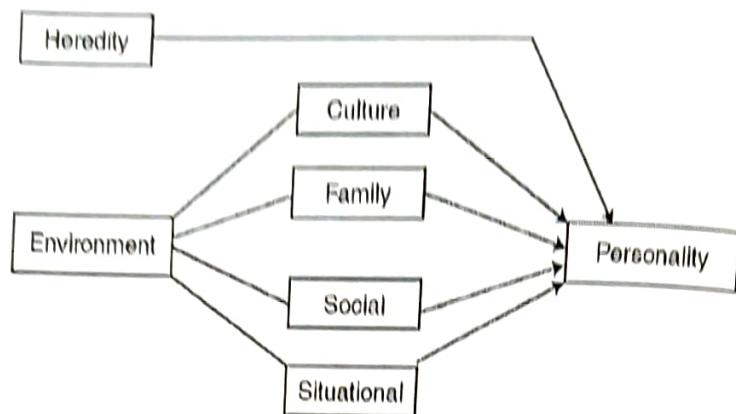


Figure 2.1 Factors affecting personality development

The impact of these factors is explained in more detail:

Heredity

The notion of heredity characteristics as contributing towards personality structure is deeply grained in our minds. Sayings such as “like father, like son”, when referring to characteristics has some validity.

At conception, each parent normally contributes twenty three chromosomes containing thousands of genes that seem to be the transmitters of traits in certain combinations. Even two real brothers may have different personality traits. These traits are those of physique, eye colour, hair colour, attractiveness, height and nervous systems. Our personality is formed on the basis of how others react to our appearances and intellect. For example, a short person who is usually laughed at, develops a defense mechanism that is reflected in his personality. Similarly, intelligence or lack of it, creates certain impressions on other people where reactions affect the behaviour of the individual.

Another aspect of the influence of heredity factors on personality as proposed by Maier, is the impact of a person’s endocrine glands. For example, an underactive thyroid gland results in a person becoming generally tired, sluggish and unable to concentrate. If it overfunctions, then one becomes restless, irritable and prone to excessive worry. These characteristics affect the behaviour of a person who is in a state of biological disequilibrium such as being hungry or fatigued, and thus is more prone to irritation and lack of concentration. Thus, certain body functions unrelated to heredity, also affect the behaviour tendencies.

Environment

Some of the factors constituting the environment are:

Culture One of the environmental influences on personality is that of culture within which a person has been brought up. Individuals born into a particular culture are exposed to existing values, beliefs, and norms of that culture concerning an acceptable form of behaviour. Such cultures would also define the processes by which these behaviours are reinforced. For example, a spirit of independence, aggressiveness and competition is rewarded by American cultural environment, while Japanese culture reinforces attitudes of cooperation and team spirit. Similarly, in America, the authority in

organizations is more impersonal and functional than is the result of cultural influences, while in Japanese culture, managers take active interest in personal lives of their workers.

The person and his culture are so interwoven with each other that it is difficult to distinguish the individual from his cultural context. On the basis of cultural upbringing, the attitudes will differ concerning such subjects as work habits, risk taking, introducing and accepting change, material gains, attitudes towards women and so on.

Culture has been defined by Hoebel as "the sum total of learned behaviour traits which are manifested and shared by the members of the society." It is a unique system of perceptions, beliefs, values, norms, patterns of behaviour and a code of conduct that influences the behaviour of individuals in a given society.

While the impact of culture on personality and similarly in behaviour patterns is well recognized, there is no linear relationship between personality and culture so that individuals within the same culture can differ in their behaviours and personality formats. This is partly due to the existence of sub-culture within culture. For example, the Protestant work ethic is usually associated with Western culture. However, there are extreme differences among individual behaviours within this culture and these differences are based upon socio-economic classes, ages, education, professions and geographic regions. Similarly, blue collar workers are not influenced by the same culture as managers, and skilled workers have different behaviour patterns than unskilled workers. Hence, management must recognise these differences when dealing with people in the organizational context.

Family The immediate family plays an especially important part in the early personality development. The nature of such influences depends upon the socioeconomic level of the family, family size, birth order, race, religion, parent's educational level, geographic location and so on. For example, a person brought up in a poor family has different experiences and attitudes towards life than persons coming from rich or stable families. Similarly, being an only child exposes him to different type of environment than being raised with seven brothers and sisters. Studies have shown that first born children are more responsible, rational and view the world as more predictable. In addition, they are likely to be more independent, ambitious and more sensitive to social acceptance. This may be due to the fact that the eldest child in the family is made to be responsible for other members of the family during the absence of the father. Parents usually serve as role models with which the children strongly identify.

A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the home and family environment, created by the mother and the father as well as their own behaviour is highly influential on personality development of the child. According to Mussen: "Children between the ages of four and six from democratic homes are more stable, less argumentative, more sensitive to praise and blame, more socially successful and more considerate than children from authoritarian homes. Overattention or overindulgence at home also leads to many kinds of maladaptive, infantile behaviour—for instance crying easily, dawdling, lack of independence and persistence, withdrawal and high dependence on adults."

It would be natural to assume that the most common element in the histories of maladjusted persons is the maladjustment and friction between their mother and father.

Social Social influences relate to a person's interaction with other people throughout his life, starting with playmates during childhood. While the interaction with environment in the earlier years

has a more lasting influence on patterns of behaviour and personality, the social contacts and group belonging in later years continue to have considerable impact on the person's life. As it is said correctly, "A man is known by the company he keeps."

In addition to family members, such factors as friends, peers at work, associates, groups to which an individual belongs, all influence a person's behaviour. Much of the behaviour is an outcome of respect for norms and laws of the society in which the individual exists. Norms are unwritten rules and informal expectations about how people behave in certain social situations. For example, standing in the back of a line for a service is expected behaviour from people. Any person jumping the line will be ridiculed and perhaps not allowed to do so. These norms are useful in standardizing behaviour of all people in a particular environment.

A person's personality is reflected by such behaviours, and the social influences, both within the work environment as well as outside, continue to influence people's personalities and behaviours throughout their lives.

Situation It is often said that "Life is nothing but a collection of experiences." Each individual's life is unique in terms of events and experiences that he goes through. These events and experiences can serve as important determinants of personality. Some traumatic experiences can sometimes change the structure of the entire personality. There are a number of stories in Hindu scriptures where a dacoit or a killer came to a religious temple and a single interaction with the priest changed him into a saint. Many "born again" Christians can testify that the change in their life styles occurred due to a single but traumatic incident. Sometimes, certain incidents reveal the personality of a person that was so far hidden. For example, a shy and timid person may spontaneously perform heroic actions in saving other people's lives without regard to his own safety. Similarly, some of the most religious and law abiding citizens have indulged in unethical or illegal behaviour due to situational pressures and constraints. The role of psychiatrists in personality shaping and changing is well known.

PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS

There is an enormous number of human traits. It has been estimated that there may be as many as 5000 adjectives that could be used to describe personality traits. As has been discussed before, personality is a set of relatively stable characteristics or dimensions of people that account for consistency in their behaviour in various situations. Some of the more important dimensions of personality that are closely linked with interpersonal and organizational behaviour are discussed as follows:

Authoritarianism Authoritarianism refers to blind acceptance of authority. Authoritarian people believe in obedience and respect for authority. They adhere to conventional values, are generally conservative, endorse strong parental control in keeping the family close and together, are concerned with toughness and power, are closed minded and generally less educated.

Because of their beliefs in hierarchical order, they make good followers, work better under directive supervision and are more productive within authoritarian organizational structure.

A closely related term to authoritarianism is "dogmatism" that refers to the rigidity of a person's beliefs. A highly dogmatic person is closed minded, and believes in blind obedience to authority and intolerance towards others. They are generally known as fanatics such as religious fanatics or political fanatics like hard core communists or right wing Nazis.

Bureaucratic personality A bureaucratic person differs from an authoritarian person in that his respect for authority is not total and blind, but is based upon respect for organizational rules and regulations. A bureaucratic person values subordination, rules, conformity, orderly processes in the organization, and impersonal and formal relationships. They are generally not innovative, do not take risks and are at ease in following established directives. Bureaucratic managers are better supervisors in types of work that are routine, repetitive and proceduralized.

Machiavellianism Machiavellianism is a term associated with Niccola Machiavelli, a sixteenth century author who identified personality profiles of noble men of the day. This personality believes in manipulating others for purely personal gains and keeping control of others. People with Machiavellianism have high self confidence and high self-esteem. They are cool and calculating and have no hesitation in using others or taking advantage of others in order to serve their own goals. They believe that ends justify means and do not feel guilty in using unethical means to serve their own interests. They are skilled in influencing others and they approach the situations thoughtfully and logically. They would not hesitate to lie if necessary and they are not easily swayed by a sense of friendship, trust or loyalty. They are specially successful in exploiting structured situations and vulnerable people.

Problem solving style Individuals have their own style of making decisions and this style reflects their personality in certain ways. Some people are very thorough, meticulous and detail oriented. Others are impulsive and are easily swayed by what seems to be obvious. The problem solving style has two dimensions. One is the information gathering that involves getting and organizing data and the second dimension is the evaluation of such data and making decisions. Further, there are two styles involved in information gathering. One style is known as sensation. Sensation oriented people prefer routine and order, structured situations, and put emphasis on precise and well-defined details. The second style known as intuitive style, involves individuals who dislike routine, dislike repetition and prefer new problems. They enjoy learning new skills but follow their instinct and jump to conclusions. Such a person often enjoys fantasy, daydreams a lot and thus is subject to greater error of fact. They change their minds quickly and often do not finish what they start before going to a new project.

Evaluation involves making judgements on the basis of the information so gathered. The evaluation style also has two dimensions. One style involves more emphasis on feeling while the other involves more emphasis on thinking. Feeling type people are sensitive to conflict and try to avoid issues that might result in disagreements. They are emotional and spontaneous and base their decision on how they feel about the situations. They do not like to hurt other people and friendly relationships to them are more important than efficiency or achievement. Feeling type managers find it hard to reprimand their subordinates for inadequate performances and would rather advise, guide and help them.

Thinking type people are more logical, analytical and use reason when solving problems. They are unemotional and are unsympathetic to other people's feelings when making judgements. They are very stubborn about defending their "principles" and what they believe is right. They are organized and well-structured and they carefully consider all options before making decisions.

When the two dimensions of information gathering and the two dimensions of evaluation are combined, it results in four problem solving styles. These are:

1. *Sensation-feeling style.* These people are dependable, friendly, social and approach facts with human concern. They are pragmatic, methodical and like jobs that involve human contact and public relations. Some suitable areas of jobs include teaching, customer relations, social workers, sales people.
2. *Sensation-thinking style.* They are practical, logical, decisive, sensitive to details and prefer bureaucratic type organizations. They are not highly skilled in interpersonal relations and are more suited to such technical jobs as those of production, accounting, engineering and computer programming.
3. *Intuition-feeling style.* These people are enthusiastic, people oriented, charismatic and helpful. Some of the professions suitable for this style are public relations, advertising, politics and personnel.
4. *Intuition-thinking style.* These people are creative, energetic, ingenious, and like jobs that are challenging in terms of design and analysis such as system design, law, research and development, top management and so on.

Locus of control Locus of control is the extent to which the individuals believe that:

- they control their own lives, or
- external forces control their lives that are beyond their control.

A person with a strong “internal locus of control” believes that he controls events concerning his own life and that his internal traits determine what happens in a given situation. He believes that he is the master of his own destiny. On the other end, a person with a strong “external locus of control” feels that outside forces are affecting the events in his life and he is at the mercy of destiny, chance or other people. He believes that “whatever will be, will be” and everything happens by the Will of God.

Research has indicated that “internals” are highly confident of themselves and seek out situations where they would use their own wisdom and energies to direct the events and control the outcomes such as starting their own companies.

Research has further shown that internally oriented persons hold jobs of higher status, advance more rapidly in their careers and prefer intrinsic rewards such as feeling of achievement while externally oriented persons are more interested in job security and other extrinsic rewards.

The following figure illustrates the possible consequences relative to internal locus of control and external locus of control:

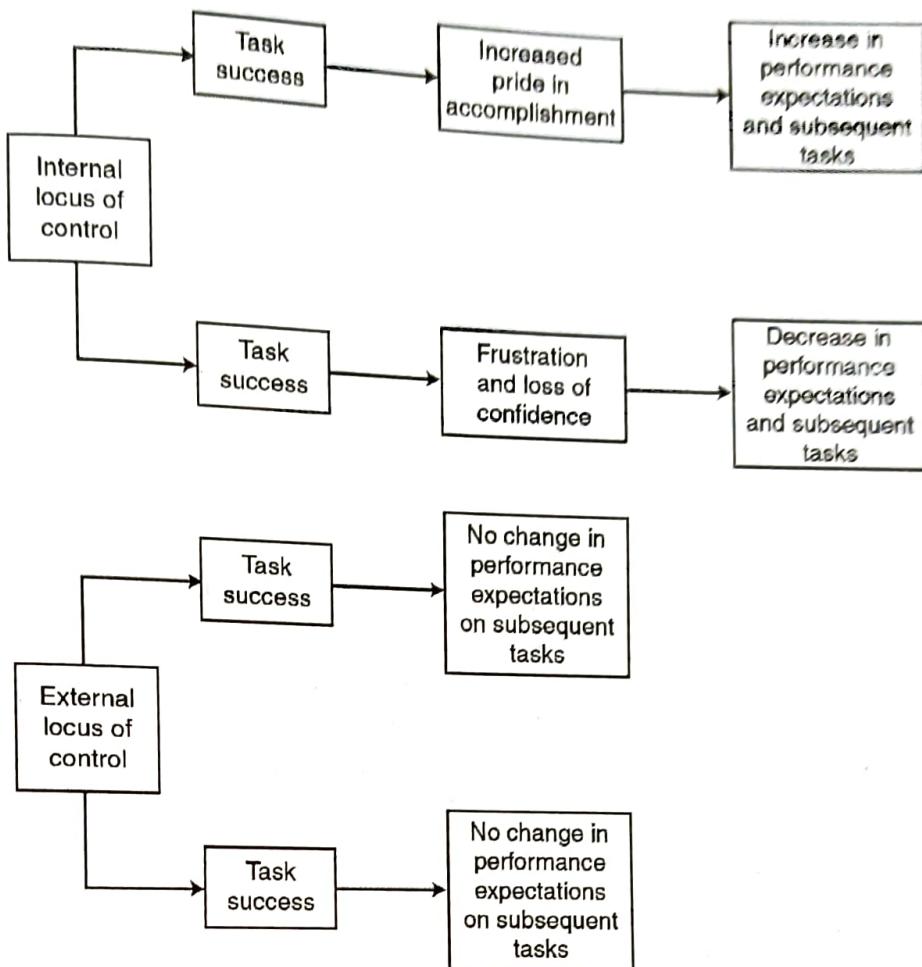


Figure 2.2 Possible consequences relative to internal locus of control and external locus of control

Source: Richard M. Steers, *Introduction to Organizational Behavior*, Scott Foresman, 1981.

INTROVERT AND EXTROVERT PERSONALITIES

Introvert persons are basically shy, prefer to be alone and have difficulty in communicating. Extroverts are outgoing, objective, aggressive and relate well with people. According to L. W. Morris, the introvert is behaviourally described as “quiet, introspective, intellectual, well-ordered, emotionally unexpressive and value oriented, prefers small groups of intimate friends and plans well ahead”. On the other hand, an extrovert is best described as, “sociable, lively, impulsive, seeking novelty and change, carefree and emotionally expressive”.

From organizational point of view, it can be assumed that most managers would be extroverts since a manager’s role involves working with and through other people. On the other hand, an extreme introvert works best when alone in a quiet office without external interruption or influences.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself. Self-esteem is a measure of self-confidence and respect for one's abilities and motivation. It is also a higher level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. Self-esteem is positively related to assertiveness, independence and creativity. High self-esteem persons are very friendly, affectionate, find it easy to form interpersonal attachment and find good in other people. Low self-esteem people are usually critical of others, are generally depressed and blame others for their own failures.

Organizationally speaking, high self-esteem people are high performers while low self-esteem contributes to poor performance, that in turn reinforces low self-esteem. According to Abraham K. Korman: "People of high self-perceived competence and self-image should be more likely to achieve on task performance than those who have low self-image concerning the task or job at hand, since such differential task achievement would be consistent with their self-cognitions. This assumes that task performance is seen as valued."

PERSONALITY THEORIES

Since personality variables reflect consistent and enduring patterns of behaviours, these patterns can be classified into certain categories, so that the behaviour can be predictable once we identify the pattern of behaviour as belonging to a given category. People in a given category would have a similar pattern of attributes, and personality theories tend to identify such attributes in order to group people into these various categories. Some of the personality theories are illustrated as follows:

These theories are explained in detail as follows:

Psychoanalytical Theory

The Psychoanalytical theory of personality as a reflection of behaviour has been based primarily on the Freudian concept of unconscious nature of personality. Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be consciously explained. This led him to believe that the personality structure is primarily founded on unconscious framework and that human behaviour and motivation is the outcome of such conflicting psychoanalytic concepts as the id, the ego and the super ego. Id is the foundation of the unconscious and is the base of libido drives. It strives for sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures and has animalistic instincts of aggression, power and domination. Ego is conscious in nature and is a mechanism to relate our conscious urges to the outside real world. It keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment. While id demands immediate pleasure, whatever the cost, ego controls it so that these pleasures are granted at an appropriate time and in an acceptable manner. Because of difficulty of keeping the id under control, ego is supported by super ego. The super ego is the higher level restraining force and can be described as the conscience of the person. The conscience creates standards of what is wrong and what is right and is generally subconsciously developed by the absorption of cultural and ethical values of the social environment. All these three Freudian elements are inter-related and each cannot exist in isolation from others. In order to create a "normal" personality, there must be a balance in the relationship among these three forces. For example, an overdeveloped super ego would make the person highly moral and make

him feel guilty for every little thing that was a slight deviation from the norm. This would not be considered practical or rational. Similarly, an underdeveloped super ego would let the id urges loose and would characterise the person with few and weak morals and values.

The psychoanalytical approach to personality structure analysis has made some impact on organizational behaviour. For example, stages of creative process are unconscious in nature and can be brought out by psychoanalysis. Similarly, such employee behaviours as daydreaming, forgetfulness, absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage, alcoholism and drug abuse can be analyzed through psychoanalytical studies. In terms of organizational development, such techniques as transactional analysis in order to improve interpersonal communicational skills can be explained within the psychoanalytic concepts.

The psychoanalytical theory was taken a step further by Carl Jung. While Freud conceived the idea of "personal" unconscious motivators that drive life, Jung proposed that there is a collective unconsciousness that exists in a personality that is deeper and includes the cumulative experiences of all the past generations. This may be a far-out theory but certain personality traits cannot really be explained rationally.

Trait Theory

Trait theory visualises personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals. On the basis of the traits theory, people can be described as aggressive, loyal, pleasant, flexible, humorous, sentimental, impulsive, cool and so on. Traits are the basic elements of personality and can be used to summarise behaviour. For example, if we see people behaving in an extrovert and forceful manner in most situations, we could label their personality as aggressive. Similarly, if a person is observed in different situations as letting someone else take the initiative in deciding what to do, we could describe his personality as "submissive".

Cattell used groups of traits to describe the underlying structure of personality. He compiled a list of words that can be used to describe personality traits. He put these traits into two basic categories. These are the source traits and the surface traits. For example, stammering would be a surface trait resulting from the basic source trait of timidity. Some of the surface traits are: wise-foolish, sociable-seclusive, honest-dishonest and so on. Similarly, some of the source trait categories are: trustful-suspicious, forthright-shrewd, relaxed-tense, dominant-submissive, cheerful-depressed and so on.

Self-concept Theory

This theory is organized around the concept that personality and behaviour are largely determined by the individual himself. We tend to act in ways that are consistent with our own image of who we are. For example, a man known as a flirt would hardly stop at flirting. Carl Rogers is most closely associated with this theory. According to him, the best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself. An individual himself is the centre of experience. His self image is integral to how he views himself and his perception of how others view him. This self-concept is a result of a person's interaction with his environment. This interaction in

the form of learning experience helps us to develop, grow and mature, and we modify our self-concept as a result of these experiences. When we get positive feedback from others as a response to our behaviour, our self-concept is positively reinforced. On the other hand, when we get negative feedback from others, our self-regard is lowered, resulting in tension and anxiety.

From the point of view of organizational behaviour, the management must recognize that each individual's self-concept is unique and the applications of various types of motivation, job enrichment and leadership styles will have different effects on different people. Thus, an employee with a self-concept of high intelligence, independence and confidence may not look for such reinforcement techniques as monetary rewards, job security or directive supervision. He may look for a challenging environment where he looks for recognition, responsibility and achievement. On the other hand, the monetary rewards and job security may be more effective on workers who have a self-concept of dependence, insecurity and who lack confidence in themselves.

Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory differs from the psychoanalytical theory in two ways. First, it is believed that personality development is more a result of social variables than biological drives. Secondly, motives can be traced to known and conscious needs and wants rather than unconscious and latent desires. Thus, learning theory looks at personality as the sum total of all that a person has learned.

The social learning theory uses "reinforcement and punishment" approach in understanding personality. For example, frustration caused by external environment, causes and reinforces aggression as a personality trait. Also, good behaviour is rewarded by the society in terms of praise that further reinforces good behaviour. Thus, behaviour and external environment have mutual interaction. Behaviour partly creates the person's environment and the environment affects the behaviour as well.

Learning can also occur simply from observation rather than interaction with the environment. We watch the behaviour of other people, draw conclusions from it and express our own behaviour.

ATTITUDES

Attitudes are evaluations people make about objects, ideas, events, or other people. These are the evaluative statements—either favourable or unfavourable—towards object or people. 'I like milk.' 'I do not like classical music.' These are expressions of attitudes towards products. Our needs, past experiences, self concept, and personality shape the beliefs, feelings, and opinions that we hold towards the perceived world. Once we have formed our likes and dislikes, we generally cling on to them and find it difficult to change our attitudes, unless we make a conscious and determined effort to do so.

In organizations, attitudes are important because they affect job behaviours. If employees are under the impression that employers are in a conspiracy to make the employee work harder for the same or less amount of money, then it is logical to know how these attitudes were formed, their relationship to actual job behaviour and how they can be made more favourable. Traditionally, behavioural scientists have divided attitudes into two major groups:

1. Cognitive (for example, beliefs or expectations about cause-effect relationships between events).

2. Evaluative (for example, liking or disliking an event).

An example of a cognitive attitude would be an employee's belief that superior job performance would be rewarded by praise from a superior. An example of an evaluative attitude would be the degree to which he or she would like or value such praise.

Definition

In the words of Hogg and Vaughan, 'An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols.'

In the words of Eagly and Chaiken, 'An attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour.'

In the words of G W Allport, attitude is 'a mental and neutral state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.'

In the words of Krech and Crutchfield, 'Attitude is an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individuals' world.'

In the words of N L Munn, 'Attitudes are learned predispositions towards aspects of our environment. They may be positively or negatively directed towards certain people, service or institutions.'

Characteristics of Attitudes

1. Attitudes are learned either from personal experience, or information provided by others.
2. Attitudes are predispositions. A predisposition is an inclination or tendency towards something; attitudes have motivational qualities.
3. Attitudes are consistent. However, this does not necessarily mean that they are permanent; attitudes can also change.
4. Attitudes are directed towards an object and are very specific reactions to that object.
5. Attitudes formed on the basis of direct experience tend to exert a stronger influence on behaviour than those formed through hearsay.
6. Knowledge helps in forming strong attitudes, which result in predictive behaviour.
7. The more the subject matter affects us, the stronger the attitude-behaviour link.
9. Stronger attitudes are usually more accessible to consciousness/awareness and, thereby, can more easily regulate behaviour.
10. Specific attitudes are better at predicting a specific behaviour than general attitudes.

Types of Attitudes

Attitude is the underlying way how we think, feel and act, and how we react to the world around us. It determines the quality and effectiveness of all of our thinking, emotions and behaviour and, thereby, the positive or negative consequences of that behaviour. Attitude is the one thing that we can count on as a lifetime companion. Jobs and relationships come and go, but our attitude is always with us. Attitude is based upon our expectations and perceptions our definition of reality. There are basically three types of attitudes.

1. **Spectators with neutral attitude:** Spectators watch life happen and observe others. They play it safe and try to avoid risks. Spectators are afraid of change. They are often tired or detached. Their defining word is: 'Maybe'. Their prevailing action: Coast... Typical phrases: 'I doubt it', 'I might', 'I don't know' and 'I'm hesitant.'
2. **Critics with negative attitude:** The tendency of a person that results in an undesirable outcome for individuals and organizations can be described as negative attitude. Negative attitudes are punished in order to discourage the same action in future. Critics comment on life and complain. They criticize every fact, imposing their 'expertise' and finding fault in others. Critics are annoyed about change. They often appear frustrated or pessimistic. Their defining word is: 'No!' Their prevailing action: 'Stop!' Typical phrases: 'I can't', 'I won't', 'No way' and 'You made me.'
3. **Players with positive attitude:** The predisposition that results in desirable outcomes for individuals and organizations can be described as positive attitude. Positive attitudes are rewarded. It means that the individual is encouraged to do the same thing in the future. Players actively participate in life and embrace opportunities. They take risks and are willing to make mistakes. Players enjoy learning and change. They are usually confident and optimistic. Their defining word is: 'Yes!' Their prevailing action: 'Go!' Typical phrases: 'I can', 'I will', 'I'm sure' and 'I choose to.'

Organizational behaviour is concerned with work-related attitudes and behaviour. There are primarily three work-related attitudes which have a significant influence on the organization.

1. **Job satisfaction:** The various attitudes that people hold towards their jobs are referred to as job satisfaction. It is the individuals' cognitive, effective, and evaluative reactions towards their jobs.
2. **Job involvement:** Job involvement indicates to what extent individuals identify themselves with the job, and whether the outcome of the work is attached to self worth.
3. **Organizational commitment:** Organizational commitment explains how people feel towards their organizations. It is an attitude, which reflects the extent to which people identify with and are involved with their organizations and unwilling to leave them.

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction results from the employee's perception that the job content and context actually provide what an employee values in the work situation. It can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience." This positive emotional state is highly contributory to an employee's physical and mental well-being. Organizationally speaking, high level of job satisfaction reflects a highly favourable organizational climate resulting in attracting and retaining better workers.

Sources of Job Satisfaction

Many research studies have been conducted on the subject of job satisfaction and employee morale in order to establish some of the causes that result in job satisfaction. These studies have revealed that certain variables are consistently correlated with job satisfaction. Some of these factors have been grouped into four identifiable, discrete categories. These are :

1. Organizational factors
2. Work environmental factors
3. Factors related to work itself
4. Personal factors

These factors are explained in more detail as follows:

Oganizational Factors

Some of the organizational factors as sources of job satisfaction are:

Salaries and wages Salaries and wages play a significant role in determining the level of job satisfaction irrespective of the level of position that an employee holds in the organization. Studies conducted by Locke indicate that pay is the primary determinant of job satisfaction, specially when it is perceived as fair and equitable compared to others and relative to employee's own efforts and contributions. Pay is also the prime mover since it satisfies the first level needs of Maslow's model of motivation. It is also considered a symbol of achievement since higher pay reflects a higher degree of contribution towards organizational operations and welfare.

Promotions Promotional opportunities are another source of job satisfaction, specially at higher level jobs, because a promotion indicates an employee's worth to the organization that is highly morale boosting. A promotion also involves a positive change in higher salary, less supervision, more challenging work assignments, increased responsibility and decision-making freedom. Promotion is a source of job satisfaction for executives more than for lower level jobs such as secretaries because executive promotion brings with it far better benefits than in the case of lower level administrative jobs.

Company policies Organizational structure and organization policies play an important role in establishing an environment that is conducive to job satisfaction. A highly authoritative and autocratic structure may produce more resentment on the part of employees who may want more open and democratic style of leadership. Organization policies usually govern employee behaviour, and depending upon how strict or liberal these policies are, can generate positive or negative feelings about the organization. Liberal and fair policies are usually associated with job satisfaction. Employees who feel unduly constrained because of strict policies or feel that they are not treated fairly, would not be happy with the job.

Work Environment

The work environment factors include the following:

Supervisory style It has been established that wherever the supervisors are friendly and supportive of workers, there is job satisfaction. Conversely, it can also be established that satisfied employees themselves create a social environment at work where supervisors are more considerate towards such employees. In any case, a close relationship between the supervisor and the worker and worker participation in decision making about such issues that directly concern the worker, are highly conducive to job satisfaction.

Work group The group size and the quality of interpersonal relations within the group play a significant role in worker happiness. Larger group sizes usually lead to lower level of job satisfaction

due to the fact that large groups lead to poor interpersonal communication, reduced feeling of togetherness and difficulty in getting to know each other more closely. Smaller groups provide greater opportunity for building mutual trust and understanding.

Work group also serves as a social, moral and emotional support system for the employee. If the people in the group exhibit similar societal characteristics, such as attitudes and beliefs, they tend to be drawn closer to each other resulting in a work climate that improves job satisfaction.

Working conditions Good working conditions are highly desirable because they lead to greater physical comfort. People put a high premium on a clean and orderly work station and factors such as heating, air conditioning, humidity, lighting, noise level, availability of adequate tools and equipment and desirable work schedules, all contribute to higher level of satisfaction. While such desirable conditions are taken for granted, and may not contribute heavily towards job satisfaction, poor working conditions become a source of job dissatisfaction, simply because they lead to physical discomfort and physical danger.

Work Itself

By and large, the work itself plays a major role in determining the level of job satisfaction. The job content has two aspects. One is the "job scope" that involves the amount of responsibility, work pace and the feedback provided. The higher the level of these factors, the higher the job scope and thus higher the level of satisfaction. The second aspect is variety. It has been found that a moderate amount of variety is most effective. Excessive variety produces confusion and stress and too little variety causes monotony and fatigue that are dissatisfiers. Additionally, lack of autonomy and freedom over work methods and work pace creates a sense of helplessness. It is not very motivating for the employees to have their every step and every action determined by their supervisor. It is highly dehumanizing and causes dissatisfaction.

Role ambiguity and role conflict are to be avoided because employees feel very unhappy if they do not know exactly what their task is and what is expected of them.

Personal Factors

While the external environment within the organization and the nature of the job are important determinants of job satisfaction, personal attributes of individual employees play a very important role as to whether they are happy at the job or not. People with generally negative attitudes about life and pessimists always complain about everything including the job. No matter how good the job is, such people always find something wrong with it to complain about.

Age, seniority and tenure have considerable influence on job satisfaction. It is expected that as people grow older, they usually come up the corporate ladder with the passage of time and move into more challenging and responsible positions. Meeting these challenges and succeeding is a high source of satisfaction. Even if they do not move up in their position, it is equally natural to assume that with age, people become more mature and realistic and less idealistic so that they are willing to accept available resources and rewards and be satisfied about the situation. Employees who do not move up at all with time are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs.

Tenure assures job security, and the feeling of job security is highly satisfactory to employees. This means that they can plan for the future without fear of losing the job. Thus employees with tenure are expected to be highly satisfied with their jobs.

Equally important is the intrinsic source of satisfaction that comes from within the person and is a function of the employee's personality. Some of the personality traits that are directly related to increased job satisfaction are self assurance, self-esteem, maturity, decisiveness, sense of autonomy, challenge and responsibility. It can be concluded that the higher the person is on Maslow's model of hierarchical needs, the higher is the job satisfaction.

SUMMARY

Personality is considered to be a set of characteristics that are stable and do not change either over a period of time or from situation to situation. These characteristics account for consistent pattern of behaviour. It is the stability of these characteristics that sometimes assists us in predicting behaviour of a given person.

Personality has been classified into two basic categories. One is Type A personality where behaviour is generally restless, impatient and with a desire for quick achievement. Type B personality is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressures, less competitive and more philosophical in nature. Knowing the personality type of a person makes his behaviour predictability easier and comparatively accurate.

There are many factors that contribute towards the formation of personality. These factors can be classified into two broad categories. One category consists of all such factors that are considered as hereditary and the second category comprises of environmental factors. The heredity factors are transferred through genes and chromosomes and may reflect physiological built and the nature of nervous systems. The activity of endocrine glands that control the metabolism may also be partially hereditary. The environmental factors include the influences of culture, family, social interaction and situational characteristics.

Personality may manifest itself in various forms. The personality may be authoritarian in nature where a person believes in obedience and respect for authority and adheres rigidly to conventional values. A bureaucratic personality differs from an authoritarian person in that a bureaucratic person's respect for authority is not total and blind but is based upon his respect for organizational rules, regulations and order. Then there is Machiavellian personality that believes in manipulating others for purely personal gains and keeping control over others. Another personality style is highly objective, meticulous and detail oriented. These people are cool, calculating, logical and analytical when responding to various situations.

Since personality attributes are comparatively stable and some knowledge about these attributes helps in predictability of behaviour, some theories have been developed to identify such attributes in order to group people into various categories. These theories include: Psychoanalytical theory based upon Freudian concept of personality being founded on unconscious framework of id, ego and superego where id is the unconscious animalistic urge to seek pleasures at any cost and ego and super-ego keep id in check through social and moral values. Depending upon the strength of ego and super ego, some personality traits can be identified.

Then there is the trait theory of personality that describes people on the basis of traits such as aggressive, flexible, humorous, sensitive, sentimental, impulsive and so on. By observing some of these traits, we may be able to identify a personality.

The third theory of personality is known as self-concept theory that promotes the idea that a person's behaviour reflects his own image about himself. For example, a known flirt is expected to flirt in social situations.

Then, there is a social learning theory that is based upon the premise that personality development is more a result of social variables than biological drives or unconscious desires. Personality is a sum total of all that a person has learned so that the learning process can be manipulated to develop or change a personality.

Attitudes are evaluations people make about objects, ideas, events, or other people. In organizations, attitudes are important because they affect job behaviours. If employees are under the impression that employers are in a conspiracy to make the employee work harder for the same or less amount of money, then it is logical to know how these attitudes were formed, their relationship to actual job behaviour and how they can be made more favourable.

Job satisfaction results from the employee's perception that the job content and context actually provide what an employee values in the work situation. It can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience." This positive emotional state is highly contributory to an employee's physical and mental well-being. Organizationally speaking, high level of job satisfaction reflects a highly favourable organizational climate resulting in attracting and retaining better workers.

CASE STUDY*

Frank Lorenzo had a dream from the very childhood to own an airline. He grew up in New York city in the shadow of LaGuardia Airport, became fascinated with the airline industry and vowed one day to be an owner of a major airline.

He and a friend invested \$25,000 each in 1969 to start an airline consulting firm called Jet Capital. In 1971, they took control of a small, regional airline known as Texas International. He was successful in running this airline and was able to take over a major carrier, Continental Airlines in 1981.

Being an aggressive and determined decision maker, Lorenzo decided to streamline the operation of Continental Airlines. He authorized a detailed and analytical study of its cost structure and concluded that the overhead costs were too high, specially the labour costs. His study indicated that the labour costs for US Airlines were about 20 per cent higher than the comparable labour costs of international carriers. He decided to take steps to lower the labour costs.

Lorenzo asked the labour unions to negotiate lower wage rates in order to make Continental Airlines more competitive. The unions refused. Lorenzo was adamant and stuck to his position that labour costs had to be reduced and he refused to consider other options. In a bold move in 1983, Lorenzo declared bankruptcy for Continental Airlines to break the existing labour contracts and employ non-union workers at a much lower cost.

*Based upon: "Frank Lorenzo: The Final days", *Business Week*, August 27, 1990; Peter Nielty, "America's Toughest Bosses", *Fortune*, February 27, 1989 and "Lorenzo Comeback", *Newsday*, October 8, 1993.

Even though the labour unions became his enemies, he was able to hire new employees and with lower labour cost, Continental was able to reduce fares and increase its market share rapidly.

In 1986, Lorenzo made a series of bold moves and acquired People's Express Airlines, Frontier Airlines and Eastern Airlines, that was one of the largest airlines in America. Eastern Airlines, at this time, was having its own trouble with its labour unions and these unions were very strong and enjoyed tremendous power in negotiating settlements with the management. Lorenzo's acquisition of Eastern Airlines made the unions even more determined to get what they wanted.

During negotiations, virtually every concession he requested from labour was denied. The unions went on strike in 1989. Lorenzo, once again, took Eastern into bankruptcy, hoping to repeat the success of Continental experience. It did not work. The unions were too strong. Eventually, his control of Eastern was taken away from him by the courts. In 1990, he also relinquished Texas Air and in January 1991, Eastern Airlines was shut down once and for all.

In a bold attempt to come back into the airline industry, Frank Lorenzo applied to start another airline names ATX to serve East coast points from Washington area. His bid has been opposed by the unions who consider him as a destroyer of airlines. His bid may or may not be approved but he has become the most controversial and perhaps most disliked person in the airline industry because of his management tactics in managing an airlines.

Discussion Questions

1. Discuss the personality traits of Frank Lorenzo and establish whether he is a Type A or Type B personality.
2. How did the attitudes of both Lorenzo and the Unions affect the operations of Eastern Airlines?
3. If you were hired as a consultant and as an arbitrator to handle the dispute at Eastern Airlines, what recommendations would you provide to solve the problem amicably?

EXERCISES

Review Questions

1. How do you define personality? What are the specific traits that constitute the concept of personality?
2. What are the primary characteristics of Type A personality. How do these characteristics differ from Type B personality? Can a Type A person become a Type B person? Justify your reasons.
3. What are the primary hereditary factors that contribute towards formation of personality. How can we be sure that all such factors are hereditary in nature?
4. Explain in detail some of the environmental factors that form a part of the personality. Can a change in these factors change the personality as well? Support your reasons.
5. Differentiate between authoritarian and bureaucratic personality. Emphasise the commonalities and differences among them.
6. Is Machiavellian style of personality still predominant in an organizational environment? Is it necessary in the present participative style of management to exhibit Machiavellianism to be successful? Give reasons.