

Auditing Course Material

Part 8 of 61 (Chapters 701-800)

1. Attitude scaling

A scale that helps the researcher discover proportions is the constant-sum scale. With a constant-sum scale, the participant allocates points to more than one attribute or property indicant, such that they total a constant sum, usually 100 or 10. In the restaurant example, the participant distributes 100 points among four categories:

Constant-Sum Scale
data: ratio

"Taking all the supplier characteristics we've just discussed and now considering cost, what is their relative importance to you (dividing 100 units between)":

Being one of the lowest-cost suppliers

All other aspects of supplier performance

Sum 100

Indicate the relative importance of each attribute:

- Food Quality
- Atmosphere
- Service
- Price

TOTAL is 100.

Up to 10 categories may be used, but both participant precision and patience suffer when too many stimuli are proportioned and summed. A participant's ability to add is also taxed in some situations; thus, this is not a response strategy that can be effectively used with children or the uneducated. The advantage of the scale is its compatibility with percent (100 percent) and the fact that alternatives that are perceived to be equal can be so scored—unlike the case with most ranking scales.

The scale is used to record attitudes, behavior, and behavioral intent.

The constant-sum scale produces interval data.

1. Attitude scaling

In ranking scales, the participant directly compares two or more objects and makes choices among them. Frequently, the participant is asked to select one as the "best" or the "most preferred." When there are only two choices, this approach is satisfactory, but it often results in ties when more than two choices are found.

Paired-Comparison Scale

data: ordinal

"For each pair of two-seat sports cars listed, place a check beside the one you would most prefer if you had to choose between the two."

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> BMW Z4 M Coupe | <input type="checkbox"/> Chevrolet Corvette Z06 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Porsche Cayman S | <input type="checkbox"/> Porsche Cayman S |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Chevrolet Corvette Z06 | <input type="checkbox"/> Porsche Cayman S |
| <input type="checkbox"/> BMW Z4 M Coupe | <input type="checkbox"/> Dodge Viper SRT10 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Chevrolet Corvette Z06 | <input type="checkbox"/> Dodge Viper SRT10 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dodge Viper SRT10 | <input type="checkbox"/> BMW Z4 M Coupe |

Forced Ranking Scale

data: ordinal

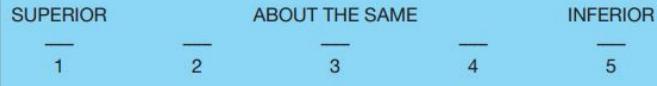
"Rank the radar detection features in your order of preference. Place the number 1 next to the most preferred, 2 by the second choice, and so forth."

- User programming
- Cordless capability
- Small size
- Long-range warning
- Minimal false alarms

Comparative Scale

data: ordinal

"Compared to your previous hair dryer's performance, the new one is":



Using the **paired-comparison scale**, the participant can express attitudes unambiguously by choosing between two objects. The number of judgments required in a paired comparison is $[(n)(n-1)/2]$, where n is the number of stimuli or objects to be judged. When four cars are evaluated, the participant evaluates six paired comparisons.

The **forced ranking scale**, lists attributes that are ranked relative to each other. This method is faster than paired comparisons and is usually easier and more motivating to the participant. With five items, it takes 10 paired comparisons to complete the task, and the simple forced ranking of five is easier. Also, ranking has no transitivity problem where A is preferred to B, and B to C, but C is preferred to A—although it also forces a false unidimensionality.

Often the researcher is interested in benchmarking. This calls for a standard by which other programs, processes, brands, point-of-sale promotions, or people can be compared. The **comparative scale** is ideal for such comparisons if the participants are familiar with the standard.

1. Attitude scaling

Q-sorts require sorting of a deck of cards into piles that represent points along a continuum. The participant (or judge) groups the cards based on his or her response to the concept written on the card.

What magazines do you want Singapore Airlines to carry for its in-flight service?

Most Preferred												Least Preferred	
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0		(scale value)	
3	4	7	10	13	16	13	10	7	4	3		(number of cards per pile)	

Researchers using Q-sort resolve three special problems: item selection, structured or unstructured choices in sorting, and data analysis. The basic Q-sort procedure involves the selection of a set of verbal statements, phrases, single words, or photos related to the concept being studied.

After the cards are created, they are shuffled, and the participant is instructed to sort the cards into a set of piles (usually 7 to 11), each pile representing a point on the judgment continuum. The left-most pile represents the concept statements, which are "most valuable," "favorable," "agreeable," and so forth. The right-most pile contains the least favorable cards. The researcher asks the participant to fill the center, or neutral, pile with the cards about which the participant is indecisive.

In the case of a structured sort, the distribution of cards allowed in each pile is predetermined. With an unstructured sort, only the number of piles will be determined.

The purpose of sorting is to get a conceptual representation of the sorter's attitude toward the attitude object and to compare the relationships between people. The relative ranking of concepts allows researchers to derive clusters of individuals possessing similar preferences. By researchers varying the instructions, the technique can be used to describe products, services, behavioral intentions, and a host of other applications.

In the example below, participants are asked to complete a structured sort of cards containing the names of magazines.

1. Attitude scaling

The Guttman Scale, known as a cumulative scale, is constructed around a small group of homogeneous items, all measuring a single attitude, event, or phenomenon.

Item					
2	4	1	3	Participant Score	
X	X	X	X	4	
—	X	X	X	3	
—	—	X	X	2	
—	—	—	X	1	
—	—	—	—	0	

*X = agree; — = disagree.

Total scores on cumulative scales have the same meaning. Given a person's total score, it is possible to estimate which items were answered positively and negatively. A pioneering scale of this type was the scalogram. Scalogram analysis (Guttman Scale) is a procedure for determining whether a set of items forms a unidimensional scale. A scale is unidimensional if the responses fall into a pattern in which endorsement of the item reflecting the extreme position results in endorsing all items that are less extreme.

Assume we are surveying opinions regarding a new style of running shoe. We have developed a preference scale of four items:

1. The Airsole is good-looking.
2. I will insist on Airsole next time because it is great-looking.
3. The appearance of Airsole is acceptable to me.
4. I prefer the Airsole style to other styles.

Participants indicate whether they agree or disagree. If these items form a unidimensional scale, the response patterns will approach the ideal configuration shown in the figure. Item 2 is the most extreme position of the four attitude statements. A participant who agrees with item 2 will agree with all four items. The items are ordered in the scalogram left to right from most to least extreme. If each agreement renders a score of 1, a score of 4 indicates all statements are agreed upon and represents the most favorable attitude. Persons with a score of 3 should disagree with item 2 but agree with all others, and so on. According to scalogram theory, this pattern confirms that the universe of content (attitude toward the appearance of this running shoe) is scalable.

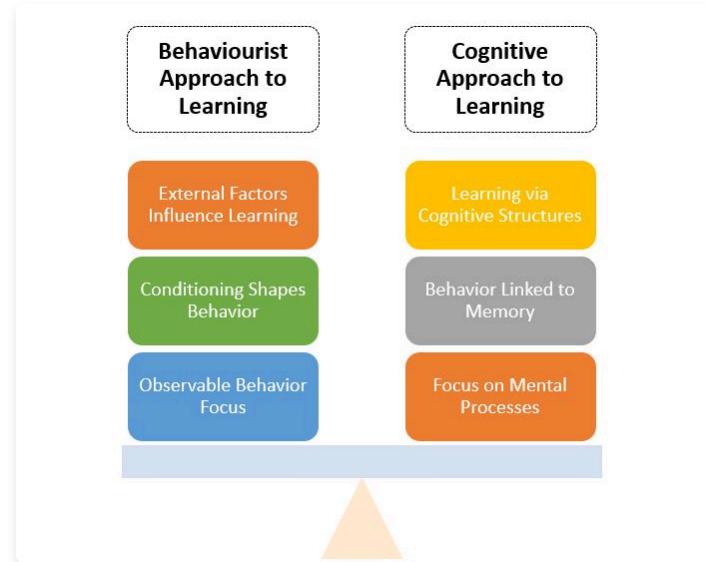
1. Introduction

In the business environment, learning refers to the process of gaining knowledge and understanding through practical experience and application. It is a continuous process that involves the acquisition of new skills, knowledge and abilities, and the development of existing ones. The ultimate goal of learning in a business context is to drive a lasting change in behavior, which can help individuals and organizations to adapt to new challenges, solve problems, and grow.

For example, an employee who learns how to use a new software program to improve their work efficiency is experiencing learning in the business environment. Another example is when a company invests in training programs for their employees to enhance their skills and improve their overall performance. In both cases, the focus is on acquiring new knowledge and skills that can drive a change in behavior and lead to better outcomes for the individual or organization.

2. Schools of Learning

There are two prominent schools of learning, Behaviourist Approach to Learning and Cognitive Approach to Learning.



Behaviourist Approach to Learning

The Behaviorist approach to learning is a psychological theory that focuses on observable behaviors and discounts the significance of internal mental processes in understanding how individuals learn. It emphasizes that behavior is a result of conditioning and learning from the environment. This approach is associated with the idea that behaviors are acquired through interactions with the environment, and it often involves stimulus-response associations.

Key features of Behaviourist approach to learning

1. *Focus on Observable Behavior:* Behaviorists concentrate on actions that can be directly observed and measured, rather than unobservable mental processes.
2. *Learning Through Conditioning:* Behaviorists emphasize learning through associations, either through classical conditioning (associating one stimulus with another) or operant conditioning (associating behavior with its consequences).
3. *External Factors Influence Behavior:* This approach underscores the role of the environment in shaping behavior. Rewards, punishments, and the environment's stimuli influence how an individual learns and behaves.
4. *Trial and Error:* Problem-solving is often seen as a process of trial and error, where individuals learn through experimentation and reinforcement of successful behaviors.
5. *Habit Formation:* Learning is considered the formation of habits through consistent repetition and practice.

Examples of Behaviourist approach to learning

- Sales training to repeat a set of steps for closing deals
- Employee training to follow a set of procedures for handling customer complaints
- Use of rewards and punishments to shape employee behavior
- Use of repetition to form habits in decision making processes.

Theories under Behaviourist approach to learning are Classical Conditioning (Ivan Pavlov), Operant Conditioning (B.F. Skinner), Social Learning Theory (Albert Bandura).

Cognitive Approach to Learning

The Cognitive approach to learning is also known as the information-processing approach. It is based on the perspective that what people learn are mental structures and that mental processes can be studied through inference, although they cannot be directly observed. This approach focuses on mental processes, memory, and expectations, and emphasizes that behavior is determined by these factors.

Key features of Cognitive approach to learning

- Focuses on mental processes
- Believes that behavior is determined by memory, mental processes, and expectations
- Learning occurs through the formation of cognitive structures
- Problems are solved through insights and understanding.

Examples of Cognitive approach to learning

- Employee training to understand the reasoning behind a company's decision-making processes
- Development of problem-solving skills through simulations and case studies
- Understanding consumer behavior through market research and data analysis
- Encouraging creative thinking and innovation through brainstorming sessions and idea generation workshops.

Theories under Cognitive approach to learning are Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory, Constructivism (Jean Piaget), Socio Cultural Development Theory (Lev Vygotsky) and Theory of father of modern linguistics (Noam Chomsky).

Cybernetic Analogy

One key concept in the cognitive approach is the use of the cybernetic analogy, where the learning process is viewed as similar to the operation of a feedback control system. Feedback, both intrinsic and extrinsic, plays a crucial role in shaping behavior.

Intrinsic feedback is information that comes from within the learner, such as information from muscles, joints, and skin, while *extrinsic feedback* is information that comes from the environment, such as visual and auditory cues. *Concurrent feedback* is information received during the behavior, while *delayed feedback* is received after the task is completed.

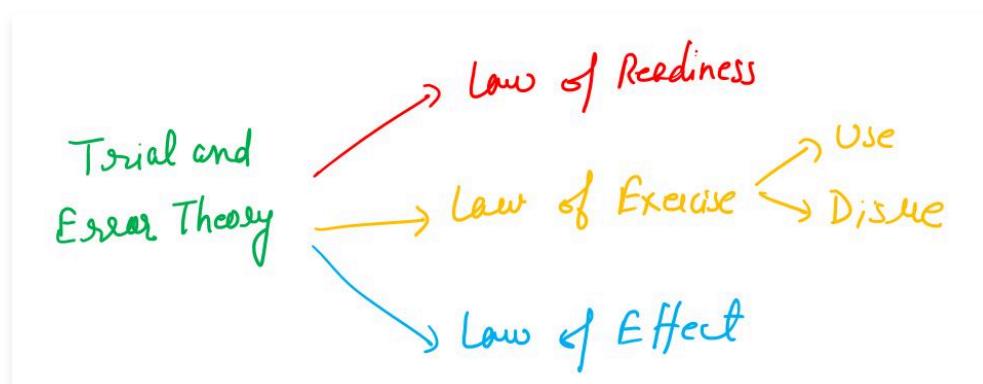
3. Trial and Error theory – Thorndike

E.L. Thorndike, an American psychologist, developed the theory of learning through trial and error.



He believed that learning is a gradual process that occurs through repeated attempts. As the number of trials increases, the number of errors decreases due to the formation of associations between sense impressions and impulses to action.

Thorndike explained 3 laws of learning. Let us understand them using example of "teaching a child to ride a bicycle".



1. **Law of Readiness:** This law states that the organism must be motivated and ready to learn. The motivation to learn can result in pleasure or annoyance depending on the situation. According to Law of Readiness, the child needs to be eager and motivated to learn how to balance and pedal.

2. **Law of Exercise:** Also known as the law of frequency, this law states that repeated exercise of a response strengthens its connection with the stimulus. The law can be subdivided into two parts:

(i) **Law of Use:** If any action is repeated by an organism in certain condition, learning occurs.

(ii) **Law of Disuse:** If the action is not repeated by an organism, there will be no learning.

The Law of Exercise comes into play when the child repeatedly practices riding the bike. As they keep trying, they gradually become better at balancing and pedaling, strengthening the connection between their actions and the bike's movement.

3. **Law of Effect:** This law states that the strength of a connection is increased when it results in a satisfying effect. Rewards strengthen connections, while punishment weakens them.

Lastly, the Law of Effect is evident when the child successfully rides without falling, experiencing the rewarding feeling of accomplishment, which encourages them to continue learning and riding the bicycle.

In conclusion, Thorndike's theory highlights the importance of repeated practice and reinforcement in the learning process. However, it also acknowledges that the process can be time-consuming and may involve a considerable amount of effort.

In addition to these laws, 5 additional laws of learning can be identified:

1. **Law of Primacy:** The initial experience has a lasting impact, so it should be positive.

2. **Law of Intensity:** The intensity of an experience affects its retention. More intense experiences have a greater chance of being remembered.

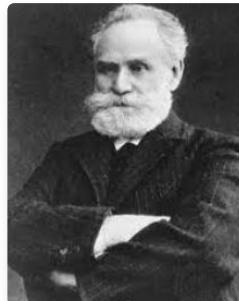
3. **Law of Recency:** Recent learning is easier to remember than past learning.

4. **Law of Freedom:** Learning at one's own pace is more effective than being under pressure.

5. **Law of Requirement:** Learners need a goal or purpose to motivate their learning. It could be a skill, ability, instrument, or anything that facilitates learning and acquiring something.

4. Classical Conditioning – Pavlov

Classical conditioning is a method of teaching behaviour through repetition. Ivan P Pavlov, a Russian physiologist who won a Nobel Prize in 1904, was the first person to describe this phenomenon and provide a general model.

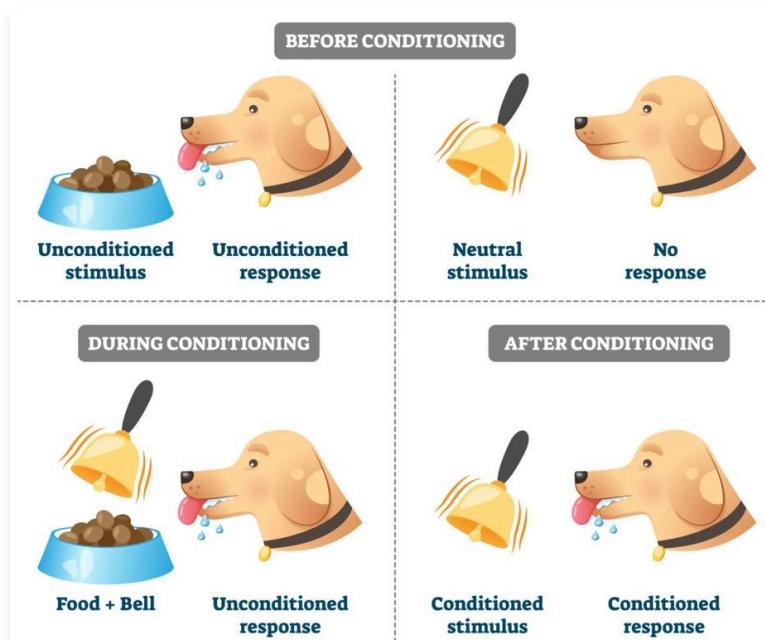


In Pavlov's experiment, he used a dog as a subject. The experiment was conducted in 3 stages.

In the first stage, Pavlov presented meat (designated as the Unconditional Stimulus, US) to the dog, resulting in a great deal of salivation (designated as the Unconditional Response, UR).

In the second stage, Pavlov only rang a bell (designated as the Neutral Stimulus, NS), and the dog did not salivate.

In the third stage, Pavlov rang the bell while also offering the meat to the dog.



After repeated trials, Pavlov rang the bell without offering the meat, and the dog still salivated (designated as the Conditional Response, CR). This shows that the dog became classically conditioned to salivate to the sound of the bell (designated as the Conditional Stimulus, CS). Classical conditioning takes place based on the Stimulus – Response (S-R) connections.

It is also called Pavlovian conditioning.

Persistence and Extinction of Conditioning

After Pavlov had demonstrated that learning could occur through association, Pavlov moved on to study the variables that influenced the strength and the persistence of conditioning.

- Extinction:** Extinction is a psychological phenomenon where a conditioned response gradually weakens and eventually disappears when the conditioned stimulus is presented repeatedly without the unconditioned stimulus. For instance, in Pavlov's experiments, if the bell (conditioned stimulus) is repeatedly rung without food (unconditioned stimulus), the dogs eventually stop salivating to the bell alone.
- Spontaneous Recovery:** Spontaneous recovery is the reappearance of an extinguished conditioned response after a period of rest or time has passed. Even after extinction, if the conditioned stimulus is presented again, the response may briefly return,

though weaker. This demonstrates that extinction doesn't erase the learning completely.

3. **Generalization:** Generalization is the tendency to respond to stimuli that resemble the original conditioned stimulus. In Pavlov's experiments, if a dog salivated to a specific tone, it might also salivate to similar tones that had not been associated with food. This illustrates how organisms can generalize their learned responses to similar cues.
 4. **Discrimination:** Discrimination is the opposite of generalization, where an organism learns to respond differently to stimuli that are similar but not identical. For example, Pavlov's dogs learned to salivate to the precise tone associated with food but not to similar tones that had not been paired with food. Discrimination enables organisms to distinguish between different cues and responses.
 5. **Second-Order Conditioning:** Second-order conditioning involves using a previously conditioned stimulus as an unconditioned stimulus to create a new conditioned stimulus. For instance, in Pavlov's experiments, after dogs associated a sound (CS) with food (US), he then paired a black square (new CS) with the sound. Eventually, the dogs would salivate at the sight of the black square alone, even though it was never directly associated with food. This demonstrates how conditioned stimuli can acquire their own conditioned properties through association with other conditioned stimuli.
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5. Operant Conditioning - B. F. Skinner

Operant conditioning is a method developed by American psychologist B.F. Skinner, also known as Instrumental conditioning because organisms use certain operations or actions to find a solution.



This method of conditioning focuses on the Response—Stimulus (R-S) connection. According to Skinner, organisms tend to repeat responses that are followed by favourable consequences, and avoid repeating responses that are followed by neutral or unfavourable consequences. For example, an individual might work hard (the response) because they know they will receive a promotion (the stimulus) (R-S connection).

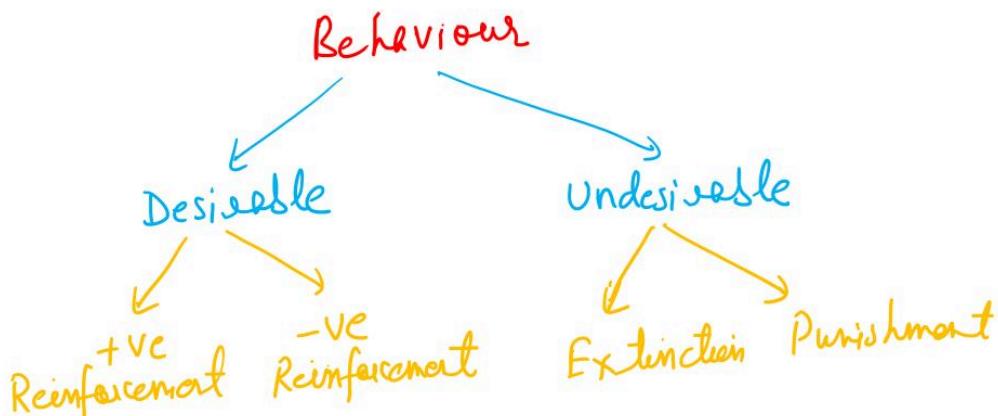
According to the theory, behavior can be classified as *desirable* or *undesirable*.

Desirable behavior that is followed by *positive reinforcement*, such as a reward, will increase the likelihood of that behavior being repeated in the future. For example, in a business setting, if an employee consistently meets his targets, they may receive a bonus as positive reinforcement, encouraging them to continue performing well. Desirable behavior can also be strengthened through *negative reinforcement*, which involves removing an aversive stimulus to increase the likelihood of the behavior being repeated. For example, an employee who arrives on time to work may avoid being reprimanded, thus strengthening their punctual behavior through negative reinforcement.

Undesirable behavior can be weakened through *extinction*, which involves withholding positive reinforcement. For example, if an employee consistently misses their targets, their bonus may be gradually reduced, leading to the extinction of their poor performance. Undesirable behavior can also be discouraged through *punishment*, which involves applying an aversive stimulus. For example, an employee who consistently arrives late may receive a warning, serving as punishment for their tardiness.

Avoidance is a type of behavior that occurs when an individual engages in an action to avoid a negative consequence. For example, an employee who is afraid of being fired might work extra hard to avoid being let go.

Behavior modification is the process of using reinforcement and punishment to change behavior. This may involve using positive reinforcement to encourage desirable behaviors or punishment to discourage undesirable behaviors. The goal of behavior modification is to improve performance and achieve specific objectives.



The schedules of reinforcement refer to the pattern in which reinforcement is delivered following a behavior. Here are brief explanations of the different types of schedules with examples:

1. *Continuous reinforcement*: In this schedule, every instance of the desired behavior is immediately followed by reinforcement. For example, if an employee receives a bonus every time they complete a task, this would be an example of continuous reinforcement.
2. *Fixed ratio*: In this schedule, reinforcement is given after a specific number of instances of the desired behavior. For example, an employee might receive a bonus for every 10 tasks they complete, representing a fixed ratio schedule of reinforcement.
3. *Variable ratio*: In this schedule, the number of instances of the desired behavior required for reinforcement is unpredictable. For example, a salesperson might receive a commission for every third sale they make, but the exact number of sales required for a commission is unpredictable, creating a variable ratio schedule of reinforcement.
4. *Fixed interval*: In this schedule, reinforcement is given at regular, predictable intervals of time. For example, an employee might receive a performance-based bonus every six months, representing a fixed interval schedule of reinforcement.
5. *Variable interval*: In this schedule, the intervals between reinforcement are unpredictable. For example, an employee might receive unexpected bonuses at random intervals, creating a variable interval schedule of reinforcement.

Teaching Machine

The teaching machine, which involves using machines to deliver educational content and provide feedback, has had a significant impact on education. It promotes student engagement by presenting individualized programs with questions, problems, and exercises. B. F. Skinner is often recognized as the inventor of the teaching machine.

Programmed instruction consists of a network of statements and tests, which direct the student to new statements depending on his pattern of errors. It is based on a particular tool which is called Teaching Machine.

6. Cognitive Conditioning - Edward Tolman

Edward Tolman, a behaviorist, challenged the traditional Stimulus-Response theory and believed that behavior was mostly cognitive in nature.



He defined cognition as the thoughts, feelings, ideas, knowledge, and understanding that individuals have about themselves and their environment. Tolman believed that individuals develop a mental image, known as a cognitive map, through experiences and cues encountered in the environment.

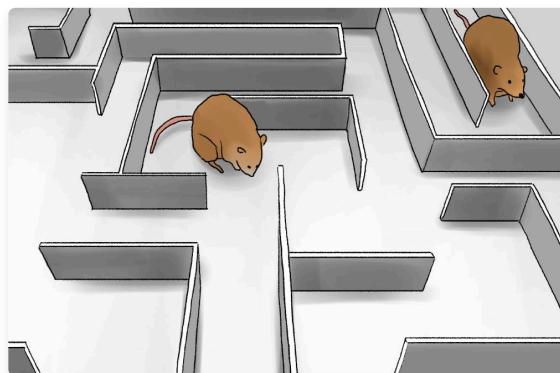
Edward Tolman studied the behaviour of three groups of rats that were learning to navigate through mazes.

The first group always received a reward of food at the end of the maze. The second group never received any reward, and the third group received a reward, but only beginning on the 11th day of the experimental period.



As you might expect when considering the principles of conditioning, the rats in the first group quickly learned to negotiate the maze, while the rats of the second group seemed to wander aimlessly through it. The rats in the third group, however, although they wandered aimlessly for the first 10 days, quickly learned to navigate to the end of the maze as soon as they received food on day 11. By the next day, the rats in the third group had caught up in their learning to the rats that had been rewarded from the beginning.

It was clear to Tolman that the rats that had been allowed to experience the maze, even without any reinforcement, had nevertheless learned something, and Tolman called this latent learning. **Latent learning** refers to learning that is not reinforced and not demonstrated until there is motivation to do so. Tolman argued that the rats had formed a "cognitive map" of the maze but did not demonstrate this knowledge until they received reinforcement.



Based on his cognitive learning theory, Tolman developed the *Sign Learning Theory*. This theory posits that learning is the acquisition of knowledge through meaningful behavior. Tolman viewed learning as a whole, purposeful, and goal-driven process, rather than just physiological responses. He demonstrated through animal experiments that learning does not require motivation and that rewards or punishments cannot initiate learning, but only motivate the performance of learned behavior.

Tolman believed that learning occurs as individuals follow signs or stimuli to reach a goal, rather than just having to reproduce certain behaviors.

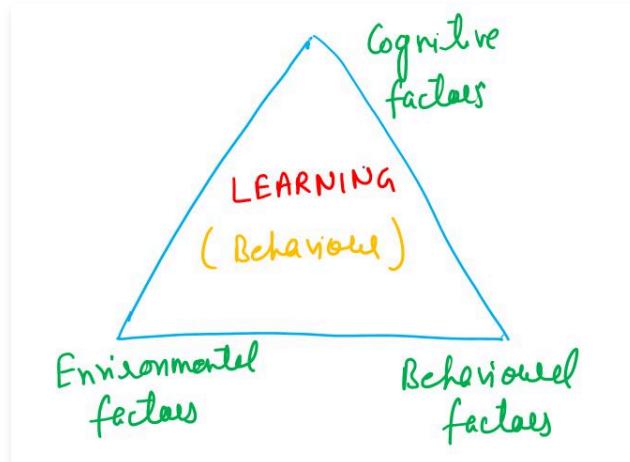
7. Social Learning – Albert Bandura

Albert Bandura is known for his Social Learning Theory. He is quite different from other learning theorists who look at learning as a direct result of conditioning, reinforcement, and punishment. Bandura asserts that most human behavior is learned through observation, imitation, and modeling.



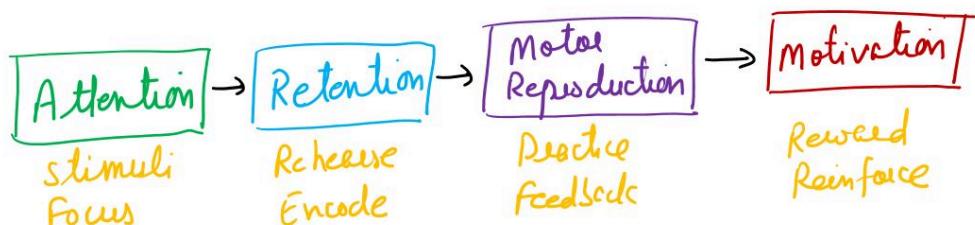
He is renowned for his research on children's observational learning of aggressive behavior. He conducted experiments where children witnessed adults acting aggressively toward a doll, and subsequently, the children imitated these actions when given dolls to play with. Bandura went beyond mere observation, exploring "verbal" instructional models, where clear explanations and descriptions enhanced learning. This is akin to when someone patiently explains a concept, facilitating learning.

Furthermore, he delved into "symbolic" models, which included fictional and non-fictional characters in various media forms like movies, TV shows, online content, and books. This revealed that students could learn from these sources by observing how characters reacted and felt, subsequently applying these lessons to real-life situations. Bandura's work underscores the power of observation and instruction in shaping human behavior, extending beyond direct interactions to encompass a wide range of media and instructional methods.



Thus, the human behaviour and learning is determined by the relationship between cognitive factors, environmental factors, and behavior factors.

Bandura showed that observational learning can occur without the learner demonstrating any new behavior. In other words, you can observe, imitate, or model something but you might not learn it.



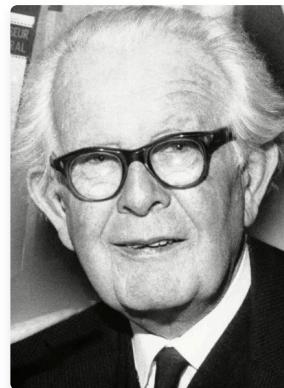
He explored the question of what needs to happen for an observable behavior to be learned (in addition to observation) and cited 4 necessary steps: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation.

Observation + 4 Necessary Steps = Learning

1. **Attention:** The learner must focus on the model or situation. Distractions can hinder learning, and the more captivating or unique the model, the more attentive the learner will be. For instance, in a classroom, a student who pays close attention to an engaging teacher is more likely to learn effectively.
 2. **Retention:** How information is stored matters. Effective retention might involve using mnemonic devices, taking notes, or applying the learning to real-life situations. For example, a student who takes thorough notes during a lecture is more likely to retain the information.
 3. **Reproduction:** This step depends on attention and retention. After these initial stages, the learner begins to perform the observed behavior. With practice, skills are refined. An example could be a novice pianist who diligently practices, improving their ability over time.
 4. **Motivation:** The final step is motivation, influenced by reinforcement and punishment. If a student observes someone being rewarded for their behavior, they are more likely to emulate it. Conversely, if they witness punishment or a lack of attention for a behavior, they may cease it. For instance, a child who observes a classmate being praised for helping others is motivated to do the same to receive positive reinforcement.
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8. Developmental Theory – Piaget

Jean Piaget is famous for his theories regarding changes in cognitive development that occur as we move from infancy to adulthood.

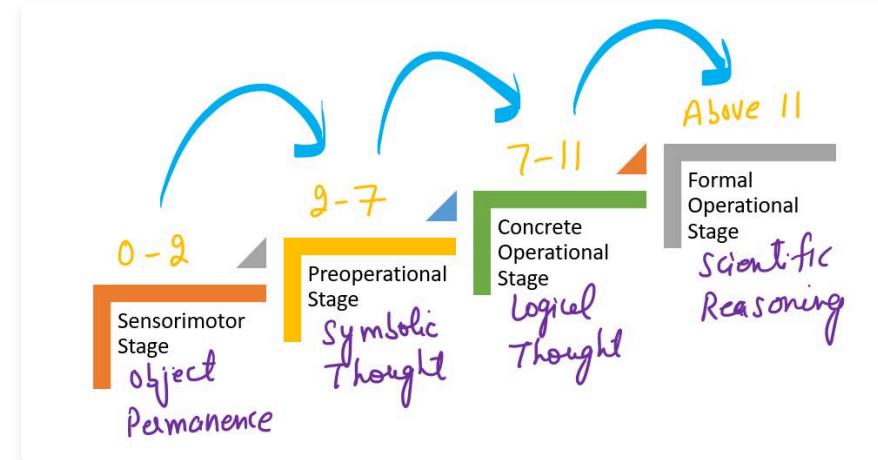


Cognitive development results from the interplay between innate capabilities (nature) and environmental influences (nurture).

Children progress through four distinct stages, each representing varying cognitive abilities and world comprehension: the sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years), the preoperational stage (2 to 7 years), the concrete operational stage (7 to 11 years), and the formal operational stage (11 years and beyond).

A child's cognitive development is not just about acquiring knowledge, the child has to develop or construct a mental model of the world, which is referred to as a *schema*.

Piaget emphasized the role of active exploration and interaction with the environment in shaping cognitive development, highlighting the importance of assimilation and accommodation in constructing mental schemas.



1. Sensorimotor Stage (Birth to 2 Years)

The first stage is the sensorimotor stage, and during this stage, the infant focuses on physical sensations and on learning to coordinate their body. Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes during this stage are:

- The infant learns about the world through their senses and through their actions (moving around and exploring their environment).
- During the sensorimotor stage, a range of cognitive abilities develop. These include: object permanence; self-recognition (the child realizes that other people are separate from them); deferred imitation; and representational play.
- They relate to the emergence of the general symbolic function, which is the capacity to represent the world mentally
- At about 8 months, the infant will understand the permanence of objects and that they will still exist even if they can't see them and the infant will search for them when they disappear.

2. Preoperational Stage (2 – 7 Years)

Piaget's second stage of intellectual development is the preoperational stage. It takes place between 2 and 7 years. At the beginning of this stage, the child does not use operations, so the thinking is influenced by the way things appear rather than logical reasoning. Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes during this stage are:

- Toddlers and young children acquire the ability to internally represent the world through language and mental imagery.
- During this stage, young children can think about things symbolically.
- A child's thinking is dominated by how the world looks, not how the world is. It is not yet capable of logical (problem-solving) type of thought.
- Moreover, the child has difficulties with class inclusion; he can classify objects but cannot include objects in sub-sets, which involves classifying objects as belonging to two or more categories simultaneously.
- Infants at this stage also demonstrate animism. This is the tendency for the child to think that non-living objects (such as toys) have life and feelings like a person's.
- Furthermore, the child is egocentric; he assumes that other people see the world as he does. As the preoperational stage develops, egocentrism declines, and children begin to enjoy the participation of another child in their games.

3. Concrete Operational Stage (7 – 11 Years)

By the beginning of the concrete operational stage, the child can use operations (a set of logical rules) so she can conserve quantities, she realizes that people see the world in a different way than he does (decentering) and he has improved in inclusion tasks. Children still have difficulties with abstract thinking. Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes during this stage are:

- During this stage, children begin to think logically about concrete events.
- Children begin to understand the concept of conservation; understanding that, although things may change in appearance, certain properties remain the same.
- During this stage, children can mentally reverse things (e.g. picture a ball of plasticine returning to its original shape).
- During this stage, children also become less egocentric and begin to think about how other people might think and feel.

4. Formal Operational Stage (11 Years and above)

The formal operational period begins at about age 11. As adolescents enter this stage, they gain the ability to think in an abstract manner, the ability to combine and classify items in a more sophisticated way, and the capacity for higher-order reasoning. Adolescents can think systematically and reason about what might be as well as what is (not everyone achieves this stage). This allows them to understand politics, ethics, and science fiction, as well as to engage in scientific reasoning. Adolescents can deal with abstract ideas: e.g. they can understand division and fractions without having to actually divide things up, and solve hypothetical (imaginary) problems. Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes during this stage are:

- Concrete operations are carried out on things whereas formal operations are carried out on ideas. Formal operational thought is entirely freed from physical and perceptual constraints.
 - During this stage, adolescents can deal with abstract ideas (e.g. no longer needing to think about slicing up cakes or sharing sweets to understand division and fractions).
 - They can follow the form of an argument without having to think in terms of specific examples.
 - Adolescents can deal with hypothetical problems with many possible solutions. For example, if asked 'What would happen if money were abolished in one hour's time? they could speculate about many possible consequences.
 - This stage sees the emergence of scientific thinking, formulating abstract theories and hypotheses when faced with a problem.
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9. Theory of Multiple Intelligences – Dr. Howard Gardner

Howard Gardner first proposed the theory of multiple intelligences in his 1983 book "Frames of Mind", where he broadens the definition of intelligence and outlines several distinct types of intellectual competencies.

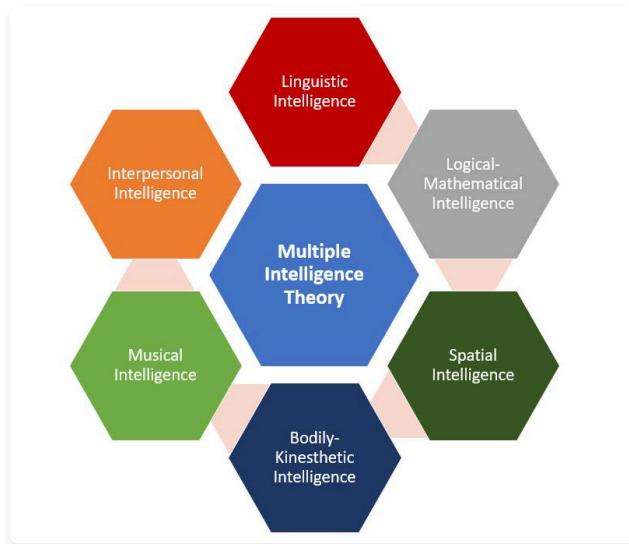


Gardner developed a series of 8 inclusion criteria while evaluating each "candidate" intelligence that was based on a variety of scientific disciplines.

Gardner defines intelligence as a "biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture."

The inclusion criteria to be categorized as a Multiple Intelligence are:

- Potential of isolation by brain damage.
- Evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility.
- Identifiable core operations or set of operations.
- Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system.
- Distinct developmental history and definable set of expert "end state" performances.
- Existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional people.
- Support from experimental psychological tasks.
- Support from psychometric findings.



1. Linguistic Intelligence (Word Smart)

Linguistic Intelligence is a part of Howard Gardner's multiple intelligence theory that deals with sensitivity to the spoken and written language, ability to learn languages, and capacity to use language to accomplish certain goals.

2. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence (Number/Reasoning Smart)

Logical-mathematical intelligence refers to the capacity to analyze problems logically, carry out mathematical operations, and investigate issues scientifically.

3. Spatial Intelligence (Picture Smart)

Spatial intelligence features the potential to recognize and manipulate the patterns of wide space (those used, for instance, by navigators and pilots) as well as the patterns of more confined areas, such as those of importance to sculptors, surgeons, chess players, graphic artists, or architects.

4. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence (Body Smart)

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence is the potential of using one's whole body or parts of the body (like the hand or the mouth) to solve problems or to fashion products.

5. Musical Intelligence (Music Smart)

Musical intelligence refers to the skill in the performance, composition, and appreciation of musical patterns.

6. Interpersonal Intelligence (People Smart)

Interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations, and desires of other people and consequently to work effectively with others.

7. Intrapersonal Intelligence (Self-Smart)

Intrapersonal intelligence is the capacity to understand oneself, to have an effective working model of oneself—including own's desires, fears, and capacities—and to use such information effectively in regulating one's own life.

8. Naturalist Intelligence (Nature Smart)

Naturalistic intelligence involves expertise in the recognition and classification of the numerous species—the flora and fauna—of his or her environment.

The most important educational implications of the theory of multiple intelligences can be summed up through individuation and pluralization. Individuation posits that because each person differs from other another there is no logical reason to teach and assess students identically. Pluralization, the idea that topics and skills should be taught in more than one way, activates individual's multiple intelligences. Presenting a variety of activities and approaches to learning helps reach all students and encourages them to be able to think about the subjects from various perspectives, deepening their knowledge of that topic.

Gardner also suggests that there may be other "candidate" intelligences—such as spiritual intelligence, existential intelligence, and moral intelligence—but does not believe these meet his original inclusion criteria.

10. Social Constructivism Theory – Lev Vygotsky

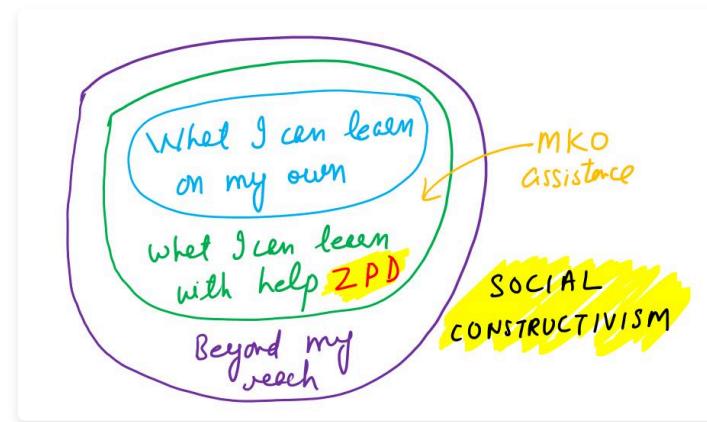
Lev Vygotsky's work, notably in sociocultural theory, has significantly influenced cognitive development studies. He proposed social constructivism, asserting that cognitive functions are shaped by social interactions within cultural contexts.



Vygotsky highlighted learning as a collaborative process rooted in social negotiation, rejecting the idea of isolating learning from its social context, unlike Piaget's stance.

Vygotsky claimed that infants are born with the basic abilities for intellectual development called elementary mental functions which include Attention, Sensation, Perception and Memory.

Two key principles in Vygotsky's theories are the **More Knowledgeable Other** (MKO) and the **Zone of Proximal Development** (ZPD).



The MKO, often an individual with superior knowledge or expertise, doesn't necessarily have to be an adult but could be a peer or even an electronic system. This person or system supports and guides learning by offering more knowledge on a subject.

The ZPD is the gap between what a learner can do independently and what they can achieve with guidance from a more skilled partner. Vygotsky emphasized the significance of social interaction in bridging this gap. He believed that collaborative efforts with others - adults or peers - enable children to reach their full potential by providing guidance and support. This zone marks the territory where optimal learning occurs because the tasks lie just beyond an individual's current capabilities, fostering maximum cognitive growth.

Social dialogues within the ZPD emphasize two critical aspects: intersubjectivity and scaffolding.

Intersubjectivity involves arriving at a shared understanding, adjusting perspectives, and sharing ideas.

Scaffolding involves initially direct instruction, gradually withdrawn as the learner gains mastery, thereby encouraging independent problem-solving skills.

Let us understand with an example.

In a classroom, a student named Saumya is working on a challenging science project. She is tasked with conducting a complex experiment that involves setting up intricate equipment and recording precise measurements. Saumya, however, finds herself struggling to grasp the experimental procedure, which is beyond her current knowledge.

The teacher serves as the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) in this situation. He steps in to guide Saumya through the process, explaining the steps, demonstrating techniques, and providing clear instructions.

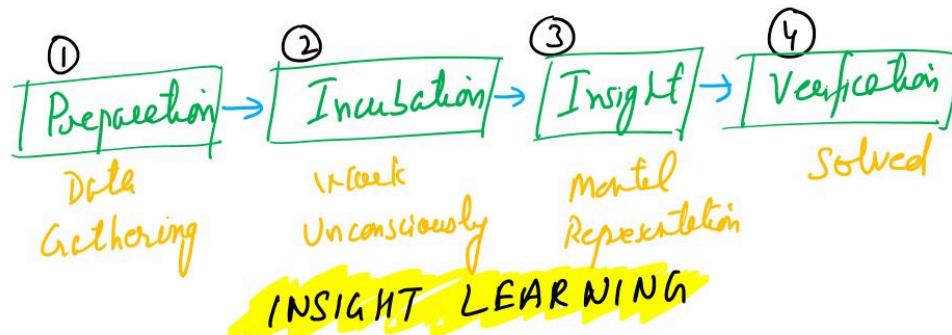
This collaborative effort between Saumya and the Teacher takes place within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Saumya can't complete the experiment entirely on her own, but with teacher's guidance, she can successfully carry out the project. As they work together, Saumya asks questions, seeks clarification, and shares her observations, creating a shared understanding (intersubjectivity) of the experiment's intricacies.

Scaffolding comes into play as the teacher tailors her support to Saumya's needs. At the beginning, he is quite involved, but as Saumya gains confidence and understanding, the teacher gradually steps back, allowing Saumya to take more responsibility for the experiment. This gradual reduction of support empowers Saumya to develop problem-solving skills and scientific expertise.

Over time, as Saumya works on similar experiments and projects, she internalizes the knowledge and techniques she acquired through this collaborative experience. The ZPD, guided by the teacher's expertise, has facilitated Saumya's growth and development, equipping her to tackle more advanced scientific challenges independently.

11. Insight Learning – Kohler

Insight learning, as observed by Wolfgang Köhler through his famous experiments with chimpanzees, involves the sudden realization of a solution to a problem without the need for trial and error. Köhler's chimp, Sultan, struggled to reach a banana outside his cage until he spontaneously connected two sticks, creating a tool to obtain the fruit. This "a-ha" moment prompted psychologists to delve deeper into the insight process.



The four-stage model of insight learning includes:

1. *Preparation*: frustration while attempting to solve a problem,
2. *Incubation*: unconscious problem-solving even after temporarily giving up,
3. *Insight*: the sudden "Eureka!" moment when connections are made, and
4. *Verification*: testing and confirming the solution.

Insight learning examples include instances where solutions appear suddenly, bypassing trial-and-error methods, leading to a better understanding and future problem-solving abilities.

Consider a writer facing a creative block while developing a plot. In the Preparation stage, they struggle to link story elements, feeling stuck. Taking a break (Incubation), the writer engages in a mundane task, and suddenly, in a moment of Insight, a brilliant idea strikes, connecting the plot threads seamlessly. Returning to their writing, they apply the new storyline (Verification), which revitalizes the narrative. This "aha" moment not only solves the immediate writing challenge but also enhances the writer's ability to craft intricate plots in the future.

12. Constructivist Theory - Bruner

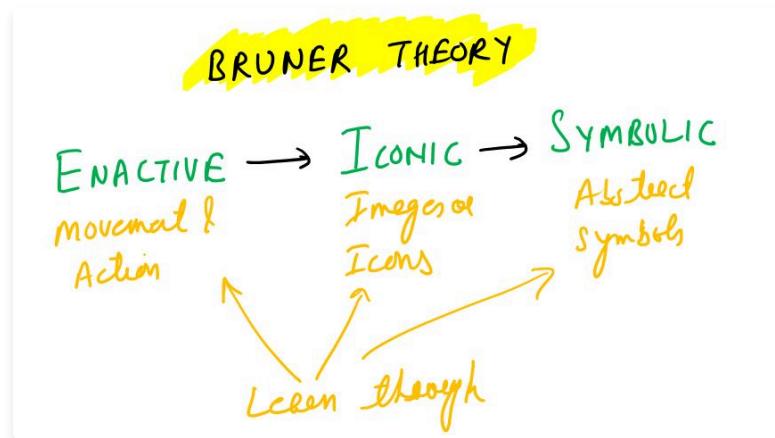
Jerome Bruner, heavily influenced by Vygotsky's ideas, proposed a theory of active and interactive learning, emphasizing that children learn best when given opportunities to learn.



He contradicted Piaget's belief that learning was tied to maturity, asserting that all children have the capacity to learn similarly, rejecting the idea of specific developmental milestones.

Bruner's theory is centered on 3 modes of learning:

1. *Enactive mode*, where learning occurs through actions and rehearsal of observed actions.
2. *Iconic mode*, involving the retention of images in memory.
3. *Symbolic mode*, which deals with the storage of information in symbolic forms like letters, numbers, or words, allowing for flexibility and manipulation.



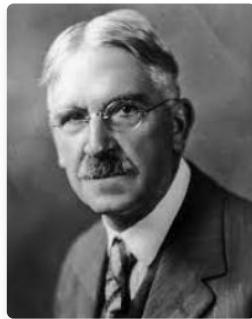
According to Bruner, children progress through these modes step by step, starting with action-based learning and gradually moving towards memory of scenes and then symbolic representations. His theory emphasizes the importance of facilitating learning opportunities for children rather than relying solely on teaching methodologies, highlighting the significance of discovery in the learning process.

Let's use an example to explain Jerome Bruner's modes of learning.

Imagine a child learning to play a musical instrument, like the piano. Initially, they observe and mimic the actions of a skilled pianist (enactive mode). As they practice, they begin to form mental images of playing specific tunes and chords (iconic mode). Eventually, they grasp the symbolic representations of musical notes and sheet music, allowing them to read and play complex compositions (symbolic mode). This progression aligns with Bruner's theory, emphasizing the stepwise nature of learning, from action-based to mental imagery and symbolic understanding.

13. Pragmatism – John Dewey

John Dewey, a significant figure in educational reform, introduced groundbreaking ideas that revolutionized educational philosophy. His concept of instrumentalism emphasized learning by doing, diverging from traditional authoritarian teaching and rote memorization.



He believed in a hands-on approach to education, emphasizing the cultivation of skills through practical experiences rather than passive absorption of information.

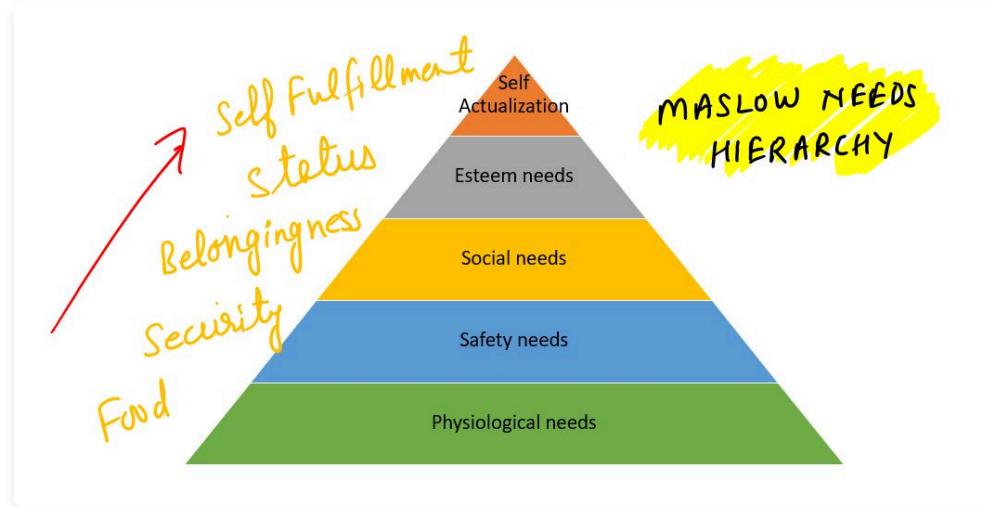
The hallmark of Dewey's philosophy was pragmatism, which shaped his view on the purpose of education. He advocated for the dynamic development of individuals rather than conformity to established knowledge. He had an experimental approach to education.

Dewey rejected the conventional rote-learning approach and disapproved of strictly child-centered methods. Instead, he proposed integrating traditional subjects with learners' interests and strengths. He introduced the concept of inquiry-based learning, asserting that learning is a cycle involving doubt, inquiry, reflection, and the reconstruction of understanding. He viewed the learning process as a continuous, organic cycle, contrasting the mechanical models prevalent in his time.

Another pivotal aspect of Dewey's theory was his emphasis on democratic values. He believed that education played a crucial role in shaping skills necessary for active participation in a democratic society. He stressed the importance of recognizing and appreciating differences, advocating for open-mindedness to expand experiences and encourage critical thinking among students.

14. Hierarchy of Needs – Abraham Maslow

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a widely recognized theory of motivation that suggests that within every individual, there is a hierarchy of five different needs that influence their behavior.



These 5 needs are listed as follows:

1. **Physiological:** These are the basic physiological requirements for survival, such as food, water, shelter, and sleep. When these needs are not met, they become the primary focus and dominate the individual's behavior.
2. **Safety:** This includes the need for security and protection from physical and emotional harm. Once physiological needs are met, safety becomes the next dominant need and influences behavior.
3. **Social:** This includes the need for affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship. Social needs are important for human development and well-being, and once safety needs are met, social needs become the dominant motivator.
4. **Esteem:** This encompasses both internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement, and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention. When social needs are satisfied, esteem becomes the dominant need and motivates behavior.
5. **Self-actualization:** This is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming, and includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment. Self-actualization is considered the highest level of need and only becomes dominant when all other needs have been substantially satisfied.

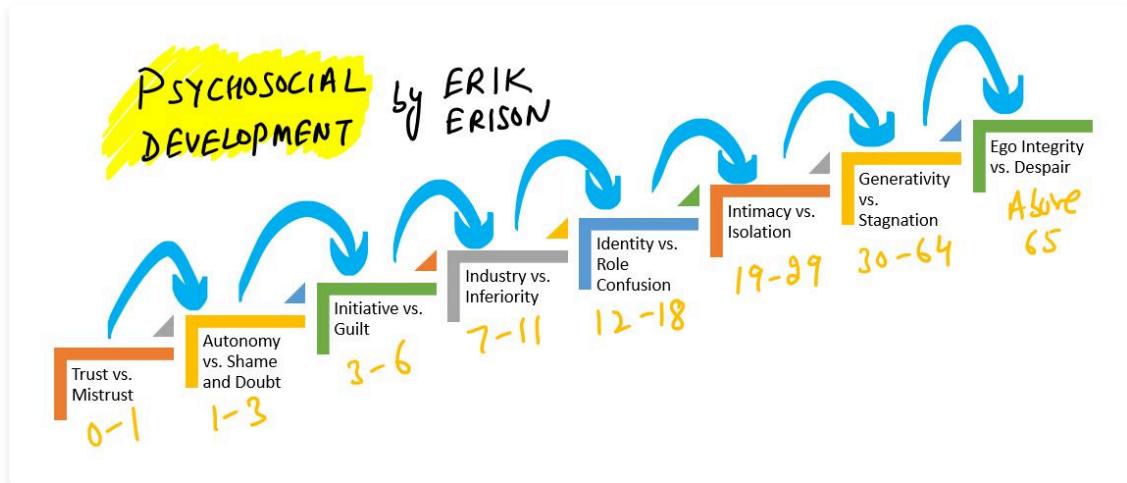
Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower orders.

- Physiological and safety needs are described as lower-order.
- Social, esteem, and self-actualization are as higher-order needs.
- Higher-order needs are satisfied internally.
- Lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally.

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is relevant in education as it helps educators understand and address students' diverse motivations and behaviors. It encourages individualized learning by recognizing that students have different needs at various levels of the hierarchy.

15. Psychosocial Development – Erik Erikson

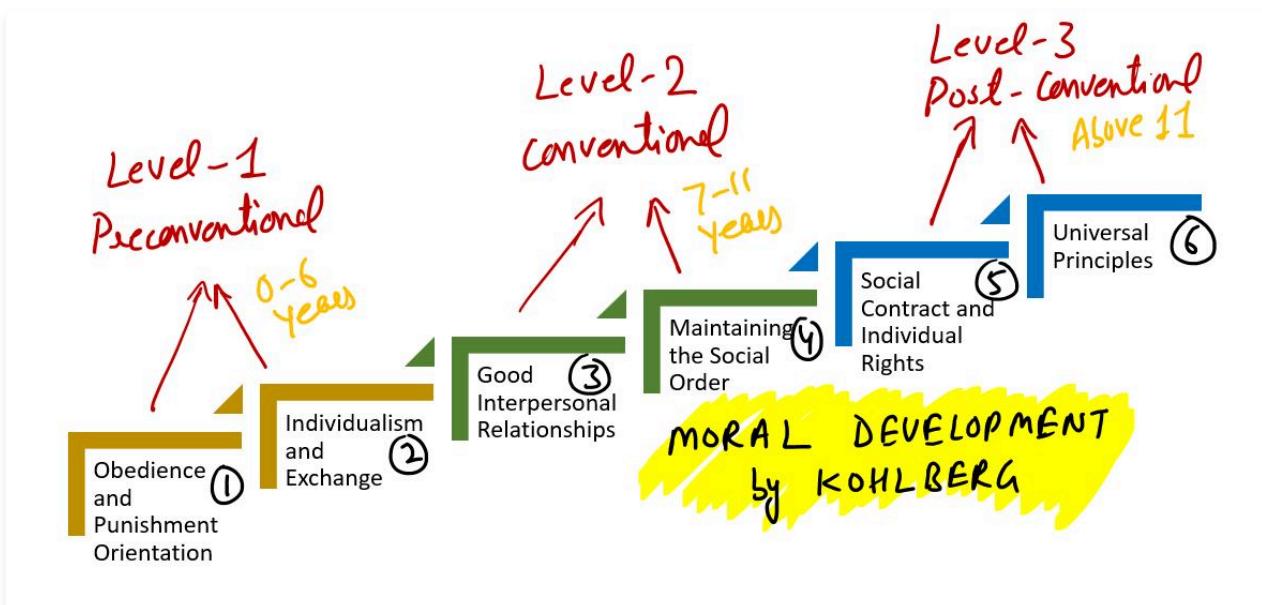
Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory outlines 8 developmental stages that span from infancy to late adulthood, delineating the challenges individuals face at each phase. The stages are characterized by specific psychosocial crises that influence personality and emotional growth. The successful resolution of these crises during each stage leads to the acquisition of essential virtues, contributing to the formation of a healthy and well-rounded personality.



1. **Trust vs. Mistrust (Infancy):** Babies form trust based on consistent caregiver care. Success results in a sense of safety, while failure can lead to mistrust and anxiety, affecting confidence and safety perceptions.
2. **Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt (Toddlerhood):** Children seek control over skills. Encouragement fosters autonomy and confidence, while criticism or control may lead to shame and self-doubt.
3. **Initiative vs. Guilt (Preschool):** Kids explore taking initiative in planning activities. Support nurtures confidence and purpose, but criticism can cause guilt and inhibit autonomy.
4. **Industry vs. Inferiority (School-Age):** Children compare themselves to peers. Positive feedback fosters industry and competence, while negative feedback leads to feelings of inferiority and self-doubt.
5. **Identity vs. Role Confusion (Adolescence):** Teens seek self-identity and values. Encouragement leads to a strong sense of self, but restrictions cause confusion and uncertainty.
6. **Intimacy vs. Isolation (Early Adulthood):** Young adults focus on forming intimate relationships. Success results in comfortable relationships, while failure leads to isolation and loneliness.
7. **Generativity vs. Stagnation (Middle Adulthood):** Adults nurture productivity and contributions to society. Success leads to a sense of generativity, while failure causes stagnation and lack of growth.
8. **Ego Integrity vs. Despair (Late Adulthood):** Older adults reflect on life. Contentment leads to integrity, while dissatisfaction results in despair and regret.

16. Moral Development – Kohlberg

Moral development refers to the process whereby people form a progressive sense of what is right and wrong, proper and improper. As implied by the term development, human moral sense is commonly seen to involve a movement from simple and finite definitions of right and wrong to more complex ways of distinguishing right from wrong.



Kohlberg identified 3 distinct levels of moral reasoning each with 2 sub-stages. People can only pass through these levels in the order listed. Each new stage replaces the reasoning typical of the earlier stage. Not everyone achieves all the stages.

Level 1 - Pre-conventional morality

At the pre-conventional level (most 9-year-old and younger, some over 9), we don't have a personal code of morality. Instead, our moral code is shaped by the standards of adults and the consequences of following or breaking their rules. Authority is outside the individual and reasoning is based on the physical consequences of actions.

Stage 1: Obedience and Punishment Orientation. The child/individual is good in order to avoid being punished. If a person is punished, they must have done wrong.

Stage 2: Individualism and Exchange. At this stage, children recognize that there is not just one right view that is handed down by the authorities. Different individuals have different viewpoints.

Level 2 - Conventional morality

At the conventional level (most adolescents and adults), we begin to internalize the moral standards of valued adult role models. Authority is internalized but not questioned, and reasoning is based on the norms of the group to which the person belongs.

Stage 3: Good Interpersonal Relationships. The child/individual is good in order to be seen as being a good person by others. Therefore, answers relate to the approval of others.

Stage 4: Maintaining the Social Order. The child/individual becomes aware of the wider rules of society, so judgments concern obeying the rules in order to uphold the law and to avoid guilt.

Level 3 - Post-conventional morality

Individual judgment is based on self-chosen principles, and moral reasoning is based on individual rights and justice. According to Kohlberg, this level of moral reasoning is as far as most people get. Only 10-15% are capable of the kind of abstract thinking necessary for stage 5 or 6 (post-conventional morality). That is to say, most people take their moral views from those around them and only a minority think through ethical principles for themselves.

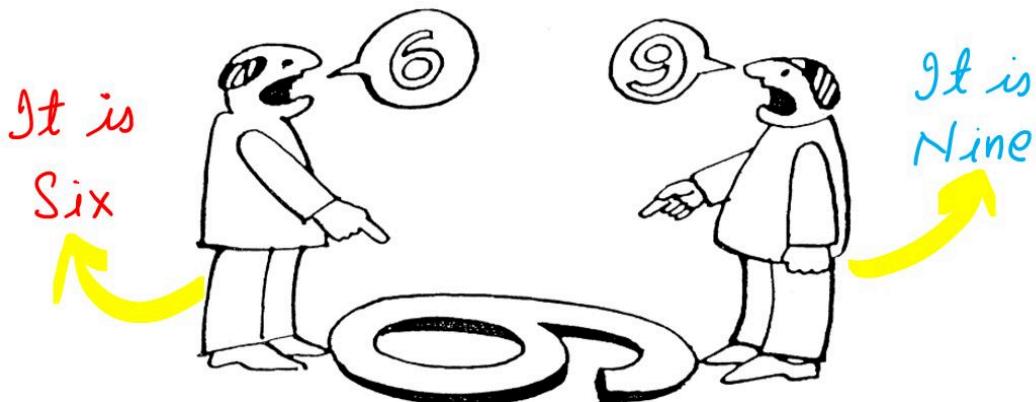
Stage 5: Social Contract and Individual Rights. The child/individual becomes aware that while rules/laws might exist for the good of the greatest number, there are times when they will work against the interest of particular individuals.

The issues are not always clear-cut. For example, in Heinz's dilemma, the protection of life is more important than breaking the law against stealing.

Stage 6: Universal Principles. People at this stage have developed their own set of moral guidelines, which may or may not fit the law. The principles apply to everyone.

For example, human rights, justice, and equality. The person will be prepared to act to defend these principles, even if it means going against the rest of society in the process and having to pay the consequences of disapproval and/ or imprisonment. Kohlberg doubted few people reached this stage.

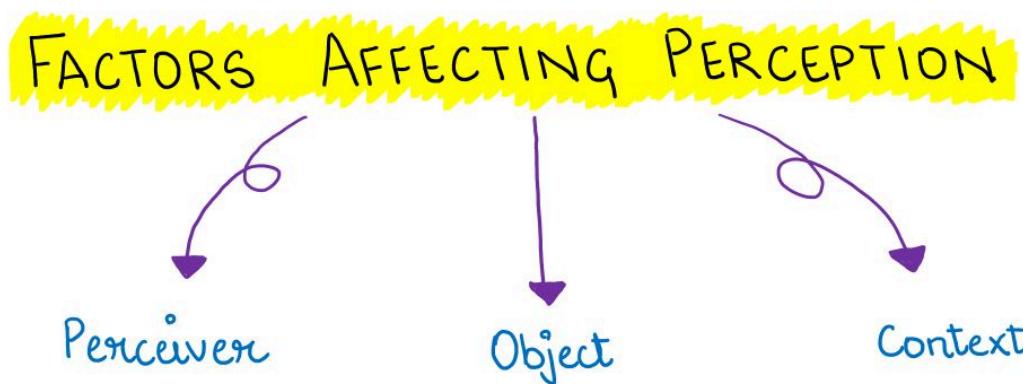
1. Introduction



Perception is the process by which individuals interpret and make sense of their surroundings. This includes selecting and organizing sensory information to create a meaning for their environment. However, what an individual perceives can differ greatly from objective reality. This can result in disagreements about what is considered "real."

A manager may perceive the office to be productive, while an employee might feel overworked and stressed. Although the objective reality of the office remains the same, the perceptions of the manager and the employee differ greatly.

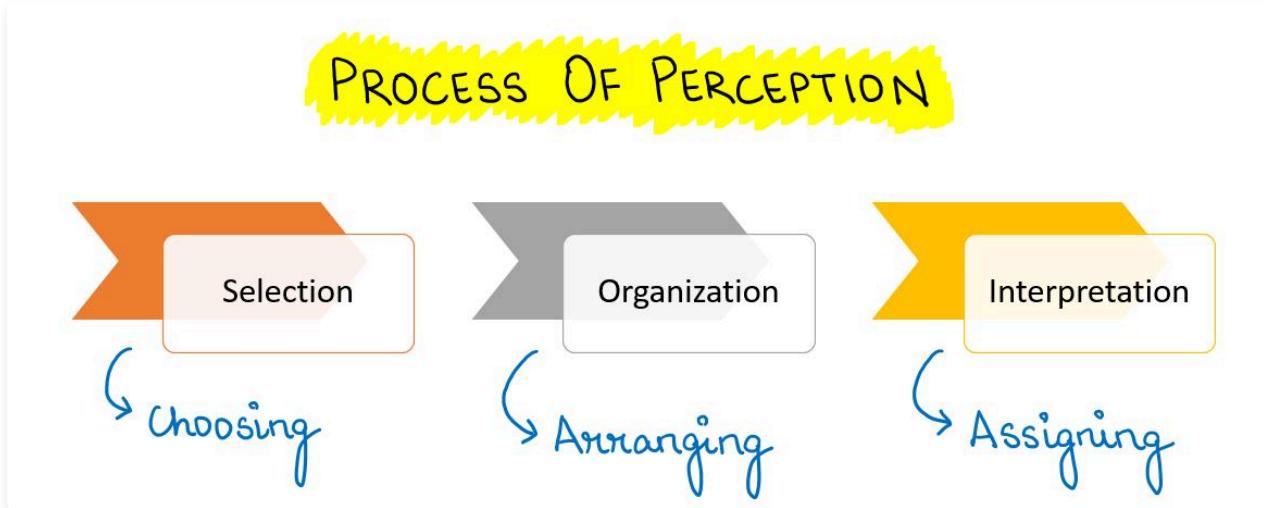
2. Factors affecting Perception



Perception is shaped and sometimes distorted by a variety of factors. These factors can originate from the perceiver, the object being perceived, or the context in which the perception takes place. Understanding these factors is important in gaining a comprehensive understanding of perception.

1. **Factors in the Perceiver:** The attitudes, motives, interests, and past experiences of the perceiver all have an impact on the way an event is perceived. For example, a person's prior experiences with a particular type of event may shape their perception of similar events in the future.
2. **Factors in the Object:** The characteristics of the object being perceived also affect perception. The novelty, motion, sounds, size, and other characteristics of an object can shape the way it is perceived. For example, an object that is new or unique may be perceived differently from an object that is familiar.
3. **Factors in the Context:** The setting in which objects or events are perceived also affects how they are perceived. For example, objects or events that are close physically or in timing may be perceived together, even if they are unrelated. Additionally, objects, persons, or events that are similar to each other tend to be viewed as a group.

3. Process of Perception



Perception is a process that operates constantly between us and reality. There are 3 well-noted mechanism of perception - (a) selection, (b) organization and (c) interpretation.

Perceptual selection takes account of only those stimuli that are relevant and appropriate for an individual. Perceptual organization is concerned with harnessing the perceived inputs and converting them into a meaningful shape or form. The final mechanism - perceptual interpretation, deals with inference from observed meaning from the perceived events or objects.

1. Selection

Selection refers to the process of choosing which stimuli to focus on and which to ignore. This is driven by two key psychological principles:

- **Figure Ground principle** : In the perceptual field, some stimuli are considered more significant and meaningful to an individual, while others are deemed insignificant or unimportant and are ignored. The significant stimuli are referred to as the "figure" while the unimportant stimuli are referred to as the "ground." For example, in a printed page, the words are the figure and the white space is the ground.
- **Relevance** : Relevance is a key criterion in selective perception. Individuals tend to focus on stimuli that are relevant to their needs and desires, while ignoring stimuli that are less relevant or mildly disturbing. If something is perceived as a threat, it will be given more attention.

2. Organization

Organization refers to the process of taking the perceived stimuli and arranging them into a meaningful and coherent form. This process is referred to as "organization" or "gestalt process," a German word meaning "to organize." The ways in which information is organized include:

- **Grouping** : Objects or individuals can be grouped together based on similarity or proximity.
- **Closure** : When information is incomplete, the perceiver has a tendency to fill in the gaps themselves.
- **Simplification** : If people are presented with too much information, they may simplify it to make it more manageable and focus on the important details.

Max Wertheimer discovered that rapid sequences of perceptual events, such as flashing lights, can create the illusion of motion, known as the "phi phenomenon." This concept is utilized in motion pictures, where still images are displayed in quick succession to create a seamless visual experience. Wertheimer published "Laws of Organization in Perceptual Forms" in 1923.

3. Interpretation

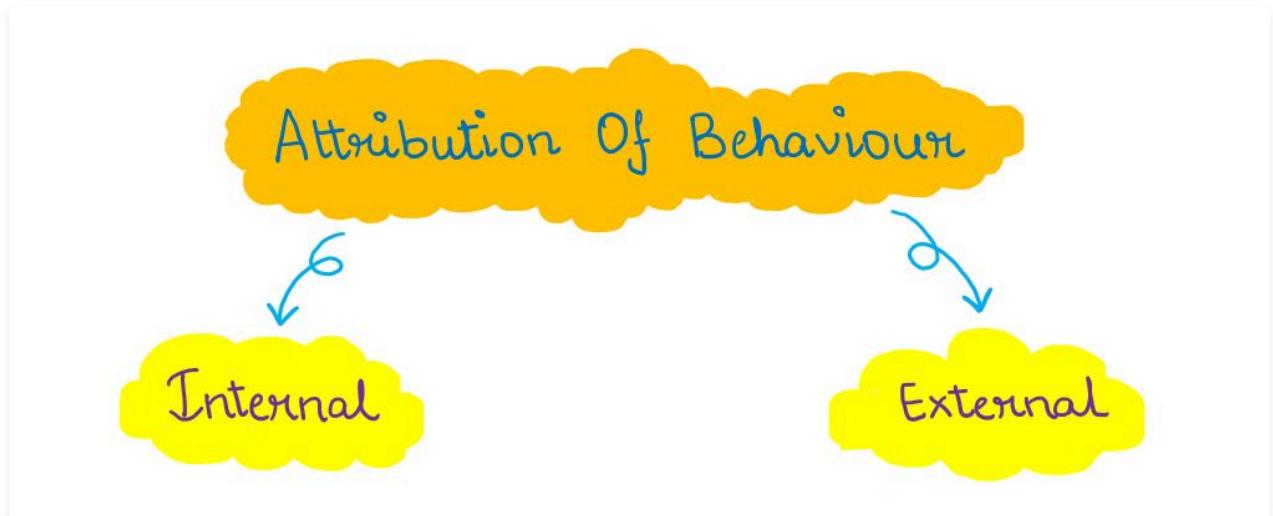
Interpretation is the final stage in the process of perception, where meaning is assigned to the perceived stimuli. This is a subjective and judgmental process, influenced by factors such as the halo effect, stereotyping, attribution, impression, and inference. The interpretation of the perceived stimuli is crucial to understanding and making sense of the world around us.

It's worth mentioning that perceptual threshold, habituation, and perceptual filters are all related to the mechanism of selection in perception.

The *perceptual threshold* refers to the minimum intensity of stimulation that an individual must receive to perceive a stimulus, while *habituation* refers to the process of becoming less sensitive to a stimulus over time. *Perceptual filters* refer to the preconceptions and biases that individuals bring to the perception process, shaping what they choose to attend to and how they interpret the stimuli they perceive.

4. Theory of Attribution

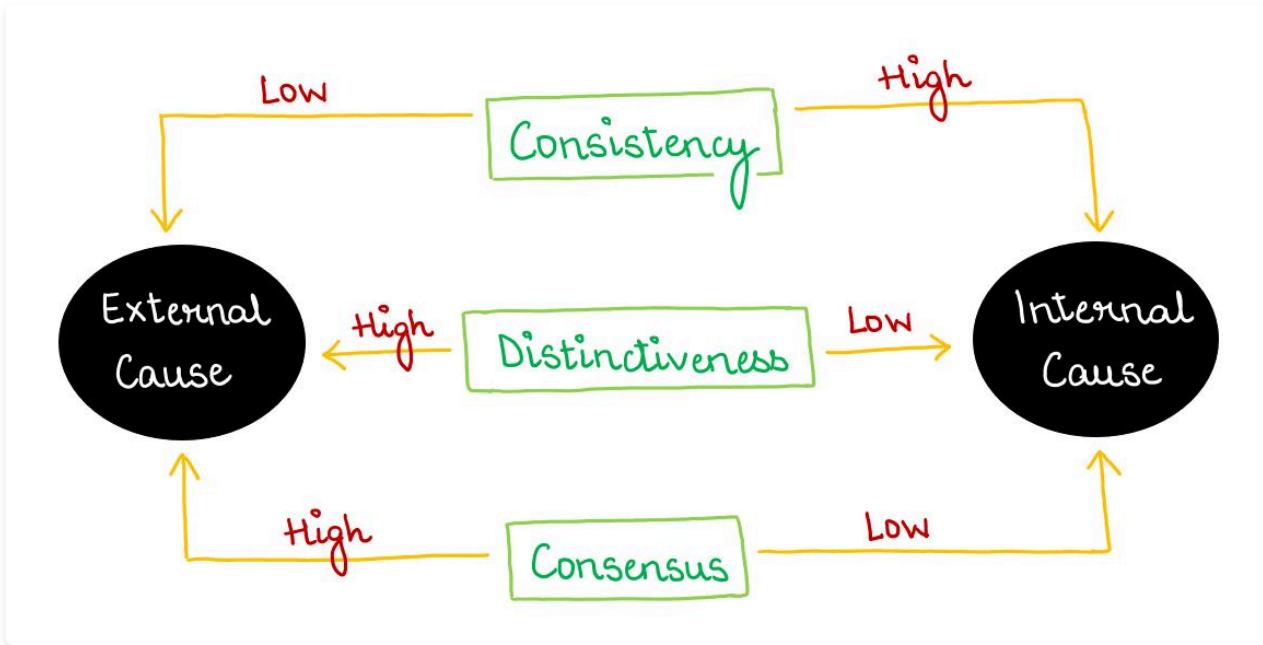
Attribution is an important concept for understanding perception, as it is related to judging the causes of others' behaviour. An inaccurate attribution may lead to inaccurate perception. Our perceptions of what is happening in the environment depend very much on the attributions we make.



Attribution theory describes that when individuals observe behaviour, they attempt to determine whether it is internally or externally caused. **Internally caused behaviour** is those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual. **Externally caused behaviour** is seen as resulting from outside causes over which the individual has no control.

For instance, when someone succeeds at a task, attributing it to their skills (internal) or luck (external) impacts how we perceive their abilities.

4. Theory of Attribution



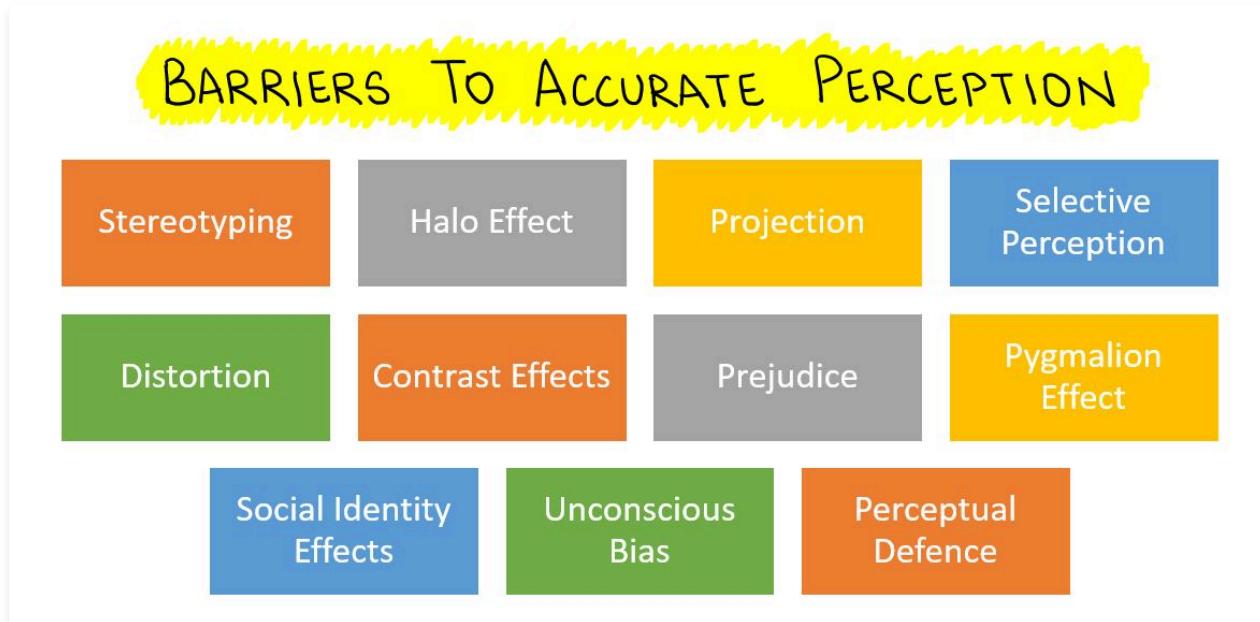
Kelly's Theory of Causal Attribution explains that in determining whether others' behaviour stems mainly from internal or external causes, we focus on three types of information: Distinctiveness, Consensus and Consistency.

1. **Distinctiveness** is extent to which a person behaves in the same manner in other contexts. If one behaves the same way in other situations, distinctiveness is low; if one behaves differently, distinctiveness is high. If a particular behaviour is unusual, an observer is likely to give the behaviour an external attribution. If the action is not unusual, it will be perhaps judged as internal.
2. **Consensus** is the extent to which other people behave in the same manner as the person we are judging. If others do behave similarly, consensus is considered, high; if they do not, consensus is considered low. If consensus were high, you would be expected to give external attribution, and if consensus is low, you tend to give internal attribution.
3. **Consistency** is tendency to respond the same way over time. Consistency also may be high or low. The more consistent the behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal causes and vice-versa.

When we make judgements about the behaviour of other people, we have tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors, in case of less than optimum performance by others. This is called the *fundamental attribution error* and was given by Jones and Nisbett.

There is also a tendency for individuals to attribute their own successes to internal factors such as ability or effort while putting the blame for failure on external factors such as luck. This is called the *self-serving bias*.

5. Barriers to Accurate Perception



Barriers to accurate perception are mental obstacles that prevent a person from accurately perceiving reality. These barriers can lead to misunderstandings and incorrect conclusions. Some of the common barriers to accurate perception are:

1. **Stereotyping:** This is the act of making assumptions about a person based on their group membership, which can be misleading.
2. **Halo Effect:** This is the tendency to form an overall impression of someone based on one single characteristic.
3. **Similar-to-me effect or Projection:** This is the tendency to perceive people who are similar to oneself more favorably than those who are different.
4. **Selective Perception:** This occurs when people selectively interpret what they observe based on their own experiences, interests, and attitudes.
5. **Distortion:** This is when a person alters or avoids what they see if it threatens or contradicts their self-concept.
6. **Contrast Effects:** This is when a person's evaluation of someone's characteristics is influenced by comparisons to others who have recently been encountered and ranked higher or lower on the same characteristics.
7. **Prejudice:** This is a preconceived opinion or attitude about a person or group, often based on limited or incorrect information.
8. **Self-fulfilling Prophecy/Pygmalion Effect:** This is when a person's expectations about someone else influences their own behavior and, in turn, the other person's behavior and outcome.
9. **Social Identity Effects:** This occurs when a person's perception of someone is influenced by the social group to which they belong.
10. **Unconscious Bias:** This is a type of implicit bias that occurs without conscious awareness.
11. **Perceptual Defence:** This is the act of unconsciously distorting or avoiding information that is perceived as threatening or discomforting.

6. Developing Perceptual Skills

We have already observed that when our perceptions are distorted, our judgement of the objects, persons, or of the situations may go wrong. Therefore there is a need to develop our perceptual skills, so that the gap between our perceptions and the actual facts may be minimized. Now, we shall discuss techniques to enhance our perceptual skills.

Giving Feedback and Receiving Feedback: Perceptual skills can be improved by knowing about ourselves through receiving feedback, and let people know how do you feel about them through giving feedback.

Having Empathy: Empathy is not sympathy. Sympathy to some extent is to feel pity about others, whereas empathy means rising above our perceptual frame and making an attempt to comprehend the issues from others' perspective.

Having Positive Attitudes: Positive attitudes create right perspective, and helps perceiver to perceive without distortion.

Enhancing Self-Concept: Enhancing self-concept and self-esteem help one to treat others with respect and with right perspective.

Avoiding Common Biases: A conscious effort to get rid of common biases helps to get rid of distorted perceptions.

Communication: Lack of communication is a common cause of distorted perception. Creating an atmosphere of open and authentic communication help to develop perceptual skills of individuals.

1. Introduction



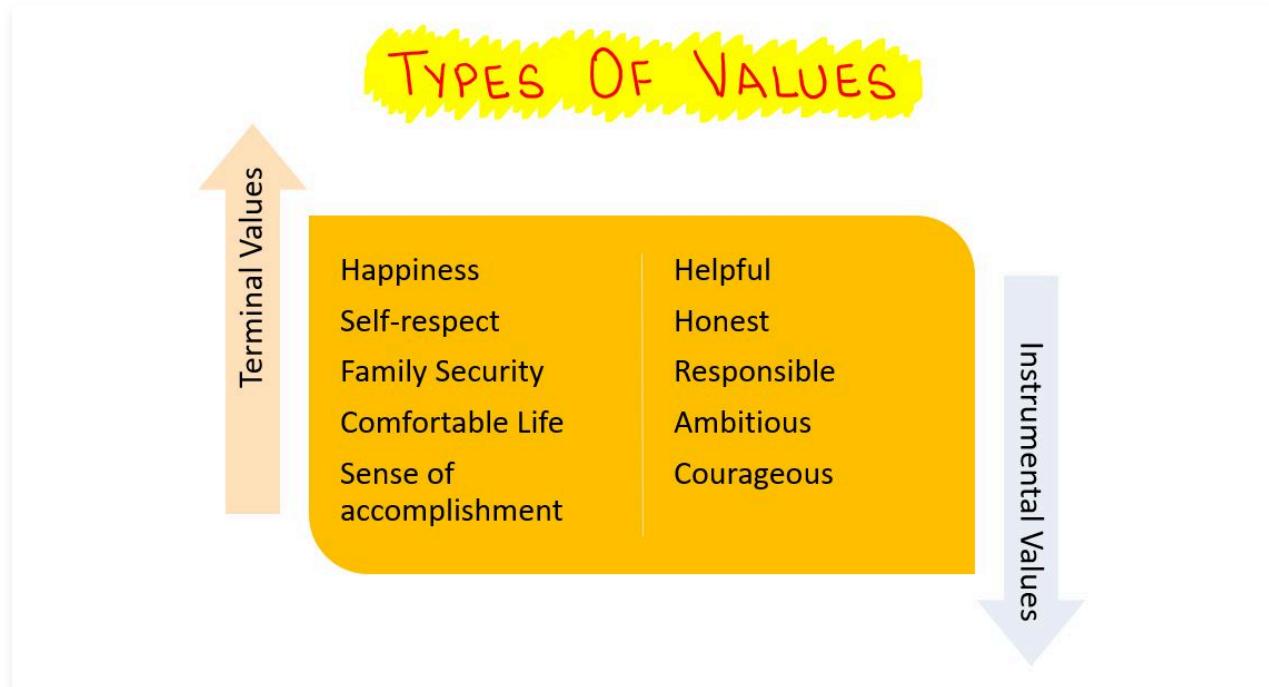
Values play a crucial role in shaping a person's attitudes, perceptions, and personality. They consist of a judgmental aspect of what is considered right, good, or desirable. The two key attributes of values are content and intensity. The content attribute refers to what is important, while the intensity attribute refers to the degree of importance.

According to **Edward Spranger**, values are a combination of likes, dislikes, perspectives, inner inclinations, rational and irrational judgments, prejudices, and association patterns that determine a person's view of the world.

M. Rokeach defines values as a preferred mode of conduct or end-state of existence, either personally or socially, in comparison to an opposing mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

The study of values is important because it influences various aspects of a person's life, such as attitudes, perceptions, motivation, evaluations, interpersonal relationships, behavior, conflict handling styles, and leadership patterns. In short, values form the foundation of an individual's behavior pattern.

2. Types of Values



Rokeach categorizes values into two broad categories:

1. **Terminal values:** Terminal values refer to the ends to be achieved, such as a comfortable life, family security, self-respect, and a sense of accomplishment.
2. **Instrumental values:** Instrumental values refer to the means for achieving the desired ends, such as ambition, courage, honesty, and imagination.

Terminal values reflect what an individual is ultimately striving for, while instrumental values reflect the individual's approach to achieve these ends.

1. Introduction



Personality refers to the set of enduring patterns of thoughts, emotions, and behaviors that characterize an individual and distinguish them from others. It encompasses various traits, attitudes, motivations, and cognitive patterns that shape how a person perceives and interacts with the world. Personality is relatively stable over time but can evolve in response to experiences and life events.

Some of key definitions of personality are:

The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment -- (Allport, 1937)

That which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation – (Cattell, 1965)

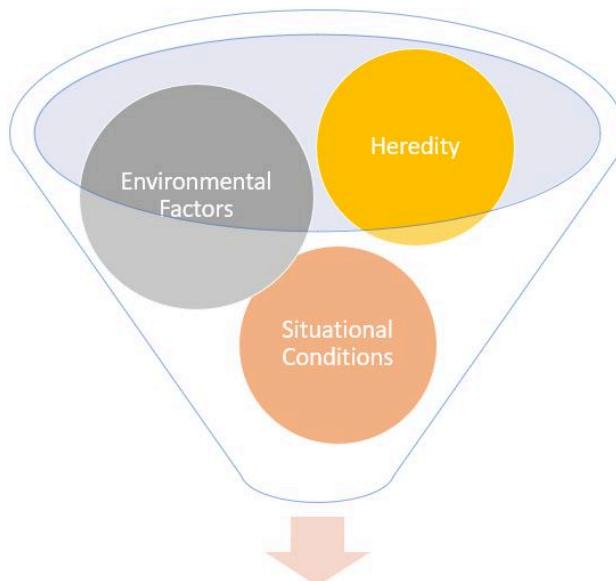
One's habits and usual style, but also...ability to play roles -- (Cronbach, 1984)

Personality traits are the key antecedent of an individual's cognitions and affective states that may influence his or her task and interpersonal or socio-emotional role behavior (in teams) – (Moynihan and Peterson, 2001)

Some of key characteristics of Personality are:

1. Personality is stable and consistent. It does not change from one day to another.
 2. Personality involves both psychological and physiological traits.
 3. Personality is not just about behaviours but also are thoughts, feelings, relationships etc.
-

2. Factors Affecting Personality



The factors affecting personality are listed below:

1. **Heredity:** Heredity refers to the biological, physiological, and inherent psychological makeup that is determined at conception. Characteristics such as physical stature, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are largely influenced by an individual's parents. The heredity approach argues that genetics plays a significant role in determining an individual's personality.
2. **Environmental factors:** Environmental factors, such as the culture in which an individual is raised, early conditioning, norms among family and social groups, and other life experiences, play a substantial role in shaping personality. For example, the cultural values and norms of North America, which emphasize industriousness, success, competition, independence, and the Protestant work ethic, can result in individuals who are ambitious and aggressive.
3. **Situational conditions:** Situational conditions also play a role in influencing personality. Although an individual's personality is generally stable and consistent, it can change in different situations. The demands of different situations may bring forth different aspects of an individual's personality. It is important to consider the context in which personality patterns are observed.

In conclusion, both heredity and environment are important in shaping an individual's personality. Heredity sets the parameters or outer limits, but the individual's full potential is determined by how well they adjust to the demands and requirements of the environment. The situation in which an individual finds themselves can also have an impact on their personality.

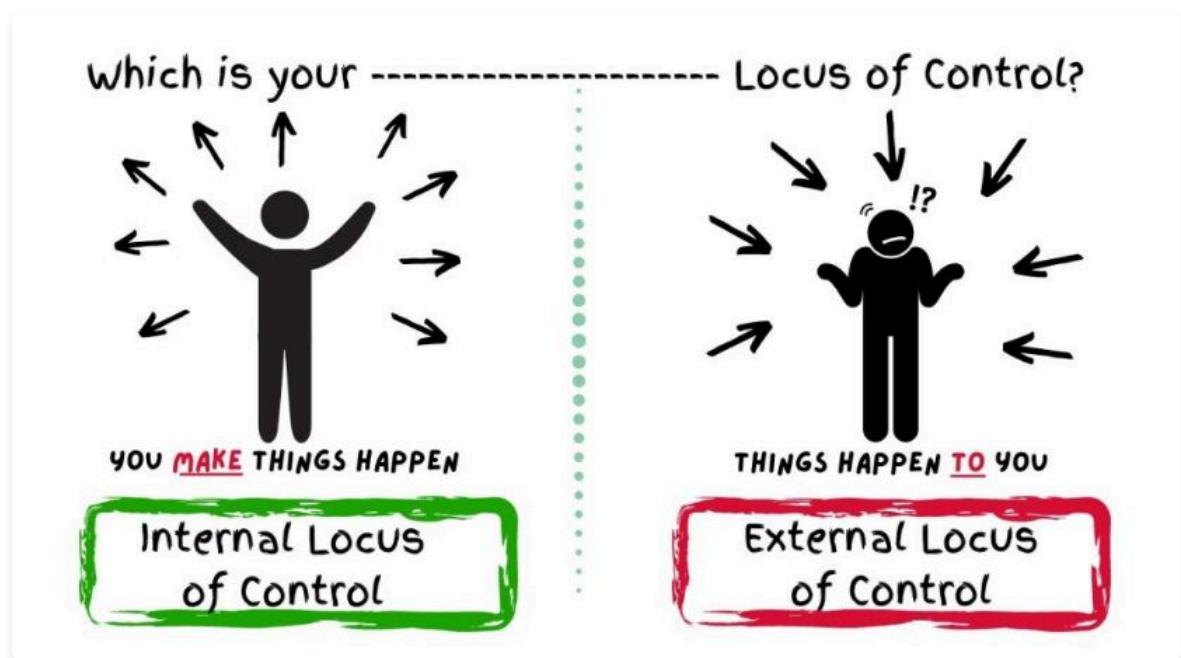
3. Personality Orientations



Personality Orientations are traits and characteristics that have significant implications for organizations. Some of the key orientations include:

- 1. Need for Achievement :** Every person has a need to achieve (nAch) phenomenon in their personality. Individuals with a high degree of nAch are typically highly dominant, ambitious, hardworking, and goal-oriented. They set high goals for themselves and work tirelessly to achieve them.
- 2. Authoritarianism and Dogmatism :** Authoritarianism is a personality trait where people place a high value on power and status differentials in their behavior towards both subordinates and superiors. Authoritarian employees willingly follow orders without much understanding or faith in them. Dogmatism, on the other hand, refers to the rigidity of a person's beliefs and their openness to other viewpoints. Close-minded individuals are more dogmatic in their beliefs, while open-minded individuals are less so.
- 3. Self-esteem and Self-concept:** Self-esteem refers to the extent to which individuals view themselves as capable, successful, important, and worthy. This personality factor plays a significant role in how managers perceive themselves and their role in the organization. High self-esteem leads to a high sense of self-concept, which reinforces high self-esteem, creating a positive feedback loop.
- 4. Machiavellianism :** This orientation is based on the writings of a Greek political advisor named Machiavelli. He argued that it is better to be feared than loved. Machiavellian individuals tend to be logical in assessing the system around them, willing to twist facts to influence others, and trying to gain control by manipulating the system to their advantage.
- 5. Risk Propensity :** Risk propensity refers to the degree to which an individual is willing to take risks and make risky decisions. A manager with a high-risk propensity might experiment with new ideas and lead the organization in new directions. In contrast, a manager with a low-risk propensity might lead to a stagnant and conservative organization.
- 6. Self-Monitoring :** This refers to an individual's ability to adjust their behavior to different social situations. High self-monitors are good at adapting to changing social norms and expectations, while low self-monitors are less able to do so.

3. Personality Orientations



The locus of control refers to an individual's perception of what controls his or her fate. It refers to the degree to which people believe that they can control their fate or any situation. This concept, Locus of Control was developed by Julian B. Rotter in the 1960s.

Some people believe that they are masters of their own fate while some believe that their fate is controlled by luck, chance or external forces. The former, known as **internals**, attribute an internal locus of control to organizational outcomes. The latter, known as **externals**, attribute an external locus of control to organizational outcomes.

Research conducted on internals and externals revealed some interesting facts.

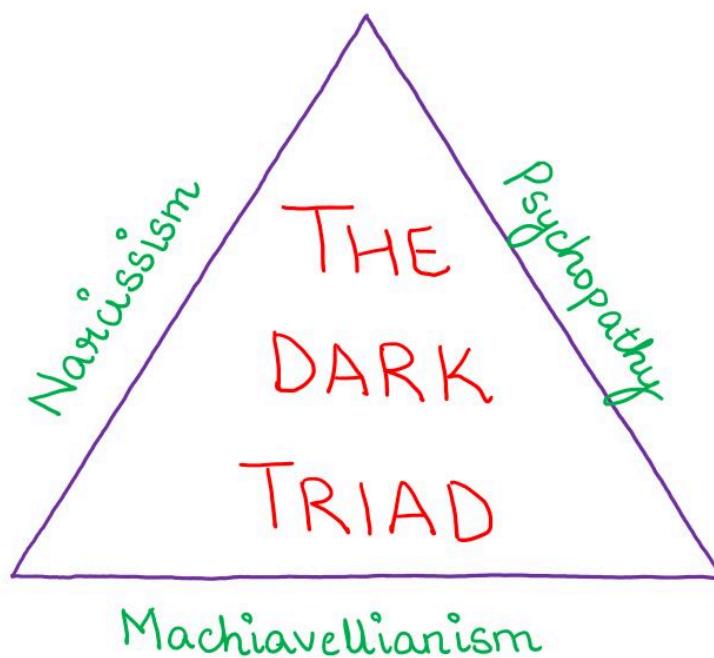
It was found that externals were dissatisfied with their jobs, showed little commitment to work and were frequently absent from work. Internals, however, were committed to their work, had a low rate of absenteeism, and were highly satisfied with their job.

Externals perceived themselves as having minimal control over organizational outcomes and failed to make attempts to improve the outcome. Internals, however, believed that they themselves could shape their future. They attributed their success or failure to their internal abilities, not to external factors.

Externals who were unable to go up the career ladder in their organizations blamed the management and fate for then- failure; however, internals attributed their failure to their own actions and tried to learn new skills to improve their prospects for promotion or quit their jobs to look for better ones.

Weiner however, contended that the concepts of "locus" and "control" are distinct and therefore should be separated; and he named the first dimension of causes as "Locus of causality" and second as "controllability". The **locus of causality** dimension underlines the internal-external description of causes. Ability, effort, mood and patience, for example, are properties internal to the person, whereas task difficulty, luck and teacher bias are external or environmental causes. The **Controllability** refers to whether the cause is controllable or uncontrollable

3. Personality Orientations



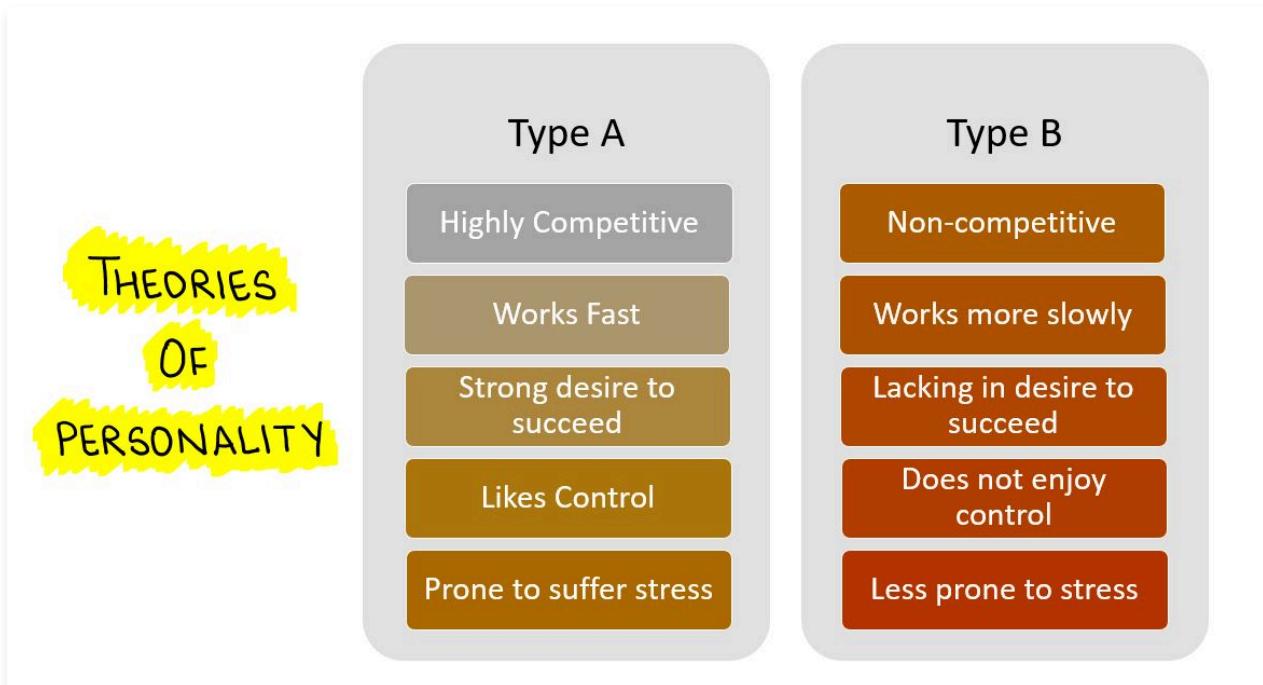
The Dark Triad refers to a set of three personality traits considered socially undesirable, which are discussed next.

1. **Machiavellianism** refers to individuals who are pragmatic and maintain emotional distance, believing the ends justify the means. High-Mach individuals are known to manipulate others, win more and persuade others, but may also engage in counterproductive work behaviors. An example of a Machiavellian behavior in the workplace might be an individual who manipulates their coworkers to get ahead, by spreading rumors or playing office politics.
2. **Narcissism** is characterized by a grandiose sense of self-importance, excessive admiration requirement, entitlement, and arrogance. Narcissists are more likely to engage in self-promoting behavior and counterproductive work behaviors, and are seen as unethical and ineffective in highly ethical contexts. An example of a narcissistic behavior in the workplace could be a manager who constantly seeks attention and praise, and insists on having their ideas and opinions heard above others, regardless of their merit.
3. **Psychopathy** refers to a lack of concern for others and guilt or remorse when actions cause harm. Research has found that psychopaths are more likely to engage in unethical behavior, conflicts and be less successful in the long-term. An example of a psychopathic behavior in the workplace might be an employee who lacks empathy and lacks concern for others, and is willing to engage in unethical or illegal activities to advance their own interests.

4. Theories of Personality

Let us now discuss some of prominent theories of Personality, one by one.

5. Type A and Type B Theory



Type A and Type B personality theory describes two contrasting personality types. Type A personality behavior was first described as a potential risk factor for heart disease in the 1950s by cardiologists *Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman*.

Type A

Type A individuals are outgoing, ambitious, rigidly organized, highly status-conscious, sensitive, impatient, anxious, proactive, and concerned with time management. People with Type A personalities are often high-achieving "workaholics". They push themselves with deadlines and hate both delays and ambivalence. People with Type A personalities experience more job-related stress and less job satisfaction.

In his 1996, book dealing with extreme Type A behavior, "Type A Behavior: Its Diagnosis and Treatment", Friedman suggests that dangerous Type A behavior is expressed through three major symptoms:

- (i) free-floating hostility, which can be triggered by even minor incidents;
- (ii) time urgency and impatience, which causes irritation and exasperation usually described as being "short-fused"; and
- (iii) a competitive drive, which causes stress and an achievement-driven mentality.

There are two main methods to assessing Type A behaviour: SI and Jenkins Activity Survey (JAS). The *SI assessment* involves an interviewer measuring a person's emotional, non-verbal and verbal responses (your expressive style). The *JAS* involves a self-questionnaire with three main categories: Speed and Impatience, Job Involvement, and Hard-Driving Competitiveness.

Type B

The theory describes Type B individuals as a contrast to those of Type A. Type B personality, by definition, are noted to live at lower stress levels. They typically work steadily, and may enjoy achievement, although they have a greater tendency to disregard physical or mental stress when they do not achieve.

When faced with competition, they may focus less on winning or losing than their Type A counterparts, and more on enjoying the game regardless of winning or losing. Unlike the Type A personality's rhythm of multi-tasked careers, Type B individuals are sometimes attracted to careers of creativity: writer, counselor, therapist, actor or actress. However, network and computer systems managers, professors, and judges are more likely to be Type B individuals as well. Their personal character may enjoy exploring ideas and concepts.

Overall, Type B personalities are characterized by their ability to explore ideas and concepts, whereas Type A individuals are driven by the need for achievement and a competitive spirit.

6. Carl Jung's Theory

Carl Gustav Jung was a Swiss psychiatrist and a former close associate of Sigmund Freud. While both focused on the unconscious mind, Jung developed a broader theory called *Analytical Psychology*. His ideas went beyond personal experiences and emphasized the universal patterns of human behavior found across cultures and generations.

Jung believed that personality development is a lifelong journey, not limited to childhood. He focused on the interaction between the conscious and unconscious mind, the presence of archetypes, the process of individuation, and different psychological types that shape how people perceive the world.

Key elements of Jung's Theory of Personality include:

- (i) Structure of Psyche
 - (ii) Archetypes
 - (iii) Psychological Types
-

6. Carl Jung's Theory

Jung divided the human mind (or psyche) into three major parts: the Ego, the Personal Unconscious, and the Collective Unconscious. These parts are constantly interacting and together shape one's behavior and personality.

- The *Ego* represents the conscious mind — our sense of identity and self-awareness.
- The *Personal Unconscious* holds forgotten memories, repressed experiences, and emotional patterns called complexes.
- The *Collective Unconscious* is the deepest level of the psyche, shared by all humans, and contains universal symbols called archetypes.

Ego – The Conscious Self

The ego is the part of the mind that we are most aware of. It includes our present thoughts, perceptions, memories, and emotions. The ego gives us our sense of identity — the feeling that we are the same person from one day to the next.

The ego helps us make decisions, interact with the outside world, and create our personal story. According to Jung, the ego is essential for daily functioning, but it is only a small part of our overall personality.

Personal Unconscious – Hidden Memories

Below the ego lies the personal unconscious, which contains experiences, thoughts, and feelings that we were once aware of but have since forgotten or repressed. It includes both positive and negative memories and emotions.

A key feature of the personal unconscious is the presence of complexes — emotional patterns formed around specific life themes. For example, someone with an inferiority complex may feel constant self-doubt and seek excessive approval.

For example, if someone was humiliated during a school performance, they may avoid public speaking as an adult, even without remembering the original event.

Collective Unconscious – Shared Human Experience

The collective unconscious is Jung's most original idea. Unlike the personal unconscious, this layer of the mind is inherited and universal. It contains shared patterns and instincts that are present in all people, regardless of their culture or background.

Jung called the elements of the collective unconscious archetypes — symbolic images that appear in myths, religion, dreams, and art around the world. These include common figures like the Hero, the Mother, the Wise Old Man, and the Shadow.

6. Carl Jung's Theory

Jung described many archetypes, but four are especially central to understanding personality:

1. *The Persona*: The Persona is the "mask" we wear in public — the version of ourselves that we show to others to fit into society. It helps us function socially but can hide our true feelings if we rely on it too much. For example, a person may act confident and friendly at work but feel insecure inside.
2. *The Shadow*: The Shadow contains the parts of ourselves that we reject or deny, such as anger, jealousy, or selfishness. These traits are often hidden but influence our behavior unless we bring them to awareness. For example, someone who avoids conflict might secretly hold resentment, which can appear suddenly in outbursts.
3. *The Anima and The Animus*: The Anima is the feminine side of a man's personality, while the Animus is the masculine side of a woman's personality. Jung believed that acknowledging these inner opposites helps us understand ourselves more deeply. For example, a man who embraces emotional sensitivity (anima) or a woman who develops assertiveness (animus) is showing personal growth.
4. *The Self*: The Self represents unity, wholeness, and balance among all parts of the psyche. It is the final goal of personality development — to become one's true, authentic self. For example, a person who has accepted both their strengths and flaws and lives with inner peace is expressing the Self.

Individuation – Becoming Your True Self

Individuation is the process of integrating all parts of the psyche — ego, personal unconscious, and collective unconscious — to achieve wholeness. It involves becoming aware of hidden aspects of the self and living in alignment with one's inner truth.

This process requires facing the Shadow, understanding one's archetypes, and balancing emotions, thoughts, and instincts. Jung believed that individuation is not about becoming perfect but about becoming whole.

For example, a person who realizes they've followed a career path based on others' expectations may start exploring what they truly love — this is the beginning of individuation.

Jung's Theory of Libido

Carl Jung developed a broader and more flexible understanding of *libido* compared to Sigmund Freud. While Freud believed that libido was purely sexual energy, Jung disagreed and proposed that libido is general psychic energy — a life force that powers all aspects of human behavior and growth.

According to Jung, libido is the driving force behind our thoughts, actions, and emotions. It is not just about seeking physical pleasure, but also about the desire for knowledge, creativity, achievement, spiritual growth, and meaningful relationships. In this sense, libido is much more than just sexual drive — it is the total energy of life itself.

Jung saw libido as a motivating energy that flows through the psyche and helps people move toward wholeness and self-realization. For example, when someone is deeply involved in writing poetry, starting a new business, or finding their purpose in life, they are using libido to fuel those efforts.

He also believed that libido plays an important role in the process of individuation — the journey of becoming one's true, authentic self. This process requires balancing different parts of the personality (like the ego, the shadow, the anima/animus) and directing energy toward personal development.

Another key point in Jung's theory is that libido helps in psychic self-regulation. When there is an inner conflict or emotional imbalance, the psyche automatically directs libido toward that area to restore harmony. This energy helps people adapt, grow, and heal from psychological stress.

According to Jung, libido helps resolve inner conflicts and pushes us toward development and self-realization.

6. Carl Jung's Theory

Carl Jung's Personality Theory, outlined in his book "Psychological Types," categorizes individuals into primary types of psychological function.

	Perceiving		Judging	
	Sensation	Intuition	Thinking	Feeling
Extraversion	ES	EI	ET	EF
Introversion	IS	II	IT	IF

According to Jung, there are two main functions of consciousness: perceiving and judging.

The perceiving functions are divided into two categories: sensation and intuition. **Sensation** is concerned with the physical senses and the perception of tangible, concrete reality. **Intuition**, on the other hand, is concerned with the perception of abstract, intangible ideas and concepts.

The judging functions are also divided into two categories: thinking and feeling. **Thinking** is concerned with logic and reason, while **feeling** is concerned with emotions and values.

Jung believed that the dominant function characterizes consciousness, while its opposite is repressed and characterizes unconscious behavior. The two main attitude types - **extraversion** and **introversion** - modify these functions.

For example, an individual with extraverted sensation as their dominant function would have a strong focus on external experiences and sensations. Meanwhile, an individual with introverted intuition as their dominant function would have a focus on exploring their own internal world and abstract concepts.

In total, Jung identified 8 different psychological types, each characterized by a combination of the four main functions of consciousness and the two main attitude types.

These eight types are:

1. Extraverted sensation (ES),
2. Introverted sensation (IS),
3. Extraverted intuition (EI),
4. Introverted intuition (II),
5. Extraverted thinking (ET),
6. Introverted thinking (IT),
7. Extraverted feeling (EF), and
8. Introverted feeling (IF).

7. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was developed by Katharine Cook Briggs and her daughter Isabel Briggs Myers. It is based on the personality theory proposed by Carl Gustav Jung, who suggested that humans experience the world using four principal psychological functions – Sensing, Intuition, Thinking, and Feeling – and that one of these functions tends to be dominant in a person.

MBTI is one of the most widely used personality frameworks in the world. It classifies individuals on four preference pairs, resulting in 16 possible personality types (for example, ENTJ).

Four Preference Pairs in MBTI

- **Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I)** – where people focus their attention and get energy
- **Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N)** – how people prefer to gather and interpret information
- **Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F)** – how people prefer to make decisions
- **Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P)** – how people prefer to deal with the external world

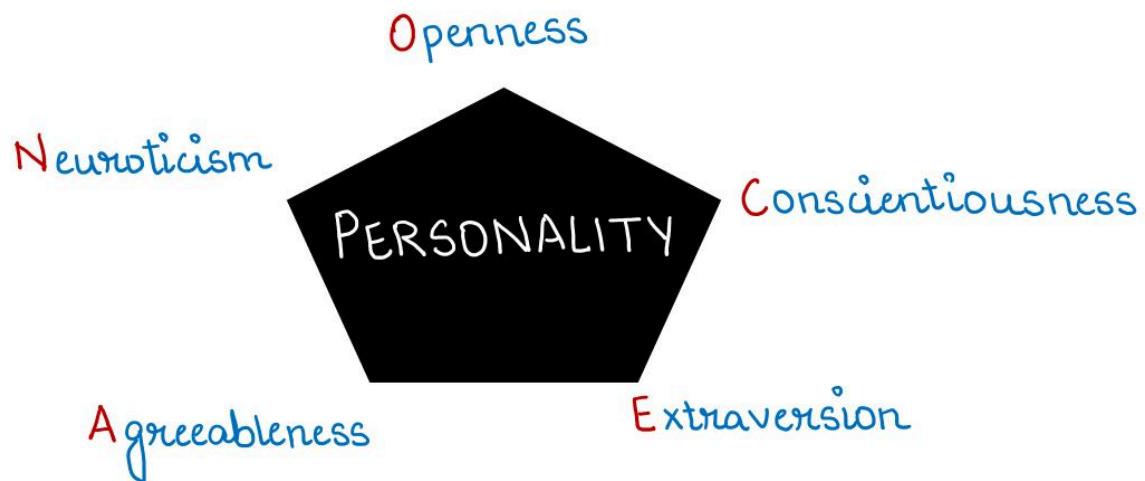
ISTJ Salt of the earth	ISFJ Behind-the-scenes leader	INFJ Oracle for people	INTJ Designer of the future
ISTP Walking encyclopedia	ISFP Gentle Spirit	INFP Valued crusader	INTP Blueprinter of ideas
ESTP Self-starter	ESFP Everyone's friend	ENFP Spark of energy	ENTP Classic Entrepreneur
ESTJ Take-charge leader	ESFJ Servant leader	ENFJ Valued Spokesperson	ENTJ Grand-scale organiser

The 16 personality types at a glance

1. ISTJ – Responsible Realist: organised, thorough, duty-first
2. ISFJ – Caring Stabiliser: patient, supportive, detail-careful
3. INFJ – Insightful Guide: big-picture + people-focused, purposeful
4. INTJ – Strategic Architect: systems, long-range, independent
5. ISTP – Tactical Troubleshooter: hands-on, calm under pressure
6. ISFP – Gentle Creator: values-driven, aesthetic, adaptable
7. INFP – Idealistic Mediator: meaning-seeking, empathetic, imaginative
8. INTP – Conceptual Analyst: curious, precise, theory-builder
9. ESTP – Energetic Improviser: action-oriented, pragmatic, bold
10. ESFP – Enthusiastic Entertainer: people-centric, experiential, upbeat
11. ENFP – Possibility Explorer: ideas + people, inspiring, spontaneous
12. ENTP – Inventive Debater: challenger of assumptions, innovative
13. ESTJ – Decisive Organiser: results, structure, accountability
14. ESFJ – Community Builder: considerate, coordinating, reliable
15. ENFJ – Purposeful Mentor: motivating, diplomatic, growth-minded
16. ENTJ – Commanding Strategist: decisive, goal-driven, systems leader

The MBTI is practically used for self-awareness, career guidance, team building, communication improvement, leadership development, and conflict resolution, as it helps individuals understand their own preferences and appreciate differences in others; however, it is not a tool for hiring, firing, judging performance, measuring skills or intelligence, or diagnosing mental health conditions, and should never be used to label or limit people.

8. Big Five Model

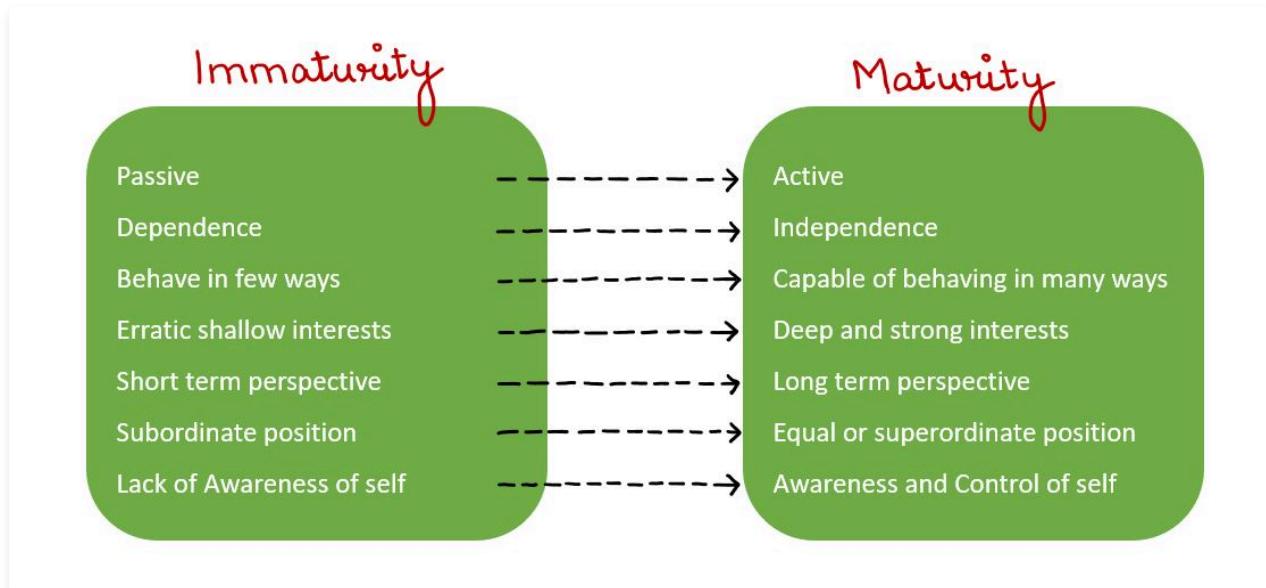


Big Five factors of personality are five broad domains which define human personality and account for individual differences. This model is also known as the "Five Factor" theory. The Big Five factors of personality model was first introduced in 1961 by Ernest Tupes and Raymond Christal, however, it did not gain recognition in academic circles until the 1990s. J.M. Digman advanced the model by proposing a five-factor theory of personality, which was later developed by Lewis Goldberg.

The Big Five traits are (called OCEAN) :

1. **Openness** : This factor refers to an individual's willingness to experience new things and learn new information. People who score high in openness tend to be imaginative and insightful and have a wide range of interests.
2. **Conscientiousness** : This factor is a measure of an individual's reliability and promptness. People who are high in conscientiousness are well-organized and methodical and take a thorough approach to their tasks.
3. **Extraversion** : This factor relates to an individual's need for social interaction. Those who score high in extraversion tend to be energetic, talkative, and assertive and derive their energy from interacting with others.
4. **Agreeableness** : This factor is a measure of an individual's friendliness and cooperativeness. People who score high in agreeableness tend to be kind, affectionate, and sympathetic, while those with low agreeableness may be more distant.
5. **Neuroticism** : This factor, also known as emotional stability, relates to an individual's ability to handle negative emotions. People who score high in neuroticism tend to experience emotional instability and negative emotions and may be prone to moodiness and tension. Introduction: The Big Five factors of personality are a widely accepted theory in psychology that seeks to explain the different personality traits of individuals. This model is also known as the "Five Factor" theory.

9. Maturity Immaturity Theory



Chris Argyris introduced the Maturity Theory of Personality. The theory asserts that an individual's growth occurs through a continuous progression from an immature state to a mature state. A mature individual is described as being proactive, self-sufficient, confident, and in control of themselves, while an immature individual is described as passive, dependent, lacking confidence, and requiring control from others.

Argyris believed that managers who display positive behavior and act as responsible adults would experience increased productivity. He suggested that common issues such as employee absenteeism, lack of motivation, alienation, and low morale may be indicative of a disconnect between management practices and the mature adult personality. To address this, he proposed expanding job responsibilities, incorporating more task variety, and modifying supervisory styles to encourage participation and improve interpersonal relationships.

Argyris believed that for individuals to develop into mature individuals, changes needed to occur within their personality. These changes occur along a continuum, with the healthy personality developing from immaturity to maturity over time.

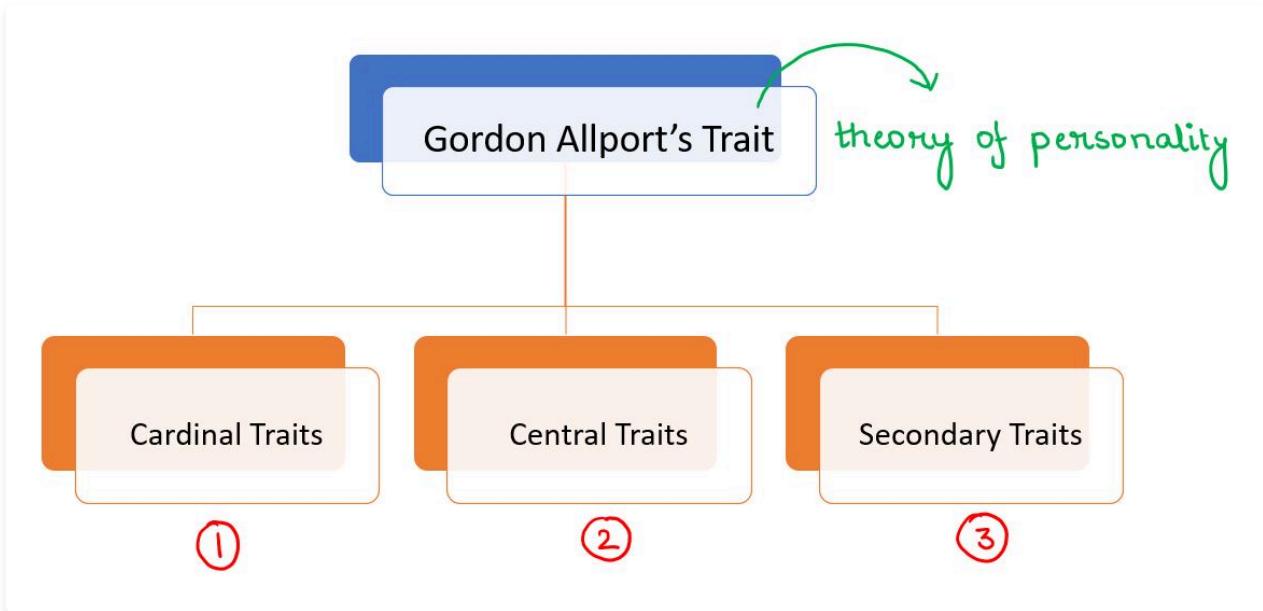
10. Trait approach of personality

The trait theory of Personality views personality as being made up of stable, underlying traits that influence behavior consistently across various situations and over time. It posits that these traits are a result of genetic differences among individuals and remain consistent. The emphasis on this approach is the measurement of personality through psychometric tests, which yield continuous numerical scores indicating the presence of traits.

Examples of trait theorists include Gordon Allport, who popularized the term "trait" in psychology, and Raymond Cattell, who developed the 16 Personality Factor (16PF) questionnaire.

Another prominent figure in this area is Hans Eysenck, who proposed the concept of introversion-extraversion as a basic dimension of personality.

10. Trait approach of personality



Gordon Allport's trait theory of personality asserts that personality is composed of individual traits, which are stable and enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that differentiate one person from another. According to Allport, there are three types of traits:

1. **Cardinal Traits:** Cardinal traits are dominant and pervasive traits that shape an individual's entire life. These traits are so influential that they determine an individual's entire behavior and life path. Examples of cardinal traits include being extremely extraverted, highly ambitious, or extremely conscientious.
2. **Central Traits:** Central traits are the most basic and general aspects of personality that define an individual's basic tendencies. These traits include qualities such as honesty, kindness, and extraversion. Allport believed that central traits are relatively few in number and are the building blocks of personality. For example, a person who is consistently honest, responsible, and dependable may be said to have strong central traits of responsibility and dependability.
3. **Secondary Traits:** Secondary traits are more specific and less pervasive than central traits. They are traits that are only expressed in certain situations and are therefore less stable and enduring than central traits. Examples of secondary traits include anxiety, moodiness, and selfishness. For example, a person who is usually easy-going but becomes anxious in high-pressure situations may be said to have a secondary trait of anxiety.

10. Trait approach of personality

Raymond Cattell was a prominent psychologist who believed that personality could be understood scientifically. He used a statistical technique called factor analysis to study a large list of descriptive words about human behavior. Starting with Allport's 4,500 traits, Cattell narrowed them down to 16 core personality factors. These factors, he believed, could explain the basic structure of every person's personality.

Sixteen Personality Factors (16PF)

Cattell organized his findings into 16 pairs of opposite traits, each representing a spectrum along which an individual may fall. These dimensions describe different aspects of personality, such as emotional stability, openness, dominance, and sociability. Here are the 16 factors with both poles:

1. Reserved ↔ Outgoing
2. Less intelligent ↔ More intelligent
3. Emotionally stable ↔ Emotional/neurotic
4. Humble ↔ Assertive
5. Sober ↔ Cheerful (Happy-go-lucky)
6. Expedient ↔ Conscientious
7. Shy ↔ Venturesome
8. Tough-minded ↔ Tender-minded
9. Trusting ↔ Suspicious
10. Practical ↔ Imaginative
11. Forthright ↔ Shrewd
12. Placid ↔ Apprehensive
13. Conservative ↔ Experimenting
14. Group-dependent ↔ Self-sufficient
15. Undisciplined ↔ Controlled
16. Relaxed ↔ Tense

Each of these traits can be measured on a scale, showing how high or low a person is in that area. For example, someone could be highly conscientious but emotionally reactive.

16PF Personality Test

To assess these traits in individuals, Cattell, along with Eber and Tatsuoka, developed a psychological tool known as the *Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)*. This test is widely used in various settings, including:

- Career counseling
- Employee recruitment
- Psychological research
- Personality assessment in therapy

The 16PF is designed to give a full picture of a person's personality by measuring where they stand on each of the 16 factors. It is still used today and is considered one of the most comprehensive personality tests available.

Conclusion

Cattell's theory contributed significantly to the scientific understanding of personality by offering a detailed, measurable framework. His 16 personality factors provide a deeper insight into human behavior than broader models like the Big Five. The 16PF questionnaire remains a valuable tool in psychology and human resource development, helping people understand themselves and others more clearly.

10. Trait approach of personality

Hans Eysenck, along with his wife Sybil Eysenck, was a well-known psychologist who believed that our personality is strongly influenced by our biology and genetics. He said that each person has a natural temperament, which forms the base of their personality traits. These traits don't come from life experiences alone—they are inborn to a large extent.

To understand human personality, the Eysencks proposed that it can be measured along three major dimensions. These are:

- Extroversion vs. Introversion
- Neuroticism vs. Stability
- Psychoticism vs. Superego Control (added later)

Their theory is one of the earliest efforts to combine psychology with biology to explain individual differences in personality.

These are explained next.

Extroversion vs. Introversion

This dimension is about how individuals respond to the outside world, especially in social settings.

People who are *extroverted* are talkative, outgoing, enjoy being around others, and actively seek social interactions. They feel energized by group activities and usually have a wide circle of friends.

On the other hand, *introverted* people prefer peace and quiet. They enjoy spending time alone, are more thoughtful, and tend to form deep connections with a smaller group of friends. They do not seek stimulation from the external environment as much as extroverts do.

Eysenck believed that this difference comes from the way our nervous system responds to stimulation. Introverts are more sensitive to external stimuli, while extroverts need more stimulation to feel engaged.

Neuroticism vs. Emotional Stability

This second dimension focuses on how emotionally stable or unstable a person is.

A person *high in neuroticism* tends to experience emotions like fear, anger, guilt, or sadness more intensely and more frequently. They may be anxious, moody, or easily stressed, even in normal situations. Their bodies tend to react quickly with a "fight-or-flight" response.

In contrast, people *high in emotional stability* remain calm, relaxed, and emotionally balanced. They can handle stress better and don't get upset easily. They are not overly reactive and are seen as grounded and composed.

According to Eysenck, these emotional reactions are tied to the activity of the autonomic nervous system, which is more reactive in neurotic individuals.

The Four Personality Types (Eysenck's Circle Model)

By combining the two dimensions above—Extroversion/Introversion and Neuroticism/Stability—Eysenck created a circle model that describes four major personality types. These were inspired by the ancient Greek temperaments:

1. *Melancholic (Introverted + Neurotic)*: These individuals are often anxious, moody, quiet, and pessimistic. They may have self-doubts and take time to trust others.
2. *Choleric (Extroverted + Neurotic)*: These people are active, restless, and easily excited. They can be aggressive and short-tempered but are also energetic and goal-driven.
3. *Phlegmatic (Introverted + Stable)*: These individuals are calm, thoughtful, and dependable. They are peaceful and rarely get angry, but may be slow to take action or change.
4. *Sanguine (Extroverted + Stable)*: These people are cheerful, sociable, lively, and carefree. They enjoy new experiences and get along well with others.

This model helps explain how personality traits combine in unique ways, creating a variety of personality styles among individuals.

Psychoticism vs. Superego Control (Third Dimension)

Later, Eysenck added a third dimension to his theory—psychoticism vs. superego control.

People who are *high in psychotism* tend to be independent, impulsive, and may not follow social rules. They may show antisocial or aggressive behavior, and might lack empathy or emotional sensitivity.

On the other hand, individuals with *high superego control* are moral, caring, cooperative, and socially responsible. They think about others' feelings and usually follow rules and norms.

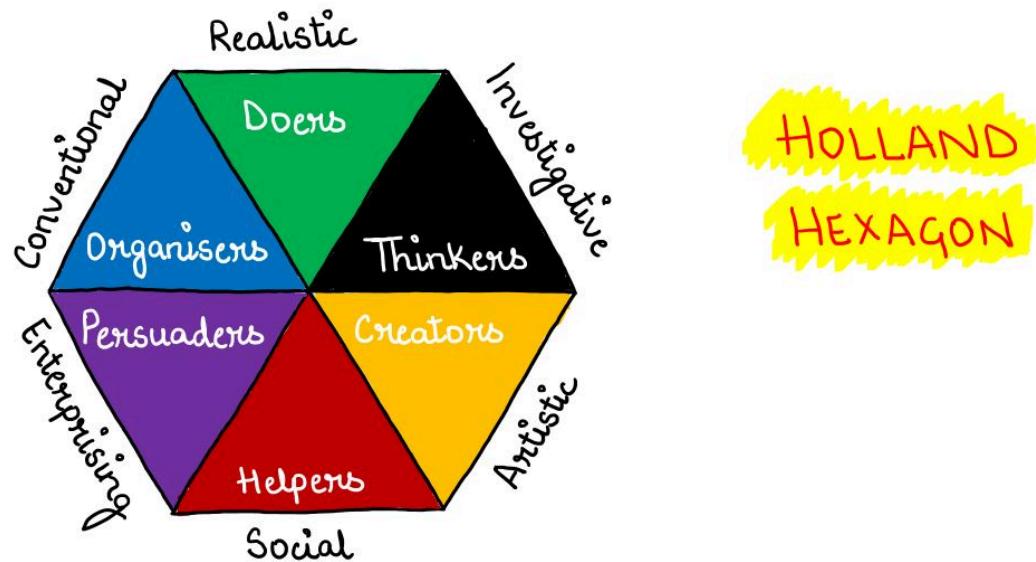
This dimension is useful to understand extreme or abnormal personality traits and is often considered in clinical settings to study disorders like antisocial personality or psychopathy.

Conclusion

Eysenck's personality theory gives a biological explanation of how personality is formed. By using three dimensions—extroversion, neuroticism, and psychotism—his model helps to categorize people into different personality types.

His theory was one of the first to link personality to brain functioning and nervous system activity. It also paved the way for future personality assessments like the Big Five Personality Traits and the MBTI.

11. Holland's Job Fit Theory



Holland's job fit theory of Personality explain how personality traits, interests, and values are related to different types of work environments. This theory is also known as the *Holland Code* or the *RIASEC Model*.

Holland's job fit theory of Personality includes 6 types of personality and work environments :

1. Realistic (R)

- Likes to work with animals, tools, or machines; generally avoids social activities like teaching, healing, and informing others;
- Has good skills in working with tools, mechanical or electrical drawings, machines, or plants and animals;
- Values practical things you can see, touch, and use like plants and animals, tools, equipment, or machines; and
- Sees self as practical, mechanical, and realistic.

2. Investigative (I)

- Likes to study and solve math or science problems; generally avoids leading, selling, or persuading people;
- Is good at understanding and solving science and math problems;
- Values science; and
- Sees self as precise, scientific, and intellectual.

3. Artistic (A)

- Likes to do creative activities like art, drama, crafts, dance, music, or creative writing; generally avoids highly ordered or repetitive activities;
- Has good artistic abilities -- in creative writing, drama, crafts, music, or art;
- Values the creative arts -- like drama, music, art, or the works of creative writers; and
- Sees self as expressive, original, and independent.

4. Social (S)

- Likes to do things to help people -- like, teaching, nursing, or giving first aid, providing information; generally avoids using machines, tools, or animals to achieve a goal;
- Is good at teaching, counseling, nursing, or giving information;
- Values helping people and solving social problems; and
- Sees self as helpful, friendly, and trustworthy.

5. Enterprising (E)

- Likes to lead and persuade people, and to sell things and ideas; generally avoids activities that require careful observation and scientific, analytical thinking;

- Is good at leading people and selling things or ideas;
- Values success in politics, leadership, or business; and
- Sees self as energetic, ambitious, and sociable.

6. Conventional (C)

- Likes to work with numbers, records, or machines in a set, orderly way; generally avoids ambiguous, unstructured activities
 - Is good at working with written records and numbers in a systematic, orderly way;
 - Values success in business; and
 - Sees self as orderly, and good at following a set plan.
-

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

Carl Rogers was a famous American psychologist, born in 1902. Although he began his career studying agriculture, history, and theology, he later shifted to psychology. His work with clients in therapy led him to develop a new approach called person-centered therapy, also known as self-theory.

Unlike traditional therapies that focused on diagnosing or directing patients, Rogers believed in letting people explore their own thoughts and feelings in a supportive environment. His ideas became the foundation of humanistic psychology, which emphasizes a person's inner experiences and natural ability to grow.

To explain how personality develops and functions, Carl Rogers proposed the following key elements:

- (i) Actualising Tendency
- (ii) Self and Self-Concept (Real Self and Ideal Self)
- (iii) Congruence and Incongruence
- (iv) Conditions of Worth and Unconditional Positive Regard
- (v) Fully Functioning Person
- (vi) Development of the Self
- (vii) Person-Centred (Client-Centred) Therapy.

Let us discuss each of them one by one.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

At the center of Rogers' theory is a natural force called the actualising tendency.

The *actualising tendency* is the inner drive that pushes a person to grow, develop, and improve themselves. It is present in all living beings. This tendency helps people to become more independent, creative, and self-aware.

For example, a small child naturally tries to walk or talk without being told to do so. This happens because of the actualising tendency.

This force works best when people are in an environment where they feel safe, accepted, and understood.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

Rogers said that the way a person sees themselves is very important for their personality.

This part of Carl Rogers' theory explains how the alignment between different parts of the self affects our mental health and well-being.

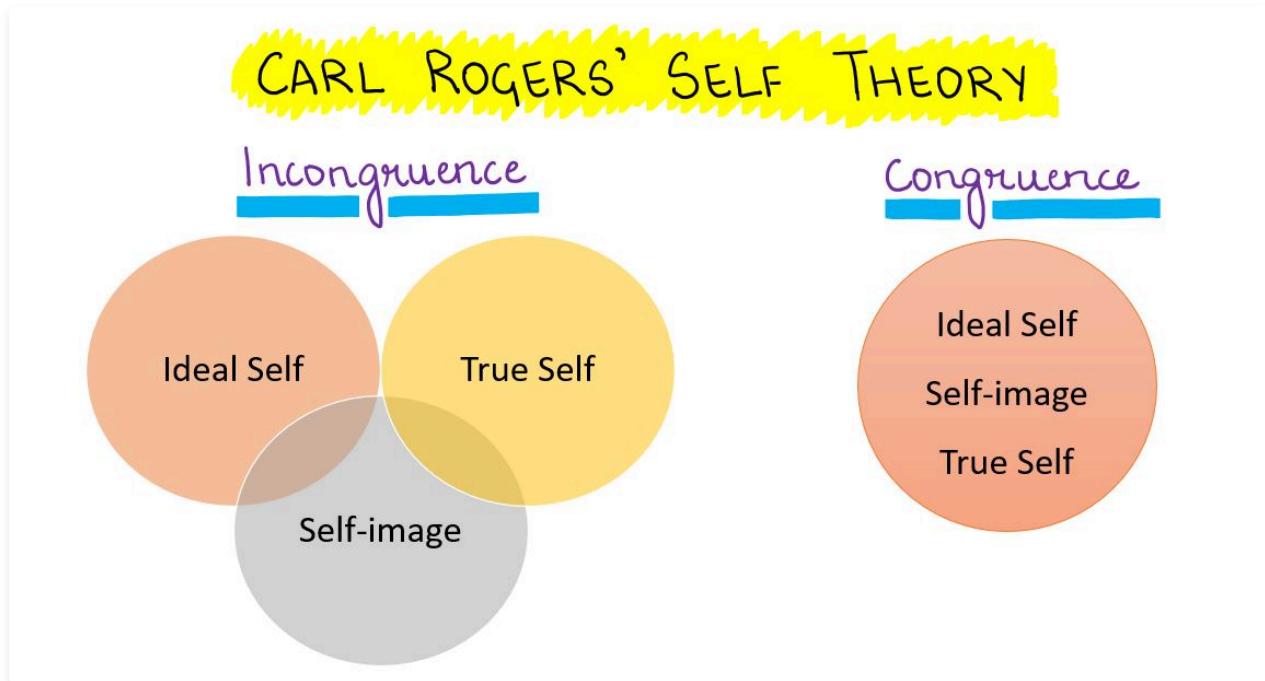
Rogers said that three parts make up our self-system:

1. *True Self (or Real Self)* – who we actually are, including our natural feelings and behaviors.
2. *Ideal Self* – the person we want to be or think we should be.
3. *Self-Image* – how we currently see ourselves.

The relationship between these three parts determines whether a person experiences congruence or incongruence.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

The match or mismatch between real self and ideal self affects a person's mental health.



Congruence happens when the true self, ideal self, and self-image are in harmony — they overlap and support one another. The person sees themselves clearly (self-image), behaves naturally (true self), and has realistic goals (ideal self). This leads to high self-esteem, emotional balance, and openness to personal growth.

For example, you want to be kind (ideal self), usually behave kindly (true self), and see yourself as a kind person (self-image). This inner alignment brings peace and confidence.

Congruence is essential for becoming a fully functioning person.

Incongruence occurs when there is a mismatch between the three parts of the self — where they do not fully overlap. The true self, ideal self, and self-image are separate or only partially connected. This results in inner conflict, confusion, low self-worth, or anxiety. The person may feel like they are pretending or hiding their true feelings just to be accepted.

For example, you want to be confident (ideal self), but often feel nervous (true self), and see yourself as weak (self-image). This disconnect causes emotional distress.

Such incongruence often develops when people grow up in environments with conditions of worth — where love and approval depend on meeting certain expectations.

The closer your true self, ideal self, and self-image are to each other, the more congruent and emotionally healthy you become. The farther apart they are, the more incongruent and psychologically vulnerable you may feel.

This balance between parts of the self is at the heart of Rogers' theory and plays a major role in shaping our personality and mental health.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

How others treat us plays a big role in how we see ourselves.

Sometimes, we are given love and respect only when we behave in a certain way. This is called *conditions of worth*. For example, if a parent only praises you when you score good marks, you may feel unworthy when you don't.

To grow in a healthy way, people need *unconditional positive regard*, which means being accepted and loved just as they are, without conditions.

For example, when a teacher says, "I care about you even when you make mistakes," it builds self-confidence. When people receive unconditional positive regard, they feel safe to express themselves and grow freely.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

According to Rogers, the goal of personality development is to become a fully functioning person.

A *fully functioning person* is someone who is emotionally healthy, open to experiences, and always growing. They accept their feelings, make their own choices, and live in the present.

Such a person has these qualities:

- They are open to experiences, even painful ones (open to experience).
- They live in the present moment, not stuck in the past (existential living).
- They trust themselves and their decisions (trust feelings).
- They are creative, flexible, and growing (creativity).
- They feel free and responsible in life (fulfilled life).

For example, someone who accepts both their strengths and weaknesses and keeps working to improve is a fully functioning person.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

Rogers didn't propose stages like Freud or Erikson. Instead, he explained that the self-concept (how we see ourselves) is shaped by our experiences—especially during childhood.

When children's real thoughts and feelings are accepted, they build a healthy self-concept. But when they are forced to act differently to earn love or approval, they may start to deny their real self. This leads to incongruence and emotional stress.

For example, a child who feels angry at a new baby sister is punished and told "good boys don't get angry." The child may begin to hide his anger and feel confused about himself.

A healthy self develops when a person can be honest about their feelings and still feel accepted by others.

12. Carl Roger Self Theory

Rogers used his theory to develop a new type of counseling called person-centered therapy.

In *Person-Centered Therapy*, the therapist creates a safe and accepting space so that the client can explore their feelings and become more self-aware. This therapy is also called *non-directive* because the therapist does not give advice or instructions.

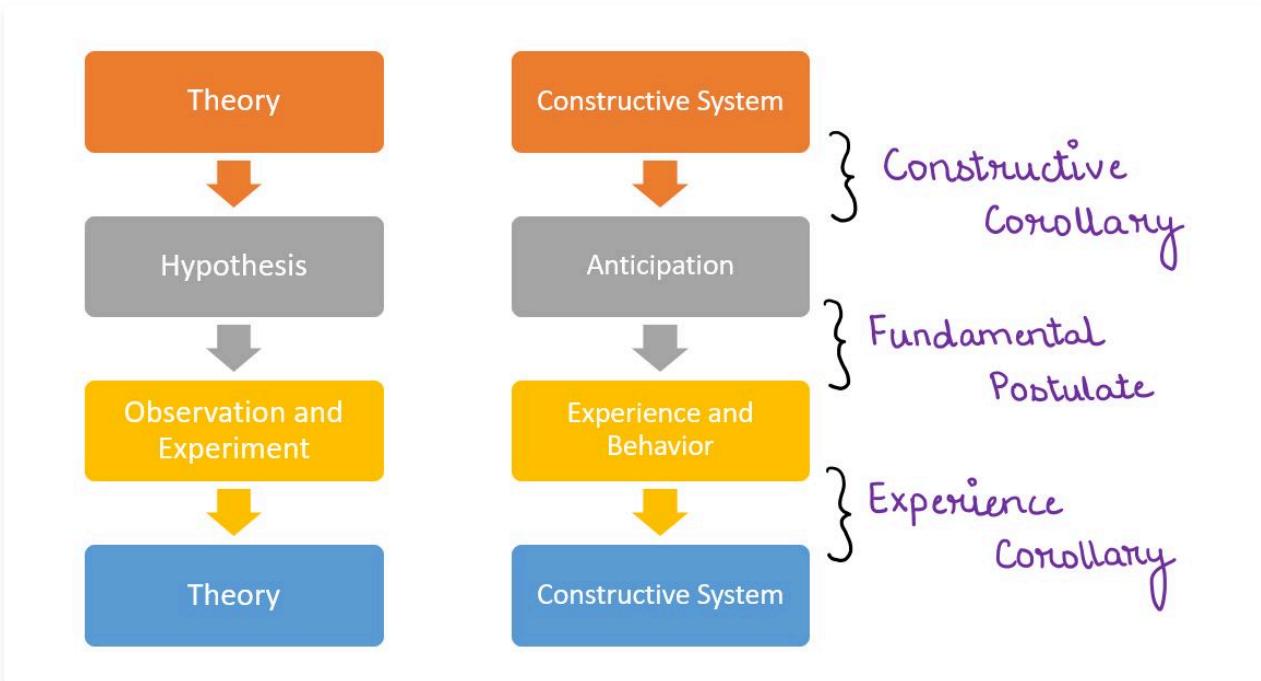
The therapist offers:

- Empathy (deep understanding)
- Genuineness (being real)
- Unconditional Positive Regard (acceptance without judgment)

For example, if a student feels like a failure, the therapist listens with care, without judging, and helps the student understand themselves better.

The goal of therapy is to reduce incongruence and help the person move toward becoming a fully functioning individual.

13. Kelly's Personal Construct Theory



Kelly's Personal Construct Theory was developed by psychologist **George Kelly** in the mid-20th century. Kelly's Personal Construct Theory is a psychological framework that explores the way individuals perceive, interpret, and understand their experiences, including those in a business environment.

Kelly's Personal Construct Theory revolves around the idea that individuals create mental constructs or expectations about their environment and the people in it, guiding their thoughts and actions. This theory emphasizes the importance of personal constructs, which are mental frameworks shaping perception and behavior.

Kelly proposed several corollaries to explain this theory, focusing on how individuals anticipate events, reconstruct their beliefs based on experiences, and organize their constructs hierarchically. The corollaries highlight the dynamic nature of these constructs, their range of application, adaptability, and how they influence individuality, shared experiences, conflicts, and social interactions. The theory underscores the role of constructs in shaping cognitive processes and behavior, emphasizing that people act as cognitive scientists constructing and testing their beliefs about the world.

Let's consider an example involving two individuals, Rahul and Priya, preparing for a college admission interview.

Rahul firmly believes that "displaying confidence and assertiveness impresses interviewers," while Priya thinks that "being polite and cooperative creates a positive impression."

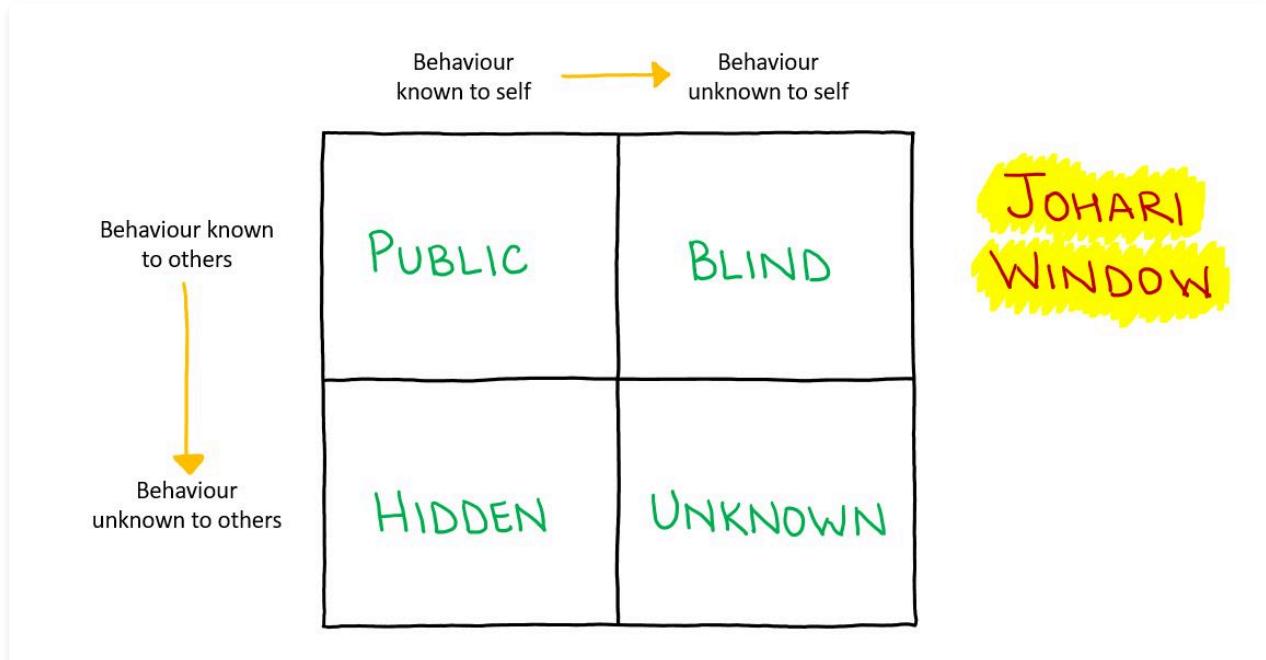
During the interview, the interviewer asks a challenging question. Rahul responds confidently, but his assertiveness comes across as slightly aggressive to the interviewer, contradicting Rahul's construct of success through assertiveness.

Conversely, Priya responds politely and cooperatively, which resonates well with the interviewer. This aligns perfectly with Priya's construct, reinforcing her belief about creating a positive impression.

In this scenario, as per Kelly's theory, both Rahul and Priya's constructs guided their behavior. When their constructs matched the situation, their behavior appeared effective. However, when their constructs conflicted with the situation, leading to unexpected outcomes, they might reconsider and reconstruct their beliefs for future interviews. This example illustrates how personal constructs shape behavior in real-life situations, just as George Kelly proposed in his theory.

14. Johari Window

The Johari Window is a technique developed by Joe Luft and Harry Ingham, which is used to improve understanding and build trust between individuals.

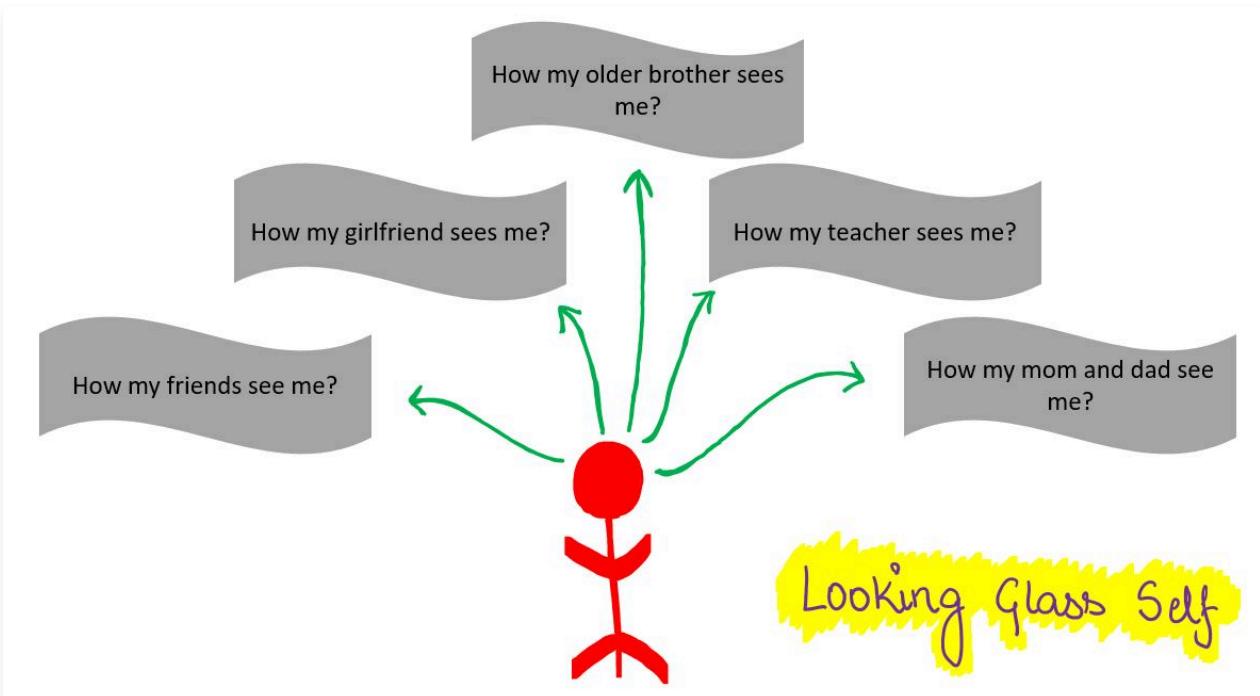


The Johari Window consists of four windowpanes, each representing different aspects of an individual's personality :

1. **Arena** : This windowpane represents information about an individual that is known by both the individual and others. This could include basic personal details such as name, height, weight, and anything that the individual has shared with others.
2. **Blind Spot** : This windowpane represents information that is known by others, but not by the individual. For example, others might know that an individual is a good listener or talker, but the individual may not realize this.
3. **Hidden Area** : This windowpane represents information that the individual does not want others to know. This might include private information such as close feelings, insecurities, or negative experiences.
4. **Unknown Area** : This windowpane represents information that is unknown to both the individual and others. This could include potential abilities or talents that the individual has not yet discovered.

Information may move from one pane to other panes which depend on the mutual trust developed between the individual and others. With time, usually individuals start trusting others and tell more and more about him which may expand the Arena and reduce the Hidden Area.

15. Looking Glass Self Theory



Charles Cooley's theory of the looking-glass self, introduced in the early 1900s, revolutionized our understanding of how individuals perceive themselves within a social context. Cooley proposed that our self-concept is not solely an internal creation but is intricately linked to how we believe others perceive us. This theory revolves around the metaphor of a mirror, suggesting that our self-image is constructed based on our perceptions of how others see and evaluate us.

The looking-glass self theory involves a three-step process in the formation of self-identity. Firstly, individuals imagine how they appear to others. This involves introspection and reflection on their own behavior, actions, and appearance from an external perspective. Secondly, individuals imagine how others perceive them. They try to gauge the judgments made by others based on their observed behavior and presentation. Lastly, individuals form an idea of how others feel about them, largely influenced by the judgments they perceive others to make.

Cooley emphasized the social nature of human cognition, asserting that the mind is a product of social interaction. He believed that our mental processes and self-concept are shaped by our engagement with the social world. This theory was substantiated by Cooley's observations of his own daughter, as he noticed the development of her self-concept tied closely to how she perceived herself through interactions with others.

Moreover, Cooley highlighted that this self-concept isn't static; it evolves and grows through continued social interactions. Children, in particular, strive to learn and utilize this concept to gain validation and care from their primary social groups, forming a crucial part of their social development. The looking-glass self underscores the influence of social contexts on the formation of an individual's self-perception and identity, showcasing the intricacies of human socialization and cognition.

16. Psychoanalytic Theory – Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud was a medical doctor who worked with patients facing mental health issues. While treating them, he developed one of the most famous theories of personality — the psychoanalytic theory. Freud believed that many of our behaviors and emotions come from thoughts and feelings that are hidden deep inside our minds, even from ourselves.

The central idea of Freud's theory is the unconscious mind. This includes all the thoughts, desires, fears, and memories that we are not aware of, but which still affect how we behave.

Freud also said that aggressive feelings, sexual urges, and hidden desires — even if we don't realize them — strongly influence our personality.

To explain how our mind and personality work, Freud proposed four elements:

- (i) Structure of the Mind
- (ii) Structural Model of Personality
- (iii) Psychosexual Stages of Development
- (iv) Defense Mechanisms

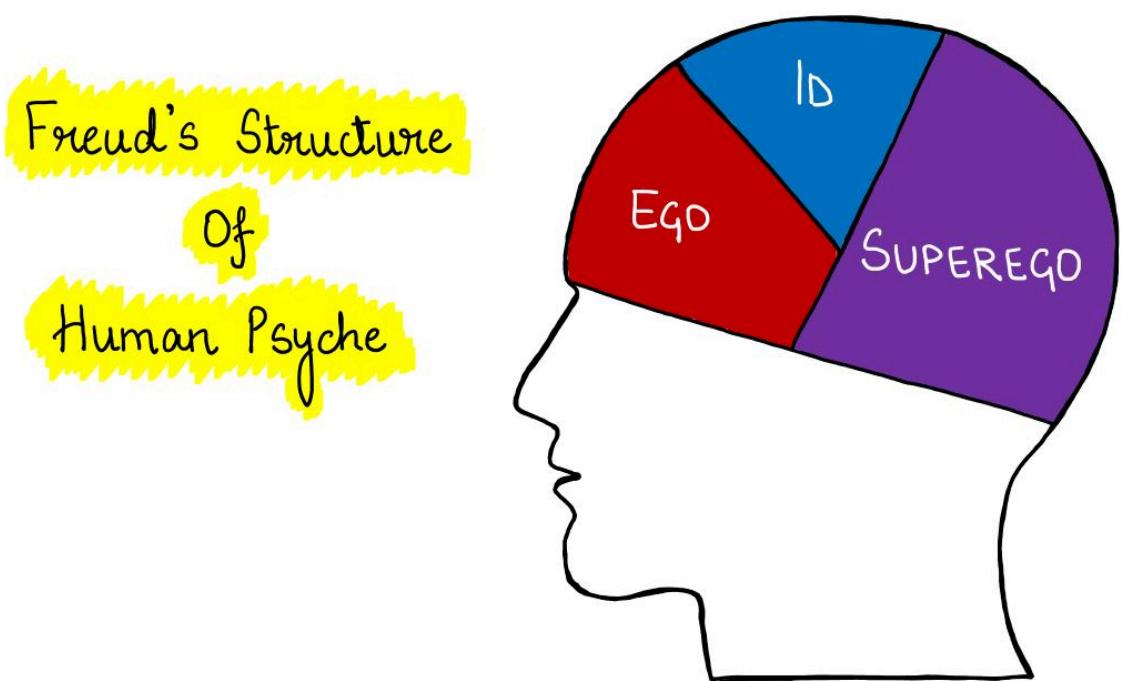
Let us discuss each of them one by one.

16. Psychoanalytic Theory – Sigmund Freud

Freud explained that the human mind has three levels:

1. **Conscious Mind:** This is the part we are aware of right now — like your thoughts while reading this sentence, your emotions, or your actions.
 2. **Preconscious Mind:** This is the part that is not currently in your mind but can come up if you think about it. For example, remembering your best friend's birthday when someone asks you.
 3. **Unconscious Mind:** This is the deepest part of our mind where hidden thoughts and feelings stay, like fear, anger, or jealousy. Freud said these thoughts still affect us—for example, by mistake calling your teacher "mom" or saying something funny without meaning to, which he called a "Freudian slip."
-

16. Psychoanalytic Theory – Sigmund Freud



Sigmund Freud, while explaining how our personality works, proposed that it is made up of three key parts – the Id, Ego, and Superego. These are not physical parts of the brain but are concepts that help us understand human thoughts, behaviors, and emotions. Each part plays a unique role in shaping our personality.

1. Id: The Instinctive and Unconscious Part

The Id is the oldest and most basic part of our personality. It is present from birth and operates completely at an unconscious level. The Id focuses only on immediate satisfaction of our needs, without thinking about what is right or wrong. It follows what Freud called the *pleasure principle*, which means avoiding pain and seeking pleasure at any cost.

The Id is where all our basic instincts and desires live — such as hunger, thirst, sleep, and sexual urges. It also includes aggressive feelings and impulses.

Freud explained that the Id is powered by two opposing forces:

- (i) *Eros*, the life instinct, is related to love, reproduction, and survival.
- (ii) *Thanatos*, the death instinct, is related to aggression, destruction, and harmful behavior.

For example, imagine a toddler throwing a tantrum in a supermarket because they want a chocolate bar right now — without thinking about where they are or if it's the right time. That's the Id in action.

2. Ego: The Rational and Decision-Making Part

As a child grows and begins to interact with the real world, the Ego starts to develop. It arises from the Id but acts as a mediator between the Id and the outside world. The Ego operates on the *reality principle*, meaning it considers what is practical, safe, and acceptable before acting.

The Ego helps us plan, make choices, and delay gratification. It doesn't ignore the Id's desires but tries to satisfy them in a realistic and appropriate manner. The Ego also tries to keep the Superego (our moral guide) happy.

For example, a 10-year-old sees ice cream in the fridge and really wants it. But instead of grabbing it immediately, he waits and asks his parents first. This careful decision shows how the Ego balances desire and reality.

According to Freud, if the Ego cannot manage the pressure from the Id and Superego, it leads to stress or anxiety. To reduce this inner conflict, the Ego may use defense mechanisms like denial, repression, or rationalization.

3. Superego: The Moral and Ethical Part

The Superego is like our inner moral voice. It starts to form around the ages of 3 to 5 years as we learn what is right and wrong

from our parents, teachers, and society. The Superego helps us follow rules, values, and ideals, even when the Ego might allow something as "practical" or the Id wants something immediately.

The Superego tries to control the Id's impulses and pushes the Ego to act morally, not just realistically. It helps us aim for perfection and act in ways that match our highest values.

The Superego has two parts:

(i) *Conscience* – Makes us feel guilt or shame when we break rules.

(ii) *Ideal Self* – Encourages us to become a better version of ourselves, rewarding us with feelings of pride when we do good.

For example, if the same 10-year-old from before thinks, "I should ask my parents for the ice cream because it's the right thing to do," then his Superego is guiding his decision.

Balance Between Id, Ego, and Superego

A healthy personality depends on how well these three parts work together.

- The Id says, "I want it now!"
- The Ego says, "Let's wait for the right time."
- The Superego says, "Is it morally correct to want this?"

When the Ego is strong, it balances the wild urges of the Id and the strict rules of the Superego, helping a person behave in a way that is both practical and morally acceptable.

If any one part becomes too dominant, problems may arise. For example:

- Too much Id can make a person impulsive or selfish.
 - Too much Superego can make someone overly guilt-ridden or rigid.
 - A weak Ego may lead to poor decision-making or mental conflict.
-

16. Psychoanalytic Theory – Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud believed that most of our personality is formed in the first five years of life. He gave the idea of five stages of development, which he called the *Psychosexual Stages*.

In each stage, a child's mind is focused on a different body part where they get pleasure or satisfaction. Freud called these body parts *erogenous zones*. The child's experiences at each stage shape their future personality.

At every stage, the child faces a conflict or challenge. If the child successfully deals with that challenge, they move on to the next stage in a healthy way. But if the challenge is not resolved, the child gets stuck or fixated at that stage. This means some behaviors from that early stage may continue even in adulthood.

For example, if someone gets fixated at the oral stage (where the mouth is the focus), they might grow up to have habits like smoking, overeating, or nail-biting.

Let us discuss these stages one by one.

Stage 1: Oral Stage (Birth to 18 Months)

In the oral stage, the mouth is the center of pleasure. Infants explore their world by sucking, swallowing, and later chewing or biting. They are completely dependent on their caregivers, especially the mother, to fulfill their needs.

Freud said that if a baby is either over-pampered (over-gratified) or neglected (under-gratified) at this stage, they may become fixated.

Those who were over-gratified may grow up to develop habits like smoking, drinking, or overeating — called *oral-incorporative* or *oral-ingestive personalities*.

Those who were under-gratified, especially during the biting phase, may become sarcastic, argumentative, or critical — referred to as *oral-aggressive* or *oral-sadistic personalities*.

Stage 2: Anal Stage (18 Months to 3 Years)

In the anal stage, children start gaining control over bowel and bladder movements, which gives them a sense of power and independence. This is also the time when toilet training begins.

Freud believed that how parents handle toilet training has a long-lasting effect on personality.

If parents are too strict, the child may become *anal-retentive* — overly tidy, rigid, stubborn, and even stingy.

If parents are too lenient, the child may become *anal-expulsive* — messy, careless, generous, and sometimes rebellious.

This stage is the child's first encounter with social rules, and their response to discipline shapes key personality traits like orderliness and self-control.

Stage 3: Phallic Stage (3 to 5 Years)

During this stage, children start focusing on their genitals as a source of pleasure and begin to notice gender differences.

For a male child, Freud introduced the idea of the *Oedipus complex*. In this situation, the boy feels a strong emotional connection and even unconscious love for his mother. At the same time, he starts to see his father as a rival and feels jealousy and competition for the mother's attention. However, he also fears that the father might punish him for having these feelings — Freud called this fear *castration anxiety*.

In the case of a female child, Freud proposed the *Electra complex*. Here, the girl feels unconscious affection for her father and develops rivalry toward her mother. She may feel that her mother stands in the way of her relationship with the father. Freud suggested that the girl also fears disapproval or punishment from her mother for having such feelings.

Freud said that a successful resolution of these complexes leads to the development of a healthy gender identity. If unresolved, it may result in identity confusion or unhealthy relationships in adulthood.

Stage 4: Latency Stage (6 to 12 Years)

In the latency stage, sexual desires become dormant. Children focus more on education, hobbies, making friends, and building social skills. Their energy is directed toward learning and forming relationships with peers.

During this phase, boys and girls may avoid each other, and there is little to no interest in the opposite gender. This stage is important for developing self-confidence, teamwork, and social maturity.

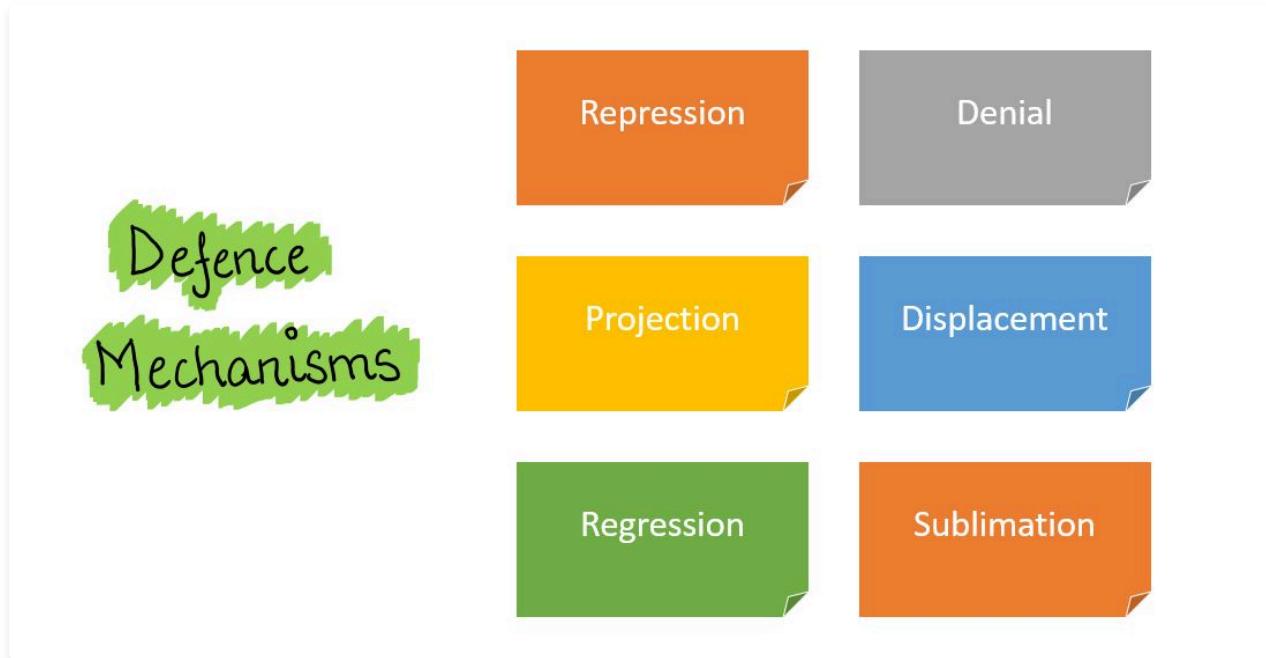
Stage 5: Genital Stage (13 Years to Adulthood)

This is the final stage, beginning at puberty, when sexual energy returns in a mature form. If all previous stages have been resolved successfully, the individual is capable of forming healthy romantic and intimate relationships.

People now begin to look for long-term companionship and emotional bonding with the opposite sex. However, if someone has unresolved conflicts from earlier stages, those issues may start to reappear in adult relationships, causing emotional or relational difficulties.

Each of the five stages focuses on a different source of pleasure, and unresolved conflicts can lead to lasting behavioral patterns. Successful resolution at each stage leads to a healthy and balanced personality.

16. Psychoanalytic Theory – Sigmund Freud



One of the most important functions of the ego is to protect our mind from emotional pain, stress, and anxiety. Often, we experience thoughts, desires, or memories — especially those driven by the id — that are socially or morally unacceptable. When these inner conflicts become overwhelming, our ego steps in and uses psychological strategies called *defence mechanisms*.

These defence mechanisms are unconscious. We usually don't even realize when we are using them. Their purpose is to keep our self-image safe and reduce the inner tension caused by conflicts between the id, ego, and superego.

Below are some of the most important defence mechanisms.

1. Repression

Repression is one of the most basic and widely used defence mechanisms. It involves pushing painful, disturbing, or socially unacceptable thoughts and memories into the unconscious mind so that they do not cause anxiety in our conscious awareness.

This does not mean the memory is erased — it still exists but remains hidden. It can influence our behavior in indirect ways, such as through dreams or slips of the tongue.

For example, a person who had a traumatic experience in early childhood, such as abuse, might have no conscious memory of the event. Yet, they may experience fear or anxiety in similar situations without knowing why.

2. Rationalization

Rationalization means creating false but logical explanations to justify actions, behaviors, or feelings that may otherwise cause guilt or embarrassment. This helps individuals avoid facing the real reasons behind their actions.

By using this mechanism, people can protect their self-image and maintain a sense of control and dignity, even when their behavior might have been inappropriate.

For example, a student who fails an exam might say, "The questions were out of syllabus," rather than admitting they didn't study enough. This helps reduce feelings of shame or failure.

3. Reaction Formation

In reaction formation, a person deals with unacceptable desires or feelings by expressing the opposite behavior. This is done to hide the true emotions not only from others but also from oneself.

This mechanism is often observed when a person feels guilty or anxious about their real feelings and behaves in an exaggerated opposite way to compensate.

For example, someone who is secretly envious of a colleague may go out of their way to compliment them excessively. The strong display of affection hides the true feelings of jealousy.

4. Projection

Projection involves attributing your own unwanted feelings or impulses to someone else. It helps people avoid acknowledging negative aspects of their own personality by seeing them in others instead.

This mechanism often leads to misunderstandings and conflicts, as the person is unaware of their internal emotions and continues to accuse others unfairly.

For example, a person who is dishonest might constantly suspect others of lying, even without any evidence. In reality, they are projecting their own behavior onto others.

5. Intellectualization

In intellectualization, a person tries to avoid emotional distress by focusing on facts, logic, or abstract ideas rather than the feelings associated with the situation. It is a way of emotionally detaching from a stressful or traumatic experience.

While this can help people cope temporarily, overuse of this mechanism may prevent emotional healing and understanding.

For example, after being diagnosed with a serious illness, a person may focus on researching medical terms and treatment options without acknowledging their fear or sadness.

6. Denial

Denial is a defence mechanism where a person refuses to accept reality or facts, especially when the truth is too painful to deal with. This prevents the individual from facing difficult emotions like grief, loss, or guilt.

Though denial can protect us temporarily, it can be harmful if it prevents us from taking necessary actions or accepting the truth.

For example, a person who has developed a serious drinking problem might say, "I can stop whenever I want," denying the existence of addiction despite clear signs.

7. Displacement

Displacement occurs when someone redirects their emotions from the original source to a safer or more acceptable target. This happens because expressing the emotion toward the actual source might not be possible or safe.

This mechanism can lead to inappropriate emotional reactions and strained relationships if not recognized and managed.

For example, if an employee is scolded by their boss but cannot react at work, they might go home and shout at their sibling or slam doors — displacing their anger onto a safer target.

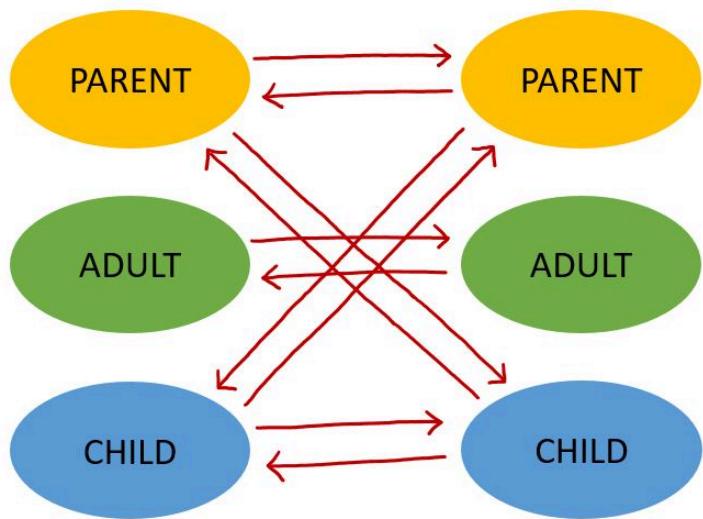
Freud believed that these defence mechanisms are a natural part of how the mind protects itself. They help us reduce tension and cope with emotional conflict. However, using them too frequently or in unhealthy ways can prevent emotional growth and self-awareness.

Understanding these mechanisms helps us become more aware of our behavior and improve how we manage stress, relationships, and inner conflicts.

1. Introduction



Eric Berne



Transactional Analysis (TA) is a psychological theory and therapeutic approach developed by Eric Berne in the 1950s. It explores the dynamics of human personality, communication, and relationships. TA operates under the premise that our personality consists of three ego states: Parent, Adult, and Child. These states shape our behavior, thoughts, and emotions.

TA focuses on analyzing transactions or social interactions between individuals and how they operate from these ego states. The communication and interactions between different ego states of individuals shape the quality and nature of relationships. The goal of TA therapy is to identify patterns in communication, recognize negative or unproductive behaviors, and facilitate positive changes to enhance relationships and personal growth.

By understanding one's ego states and recognizing patterns in interpersonal interactions, individuals can gain insight into their behaviors and communication style. This self-awareness helps in improving relationships, resolving conflicts, and fostering healthier communication. TA is widely used not only in therapeutic settings but also in organizational development, education, and communication training due to its applicability in understanding human interactions and behavior.

1. Introduction

Transaction Analysis was founded by psychoanalyst Dr. **Eric Berne**. He was influenced by the work of Sigmund Freud. Freud's greatest contribution (and the one that influenced Berne) was the fact that the human personality is multi-faceted. Regardless of the classification or name given to a particular area of personality (id, superego, etc.), each individual possesses factions that frequently collide with each other. And it is these collisions and interactions between these personality factions that manifest themselves as an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours.

Another scientist whose contributions impacted Dr. Berne in his development of Transactional Analysis is Dr. **Wilder Penfield**, a neurosurgeon. Penfield's experiments focused on the application of electrical currents to specific regions of the brain. Penfield discovered that, when applying current to the temporal lobe of live and alert patients, he would stimulate meaningful memories. In addition, not only were vivid pictures of that person's past revealed, but also the feelings and emotions associated with that event were uncovered. These patients would recite these events, even though in many cases they were events that the patients were unable to recollect on their own.

These contributions by Penfield and Freud, as well as many others, were used by Berne as he developed his theories on Transactional Analysis and Games.

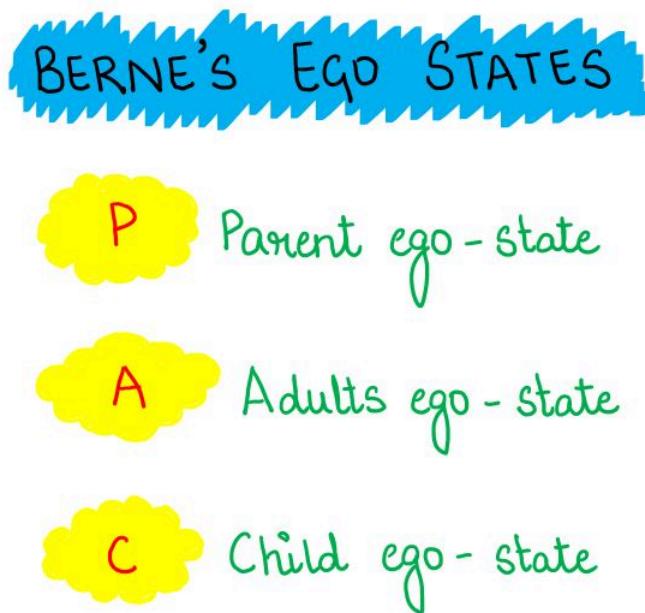
Dr. Berne defined the basic unit of his analysis as Transactions. At its simplest level, **Transactional Analysis** is the method for studying interactions between individuals.

According to Berne, "The unit of social intercourse is called a **transaction**. If two or more people encounter each other, sooner or later one of them will speak, or give some other indication of acknowledging the presence of the others. This is called *transactional stimulus*. Another person will then say or do something which is in some way related to the stimulus, and that is called the *transactional response*."

Important books on Transactional Analysis are:

- Games People Play -**Dr. Eric Berne**
 - I'm OK- You're OK -**Thomas A Harris**
 - What do you say, after you say Hello - **Dr. Eric Berne**
 - Transactional Analysis in Psychotherapy - **Dr. Eric Berne**
-

2. Berne's Ego States



Berne's Ego States is a concept in Transactional Analysis that explains the different patterns of behavior and feelings that are behind each transaction between individuals. According to Berne, an ego state is "a consistent pattern of feeling and experience related to a consistent pattern of behavior."

Berne ultimately defined the 3 ego states as: Parent, Adult, and Child.

1. Parent (Exteropsyché)

The parent represents a massive collection of recordings in the brain of external events experienced or perceived in approximately the first five years of life. Since the majority of the external events experienced by a child are actions of the parent, the ego state was appropriately called Parent. While recording these events, the young child has no way to filter the data; the events are recorded without question and without analysis. One can consider that these events are imposed on the child.

Examples of recordings in the Parent include: "Never talk to strangers", "Always chew with your mouth closed", "Look both ways before you cross the street".

Later, with contribution from other researchers, the Parent is further divided into two parts:

1.1 Controlling Parent: This is the parent who tells us what to do. At its best, it provides us with vital advice and guidance on how to live our lives. At worst it manifests in stifling, critical behaviour.

1.2 Nurturing Parent: This is the parent who cares for us. When done properly we feel cherished and supported, but too much and we are smothered and not allowed to discover ourselves.

2. Child (Archaeopsyché)

In contrast to the Parent, the Child represents the recordings in the brain of internal events associated with external events the child perceives. Stated another way, stored in the Child are the emotions or feelings which accompanied external events. This is the seeing, hearing, feeling, and emotional body of data within each of us. When anger or despair dominates reason, the Child is in control.

Examples of recordings in the Child include "When I saw the monster's face, I felt really scared", "The clown at the birthday party was really funny!"

Later, with contribution from other researchers, the Child is again divided into two parts:

2.1 Adapted Child: This is the child that responds to the rules set out by our parents. Depending on the choice the child makes, it will either play by the rules or rebel. When a mother tells her son to sit up straight at the table, the child may do so because he knows his mother will be pleased with him.

2.2 Natural Child: This refers to the way we behave when we are free and unrestricted by any rules. It allows us to be creative, joyous and carefree. However, if behaviour oversteps social boundaries it could cause embarrassment or offence.

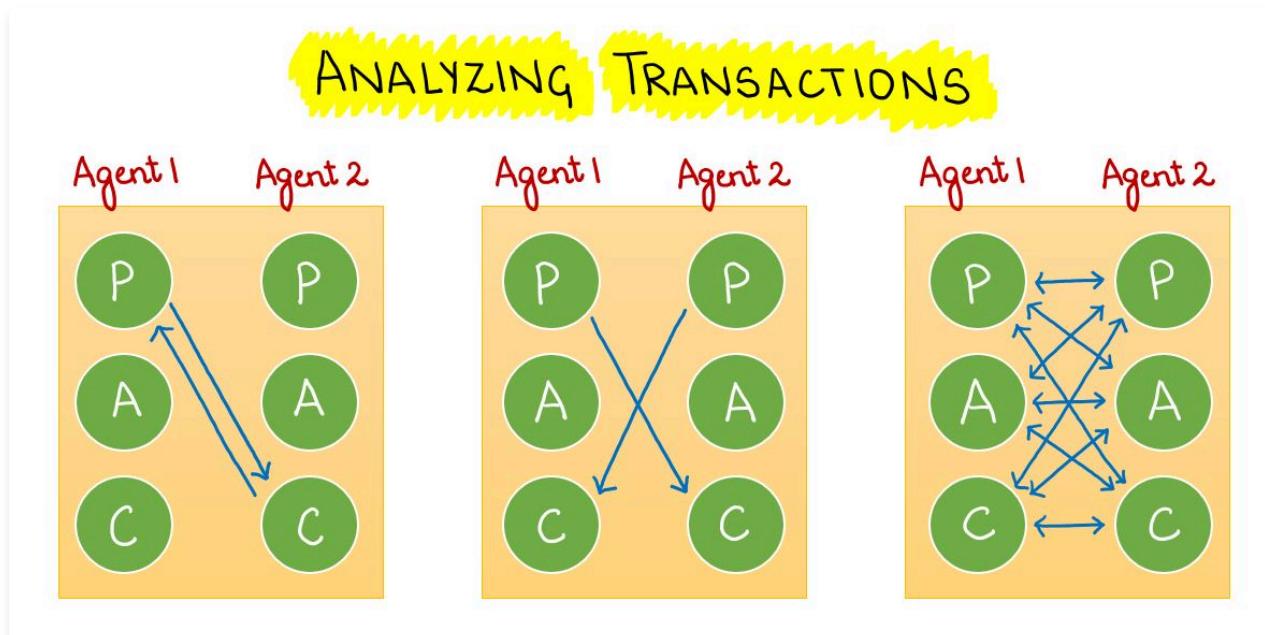
3. Adult (Neopsyche)

The Adult ego state is about direct responses to the here and now. We deal with things that are going on today in ways that are not unhealthily influenced by our past. Taking the best from the past and using it appropriately in the present is an integration of the positive aspects of both our Parent and Child ego states. So this can be called the Integrating Adult. Integrating means that we are constantly updating ourselves through our everyday experiences and using this to inform us.

Dr. Thomas Harris, a student of Dr. Berne, summarized Transactional Analysis in a way that can be understood by a wider audience. According to Harris:

- Parent – *taught concept*
- Child – *felt concept*
- Adult – *learned concept*

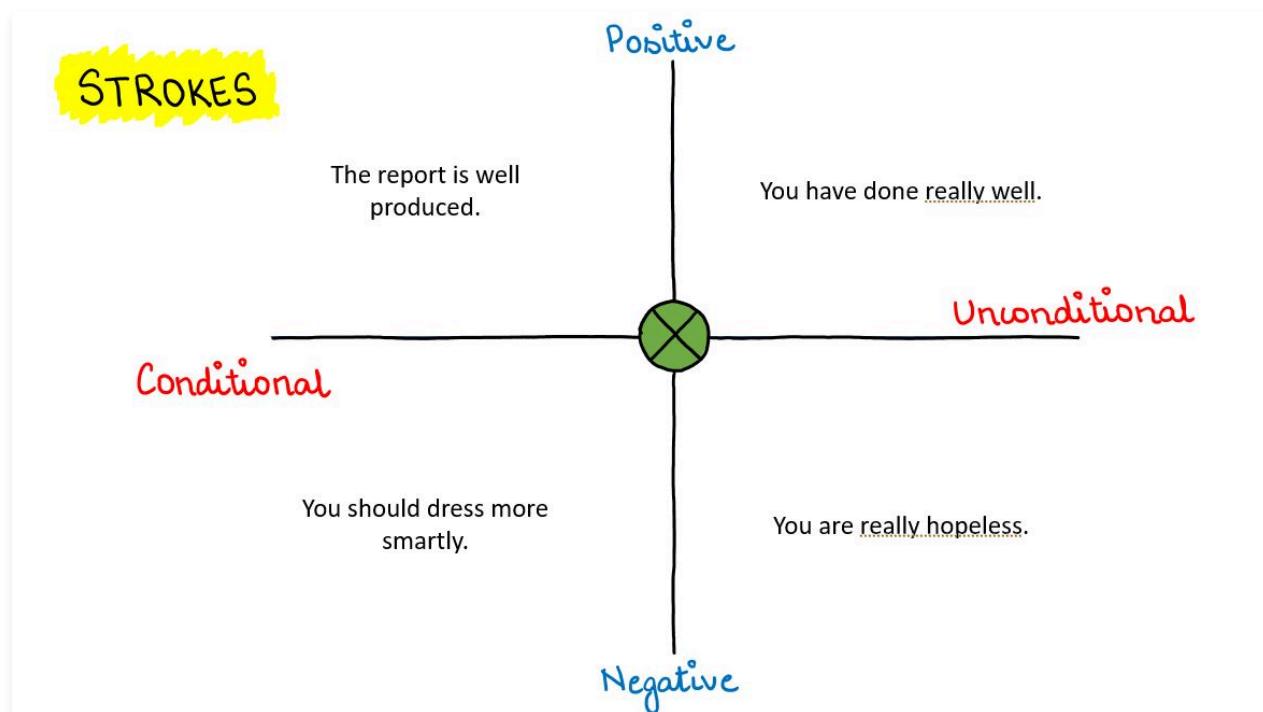
3. Analyzing Transactions



Whenever a person engages in a transaction, communication between different ego states is involved. According to Berne, there are 3 main types of transactions:

1. **Complementary transactions :** Complementary transactions happen when two people's ego states are compatible, meaning that what is said and the response received are in alignment. These types of transactions are considered healthy and normal human interactions, according to Dr. Berne.
2. **Crossed transactions :** Crossed transactions occur when a person says something from one ego state and receives a response from a different ego state than what was expected.
3. **Ulterior transactions :** Ulterior transactions happen when words or behaviors appear to come from one ego state, but in reality, they are coming from another. For example, a participant in a training program may ask a consultant for advice in an adult ego state, but the participant's quick responses to the advice given (child-like behavior) indicate that what they actually wanted was sympathy and understanding, not advice. The consultant then changes from an adult to a sympathetic parent ego state to have a complementary transaction.

4. Strokes



Berne defined a **stroke** as the fundamental unit of social action. A stroke is a unit of recognition, when one person recognizes another person either verbally or non-verbally. Berne introduced the idea of strokes into Transactional Analysis based upon the work of Rene Spitz, a researcher who did pioneering work in the area of child development. Spitz observed that infants deprived of handling – in other words, not receiving any strokes – were more prone to emotional and physical difficulties. These infants lacked the cuddling, touching, and handling that most other infants received.

Berne took Spitz's observations of these infants and developed theories about the needs of adults for strokes. Berne postulated that adults need physical contact just like infants, but have learned to substitute other types of recognition instead of physical stimulation. So while an infant needs cuddling, an adult craves a smile, a wink, a hand gesture, or other form of recognition. Berne defined the term recognition-hunger as this requirement of adults to receive strokes.

Berne also reasoned that any stroke, be it **positive** or **negative**, is better than **no strokes** at all. For example, if you are walking in front of your house and you see your neighbour, you will likely smile and say "Hi." Your neighbour will likely say "hello" back. This is an example of a positive stroke. Your neighbour could also frown at you and say nothing. This is an example of a negative stroke. But either case is better than no stroke at all, if your neighbour ignored you completely.

5. Game

In Transactional Analysis, Berne viewed a **game** as a repetitive pattern of interactions that result in a known outcome. These interactions, known as ulterior transactions, involve more than two ego states and contain a hidden message. In other words, a person is playing a game when they attempt to achieve a goal other than what they publicly express. Understanding and analyzing these games involves recognizing what they are, what the end result will be, and how they negatively impact personal relationships.

The motivation for participating in a game comes from the Payoff, a concealed benefit. Games have payoffs at three levels:

1. **The biological pay-off** of a game is recognition or strokes. Despite games often having negative outcomes, players still receive a substantial number of both positive and negative strokes from playing them.
2. **The social pay-off** of a game is the structure it provides to time. Games offer an exciting activity to fill time that would otherwise be dull and unsatisfying.
3. **The existential pay-off** of a game is how it confirms each player's sense of self and purpose.

For example, consider the game of "martyrdom". A person might publicly express that they are sacrificing their own needs for the benefit of others. In reality, they are seeking attention and sympathy, trying to hide the fact that they are actually trying to manipulate the situation to their advantage. The payoff of this game could be biological, such as receiving recognition in the form of praise and sympathy. The social pay-off could be time structuring, as the person now has a seemingly valid reason to fill their time with self-pity and complaints. The existential pay-off could be the confirmation of the person's sense of being mistreated and undervalued.

6. Life Scripts

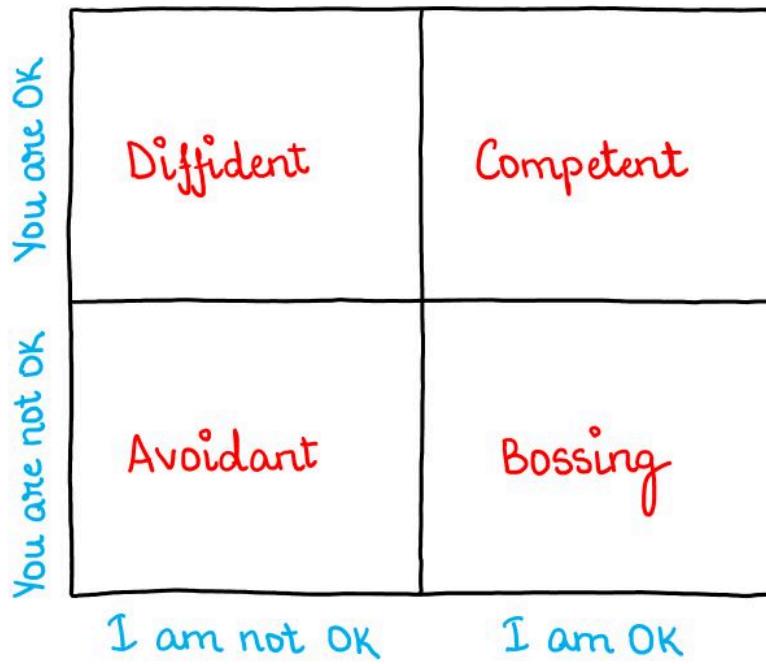
According to Dr. Berne, our life script is an unconscious pattern of behavior that we develop in childhood, based on our early experiences and reinforced by our interactions with our parents. This script shapes our beliefs and expectations about how our lives will unfold, and we seek out evidence throughout our lives to support these beliefs.

A life script can be either positive or negative, and can dictate our choices and behavior for the rest of our lives. For example, someone with a *negative life script* may believe that they will always experience failure and unhappiness, and this belief can influence their actions and choices in a self-fulfilling manner. On the other hand, someone with a *positive life script* may believe that they will achieve success and happiness, and this belief can give them the confidence and motivation to pursue their goals.

7. Life Positions

In Transactional Analysis, life positions refer to the underlying beliefs and attitudes that individuals hold about themselves and their relationships with others. These positions are formed during childhood and are shaped by early experiences and interactions with significant others. They were given by Thomas A. Harris.

The four basic life positions in Transactional Analysis are:

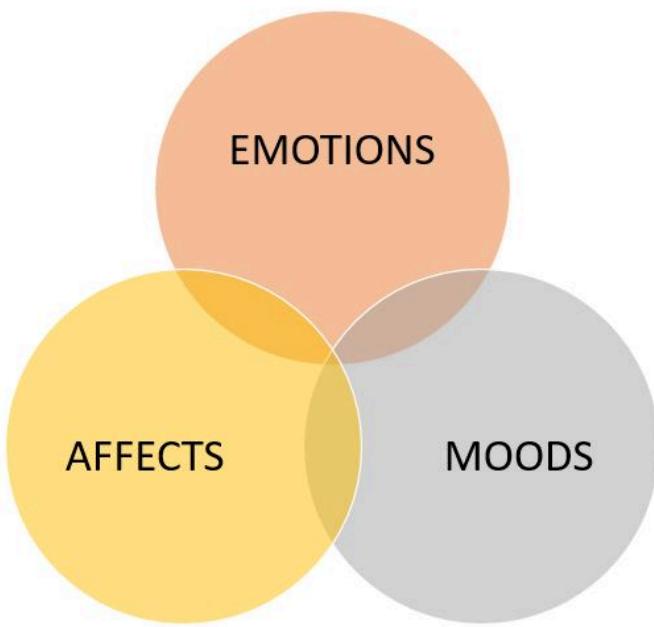


1. **I am OK, You are OK (C)** - This is considered an ideal life position as it is rationally chosen and reflects an individual who behaves in a rational and accepting manner towards others. People in this position feel confident and positive about themselves and others. They express trust in their subordinates, delegate authority effectively, and have a positive attitude towards work. Managers with this life position have good communication skills and maintain a healthy and harmonious work environment.
2. **I am OK, You are not OK (B)** - This position is taken by individuals who are distrustful and tend to blame others for their failures. They often come from backgrounds where they were neglected or mistreated by their parents. Managers in this position tend to be critical and oppressive, perceiving delegation as a threat to their authority. They operate from a critical parent ego state and lack trust in their subordinates.
3. **I am not OK, You are OK (D)** - This life position is common among individuals who feel powerless and compare themselves unfavorably to others. Managers in this position tend to be diffident and display unpredictable and erratic behaviors. They are more likely to grumble and withdraw, and in severe cases, may experience depression.
4. **I am not OK, You are not OK (A)** - This is considered the worst life position, in which individuals feel defeated and see the world as a hopeless and miserable place. People in this position are often brought up by servants or neglected by their parents, and can display a lack of personal potency. Managers with this position tend to make mistakes, delegate inappropriately, and may provoke others in negative ways.

		I am not OK You are OK	I am OK You are not OK	I am OK You are OK	I am not OK You are OK
PARENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regulating • Nurturing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional • Overindulgent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescriptive • Patronizing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Normative • Supportive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indifferent • Ingratiating
ADULT		Cynical	Task-Obsession	Problem-Solving	Overwhelming
CHILD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptive • Reactive • Creative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sulking • Withdrawn • Humorous 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complaining • Aggressive • Bohemian 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resilient • Confronting • Innovative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dependent • Intropunitive • Satirical

Transactional Analysis can be used in organizational training programs to help employees become aware of their ego states, scripts, and how they influence interpersonal skills. Through continuous training and efforts, individuals can change their behavior patterns and develop a positive attitude towards themselves and others (I am OK, You are OK). The benefits of Transactional Analysis include the development of positive attitudes, transformation of individual status, improvement of interpersonal relationships and problem-solving skills, and motivation of individuals. It is also a valuable tool for organizational development.

1. Affects, Emotions, Moods



In the context of business, affects, emotions, and moods play a significant role in shaping an individual's behavior and decision-making process.

Emotions are intense feelings that can be triggered by specific events, such as receiving positive feedback from a superior or experiencing a setback in a project. These emotions have a direct impact on the individual's behavior, which can either positively or negatively affect their work performance. For instance, an employee who receives positive feedback may feel happy and motivated, leading them to work harder and produce better results. On the other hand, an employee who experiences setbacks may feel demotivated, leading to a decrease in their work performance.

Moods, on the other hand, are less intense feelings that arise without a specific stimulus and last for a longer period. These moods are generally not indicated by distinct expressions but have a cognitive nature. For instance, an employee who comes to work in a bad mood due to personal reasons may find it difficult to concentrate on their work, leading to a decrease in their work performance. In such cases, it is important for the manager to identify the cause of the employee's mood and take appropriate measures to address the issue, such as providing support or flexible work hours.

Affects is defined as a broad range of feelings that people experience. Affect is the most general term, which includes both emotions and moods.

In addition to affecting individual behavior, affects, emotions, and moods can also have an impact on group dynamics and the overall workplace environment. For instance, an emotionally charged discussion among team members can lead to conflicts and tension, which can negatively affect the team's performance. On the other hand, a positive and upbeat mood in the workplace can lead to higher levels of cooperation, creativity, and innovation.

In summary, affects, emotions, and moods play a crucial role in the business context as they can affect an individual's behavior and decision-making process, group dynamics, and overall workplace environment. It is important for managers to recognize the impact of emotions and moods on their employees and take appropriate measures to address any negative effects while fostering a positive and supportive workplace culture.

2. Emotional Labour

Emotional labour is the process of regulating and controlling one's own emotions and expressions in order to meet the expectations and demands of their job. It is the intentional manipulation of emotions to create a desired emotional response in others. This type of labour is seen in a wide range of jobs, from customer service positions where employees must maintain a positive demeanor, to medical professionals who must maintain emotional neutrality, to those in positions of leadership who must project confidence and assertiveness.

Emotions can be broadly categorized into two types :

- **Displayed emotions** : Displayed emotions are the emotions that an organization requires workers to show and considers appropriate in a given job. They are not innate, but rather learned and may or may not coincide with the worker's actual emotions.
- **Felt emotions** : Felt emotions are the actual emotions that a person experiences.

For instance, in a customer service job, an employee may be required to show positive emotions like happiness, excitement, and friendliness towards customers. However, the employee may not actually be feeling those emotions at that moment, but they are still expected to display them as part of their job requirements. This type of emotional display is referred to as surface acting and involves hiding inner feelings and emotional expressions in response to display rules.

On the other hand, an employee may try to modify their true inner feelings to match the display rules, a process referred to as deep acting. In this case, the employee is trying to bring their felt emotions in line with what is expected of them. This can be difficult and overwhelming, especially if the employee has to project one emotion while feeling another.

In conclusion, both displayed emotions and felt emotions play an important role in emotional labor and job performance. Displayed emotions reflect the expectations of an organization, while felt emotions reflect an individual's actual emotional experience. Understanding the distinction between these two types of emotions is crucial in managing and coping with the demands of emotional labor.

3. Emotional Dissonance

Emotional dissonance refers to the psychological discomfort that arises from a discrepancy between one's expressed emotions and one's true emotions. It occurs when an individual is required to display emotions that are different from how they truly feel. This phenomenon is common in many job roles, particularly those that require employees to interact with others, such as customer service representatives, teachers, and actors.

For example, consider a customer service representative who must respond to an irate customer. Despite the customer's angry and rude behavior, the representative is expected to remain calm, polite, and empathetic. However, the representative may feel frustrated, angry, or even upset by the customer's behavior, leading to emotional dissonance. The representative must then choose between expressing their true feelings or suppressing them to maintain a professional demeanor.

Emotional dissonance can have negative effects on an individual's well-being, including stress, burnout, and decreased job satisfaction. In some cases, it can also lead to feelings of guilt or shame for not being authentic. It is important for individuals and organizations to be aware of the potential impacts of emotional dissonance and work to mitigate it through supportive work environments and open communication.

4. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was first developed by Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1990) who argued the concept of rational intelligence and ignore emotional competencies. Emotional intelligence (EI) was popularized by psychologist and science journalist Daniel Goleman in his 1995 book "Emotional Intelligence". Emotional Intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others.

Daniel Goleman outlined 5 key dimensions of emotional intelligence that play a crucial role in personal and social success. These dimensions are divided into two main competencies: Personal Competence and Social Competence.

1. Personal Competence

Personal competence refers to the individual's ability to manage their own emotions, which influences how they behave and make decisions. It consists of 3 dimensions:

1.1 *Self-Awareness*: The ability to recognize and understand one's own emotions, moods, and behaviors, and how they affect others.

Example: A person who is self-aware notices that they feel frustrated before a meeting and reflects on the underlying causes of their frustration. This allows them to address their emotions appropriately before they impact their behavior or decisions.

1.2 *Self-Regulation*: The ability to manage one's emotions and impulses, responding to them appropriately in various situations. It is also called Self-Management.

Example: A person with strong self-regulation skills can manage their anger and frustration in a professional setting, avoiding rash decisions or outbursts, even in stressful situations.

1.3 *Motivation*: The ability to use emotions to drive behavior and pursue goals, remaining resilient in the face of challenges and setbacks.

Example: A motivated individual stays focused on their long-term goals, despite obstacles or failures, using their emotional drive to push through difficult situations and continue working towards success.

2. Social Competence

Social competence refers to the ability to manage relationships effectively, using emotional intelligence to understand and relate to others. It includes the following 2 dimensions:

2.1 *Empathy*: The ability to understand and share the feelings of others, recognizing their emotions and responding with care.

Example: A person with high empathy can sense when a colleague is feeling down and, instead of ignoring it, they offer support or words of encouragement, understanding the emotional needs of the other person.

2.2 *Social Skills*: The ability to communicate effectively, build relationships, and work collaboratively with others, especially in group settings.

Example: A person with good social skills can engage with diverse teams, resolve conflicts, and build rapport with colleagues, leading to strong teamwork and productive outcomes.

4. Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman's Emotional Intelligence framework is structured around two main dimensions: the source of emotion (Self vs. Others) and the type of emotional skill (Recognition vs. Regulation).

Personal competence is made up of self-awareness and self-management. Social competence is made up of social awareness and relationship management.

	Self (personal competence)	Other (social competence)
Recognition	<p>Self-awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Emotional self-awareness• Accurate self-assessment• Self-confidence	<p>Social awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Empathy• Service orientation• Organizational awareness
Regulation	<p>Self-management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self-control• Trustworthiness• Conscientiousness	<p>Relationship management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Communication• Conflict management• Teamwork and collaboration

These dimensions combine to form a 2x2 matrix of emotional competencies that guide how individuals understand and manage emotions—both their own and others'. The result is a powerful model with four quadrants, each representing a distinct area of emotional competence.

1. Self Awareness

The first quadrant, located in the top-left cell of the matrix, deals with recognizing one's own emotions. This is referred to as Self-awareness and falls under the broader category of personal competence. Individuals strong in this area are aware of their internal states, emotional triggers, and the impact their emotions have on others. Specific skills include:

- Emotional self-awareness: understanding your emotional responses.
- Accurate self-assessment: knowing your strengths and weaknesses.
- Self-confidence: having a strong sense of your own self-worth.

This area is essential for personal growth and maturity, as it forms the foundation for all other aspects of EI.

2. Social Awareness

The second quadrant, on the top-right, involves the recognition of others' emotions—referred to as Social awareness. This belongs to the category of social competence. It includes:

- Empathy: the ability to understand others' feelings.
- Service orientation: anticipating, recognizing, and meeting others' needs.
- Organizational awareness: understanding the emotional climate of groups or institutions.

This quadrant allows individuals to "read the room" and navigate social dynamics effectively, making it especially critical in teamwork, leadership, and customer-facing roles.

3. Self Management

The third quadrant, in the bottom-left, focuses on managing one's own emotions—called Self-management. It includes the following competencies:

- Self-control: the ability to manage disruptive emotions and impulses.
- Trustworthiness: maintaining integrity and honesty.
- Conscientiousness: taking responsibility for personal performance.

Mastery of this area allows individuals to remain calm under stress, keep commitments, and act ethically even in challenging situations.

4. Relationship Management

Finally, the bottom-right quadrant focuses on Relationship management, which involves influencing, guiding, and managing others' emotions. It includes:

- Communication: listening openly and conveying messages clearly.
- Conflict management: resolving disagreements effectively.
- Teamwork and collaboration: working effectively with others toward shared goals.

This area is particularly important in leadership and collaboration, where emotional intelligence can significantly impact group success.

5. Role of Emotions in OB

Emotions play a significant role in various aspects of organizational behavior, including selection, decision-making, creativity, motivation, leadership, negotiation, customer service, job attitudes, deviant workplace behavior, and safety.

1. Selection : Research suggests that employers should consider emotional intelligence (EI) in the selection process, especially for jobs that require high levels of social interaction. High-scoring EI employees tend to outperform low-scoring employees in recruiting and sales positions.

2. Decision-making : Emotions and moods can impact decision-making, with positive emotions and moods generally promoting better decisions and problem-solving skills. Negative emotions and moods, on the other hand, can slow down information processing and lead to poor decision-making.

3. Creativity : Moods and emotions can impact creativity, with some research suggesting that people in good moods are more creative and produce more original ideas. On the other hand, positive moods can also lead to relaxation and decreased critical thinking necessary for some forms of creativity.

4. Motivation : Moods and emotions can also impact motivation, with studies indicating that people in good moods are more motivated, helpful, and perform better. Positive feedback reinforces positive moods, creating a cycle of better performance.

5. Leadership : Leaders who focus on inspirational goals and maintain a positive mood can generate greater optimism, enthusiasm, and positive social interactions among employees. Leaders who display positive emotions are perceived as more effective, while displays of sadness can increase the analytic performance of followers.

6. Negotiation : Emotions can impact negotiations, with emotional intelligence playing a role in conflict resolution and effective communication. Negative emotions can escalate conflicts, while positive emotions can help build rapport and foster cooperation.

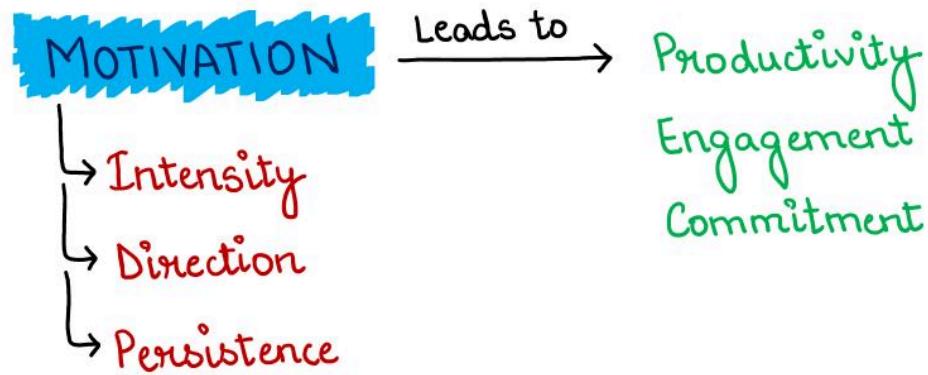
7. Customer Service : Positive emotions can improve customer service, as employees in a good mood are more helpful and provide better service. On the other hand, negative emotions and moods can lead to poor customer service and decreased customer satisfaction.

8. Job Attitudes : Emotions and moods can impact job attitudes, with positive moods leading to better job satisfaction, while negative moods can lead to burnout and decreased job satisfaction.

9. Deviant Workplace Behavior : Negative emotions and moods can lead to deviant workplace behavior, such as absenteeism, tardiness, and decreased productivity.

10. Safety : Positive emotions and moods can improve safety in the workplace, as people in good moods are more alert, cooperative, and pay greater attention to safety procedures. Negative moods, on the other hand, can lead to decreased safety awareness and increased safety incidents.

1. Introduction



Motivation is defined as "the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal." Many people incorrectly view motivation as a personal trait—that is, some have it and others do not. Motivation is the result of the interaction between the individual and the situation.

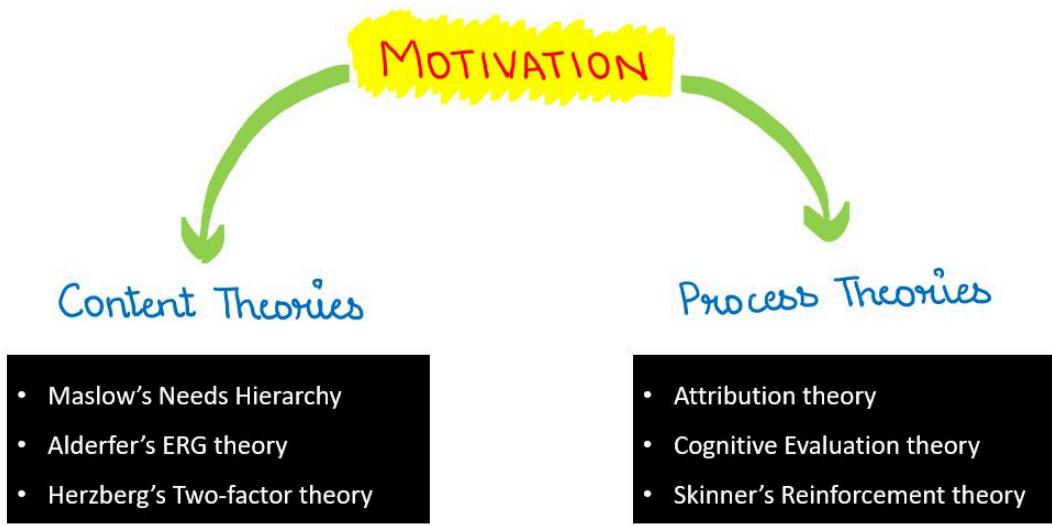
The three key elements of our definition are intensity, direction, and persistence:

1. **Intensity:** Intensity is concerned with how hard a person tries.
2. **Direction:** The direction is the orientation that benefits the organization.
3. **Persistence:** Persistence is a measure of how long a person can maintain his or her effort. Motivated individuals stay with a task long enough to achieve their goal.

Motivation serves as the driving force behind employee productivity, engagement, and commitment. When employees are motivated, they're more likely to strive towards achieving organizational goals, leading to higher performance levels, increased innovation, and improved job satisfaction.

Effective motivation strategies, including recognition, rewards, career growth opportunities, and a positive work culture, not only enhance individual performance but also contribute to a cohesive and dynamic workplace where employees feel valued and empowered to contribute their best efforts.

2. Motivation Theories

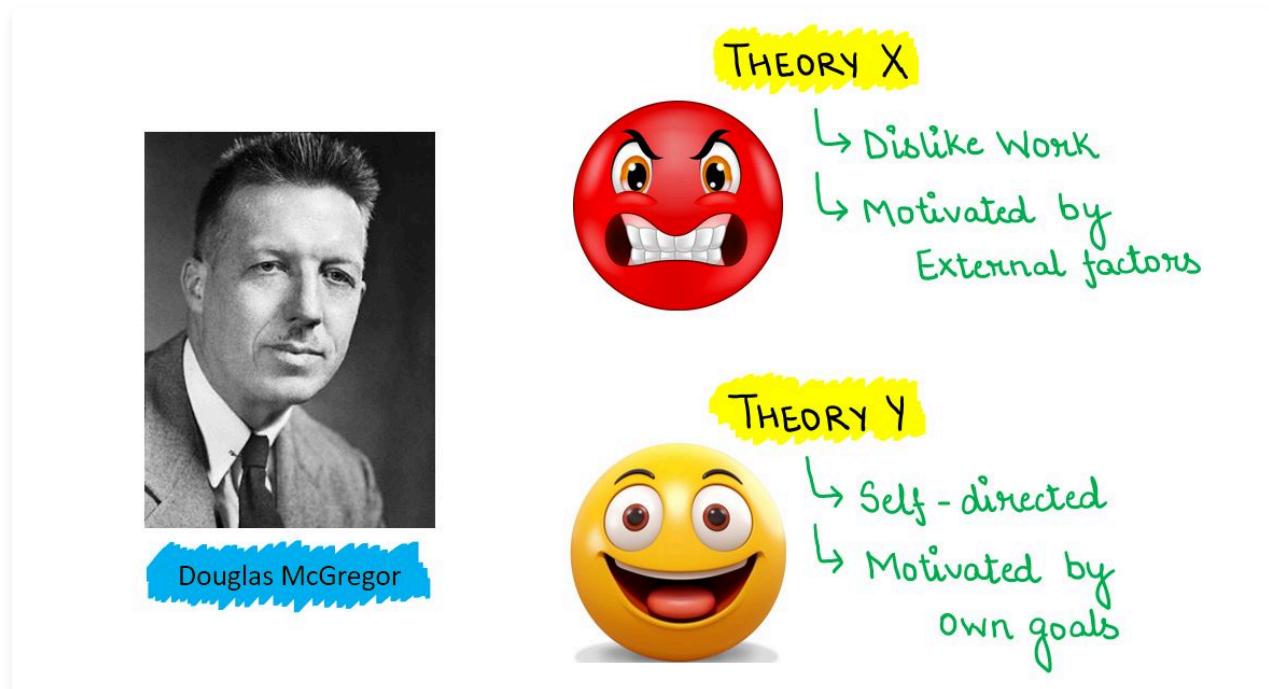


We can distinguish between content and process motivation theories. *Content theories* (also called *Needs Theories*) focus on WHAT, while *Process theories* focus on HOW human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what motivate or demotivate us. Process theories are concerned with "how" motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

Content theories : Maslow's Needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's Achievement Motivation theory and Herzberg's Two-factor theory

Process theories: Skinner's Reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory, Adam's Equity theory and Locke's Goal-setting theory, Cognitive Evaluation theory, Attribution theory.

3. Theory X and Theory Y



The Theory X and Theory Y of motivation were proposed by **Douglas McGregor** and are two distinct views of human beings.

Theory X views employees as inherently disliking work and only being motivated by external factors such as rewards or punishment. Theory Y, on the other hand, suggests that employees can be self-directed and motivated by their own goals and objectives.

Theory X assumptions are basically negative:

- Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
- Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment.
- Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.

Theory Y assumptions are basically positive:

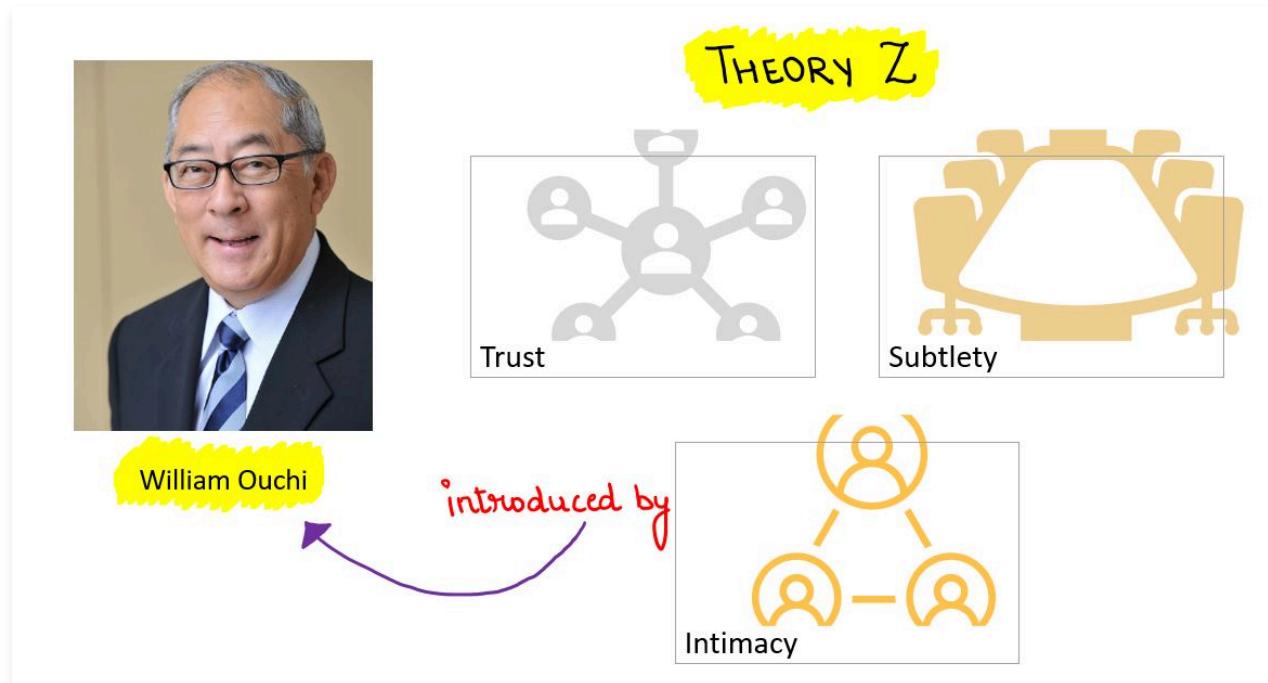
- Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
- People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.
- The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.
- The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population.

However, research has shown that neither theory fully accounts for the complexity of human motivation. It is now understood that motivation is a result of the interaction between the individual and the situation. The level of motivation can vary greatly between individuals and within individuals at different times. Furthermore, the factors that motivate individuals can vary based on the situation.

There are two types of motivators intrinsic and extrinsic. *Extrinsic motivators* come from outside the individual, such as pay or bonuses. *Intrinsic motivators*, on the other hand, come from within the individual, such as a desire to do something because of interest, challenge, or personal satisfaction. When an individual is intrinsically motivated, they genuinely care about their work and are fulfilled by doing it well.

Theory X suggests that individuals are almost exclusively driven by extrinsic motivators, while Theory Y suggests that individuals are more driven by intrinsic motivators. However, recent research suggests that the situation, rather than individual personalities, can play a role in determining intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

3. Theory X and Theory Y



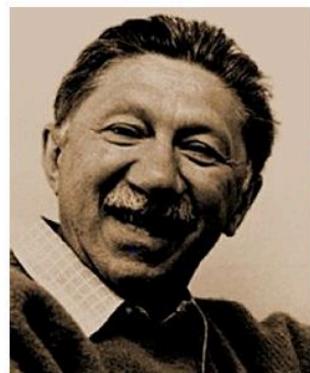
In the 1970s and 1980s, Japan was known for having some of the most efficient and productive organizations globally and was making a significant impact on the North American and European markets. The reason behind their success wasn't necessarily their product offerings, but rather the way they managed their employees. Japanese workers were highly motivated, engaged, and productive, and this was attributed to the management practices employed by Japanese organizations. **Professor William Ouchi** believed that Western organizations could benefit from the management practices of Japanese organizations. He created Theory Z, which aimed to combine the best of both Eastern and Western management practices.

Theory Z was introduced by Ouchi in his 1981 book "*Theory Z: How American Management Can Meet the Japanese Challenge*". The theory was created after research aimed at helping American companies to compete with Japanese businesses. Ouchi claimed that the use of Theory Z had several benefits, including reducing employee turnover, increasing commitment and morale, improving job satisfaction, and significantly increasing productivity.

Three key principles of Theory Z are trust, subtlety, and intimacy.

1. **Trust** refers to the belief in and reliance on someone or something. In the context of Theory Z, it refers to the trust between employees and management, where employees are empowered to make decisions and take actions.
2. **Subtlety** refers to the indirect approach to management, where management does not use direct or authoritative methods but instead relies on subtle influence.
3. **Intimacy** refers to the close relationship between employees and management, where employees are valued and treated as partners in the organization's success.

4. Hierarchy of Needs Theory



Abraham Maslow

Hierarchy
of
Needs

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a widely recognized theory of motivation that suggests that within every individual, there is a hierarchy of five different needs that influence their behavior.



These five needs are listed as follows:

1. **Physiological**: These are the basic physiological requirements for survival, such as food, water, shelter, and sleep. When these needs are not met, they become the primary focus and dominate the individual's behavior.
2. **Safety** : This includes the need for security and protection from physical and emotional harm. Once physiological needs are met, safety becomes the next dominant need and influences behavior.
3. **Social** : This includes the need for affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship. Social needs are important for human development and well-being, and once safety needs are met, social needs become the dominant motivator.
4. **Esteem** : This encompasses both internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement, and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention. When social needs are satisfied, esteem becomes the dominant need and motivates behavior.
5. **Self-actualization**: This is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming, and includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment. Self-actualization is considered the highest level of need and only becomes dominant when all

other needs have been substantially satisfied.

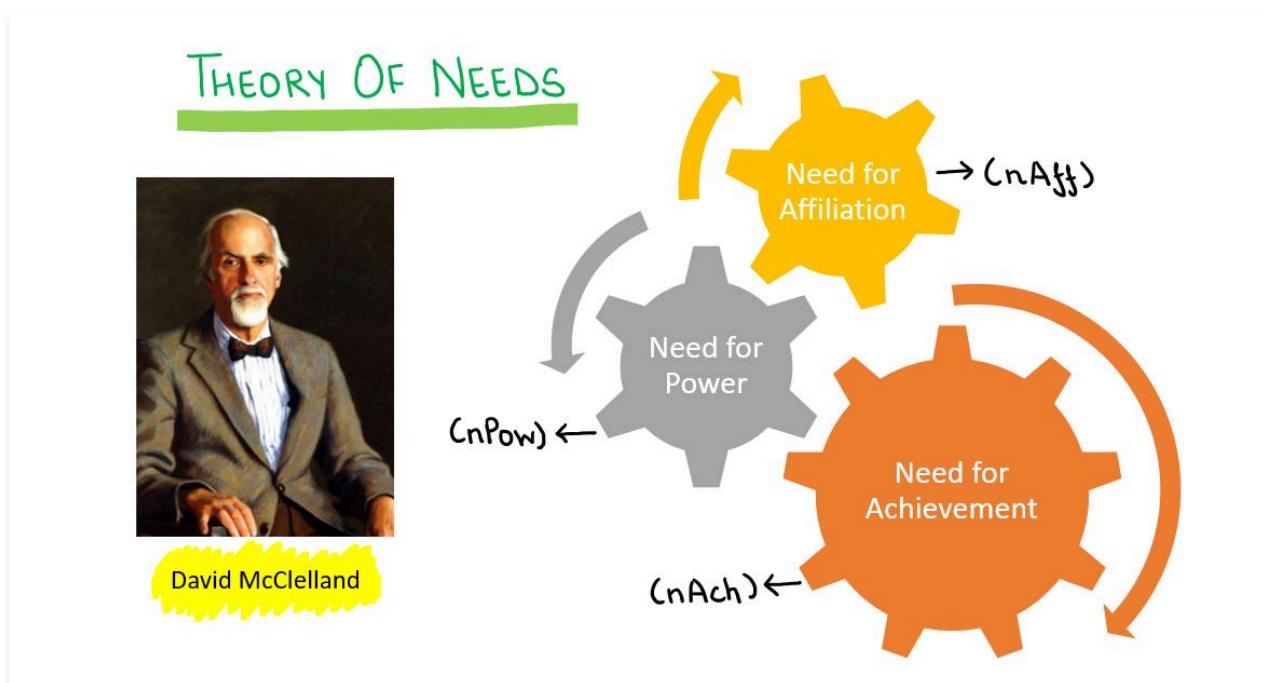
Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower orders.

- Physiological and safety needs are described as lower-order.
- Social, esteem, and self-actualization are as higher-order needs
- Higher-order needs are satisfied internally.
- Lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally.

Maslow's need theory has received wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers. Research does not generally validate the theory.

5. McClelland's Theory of Needs

McClelland's Theory of Needs is a psychological theory that explains the different motivations that drive individuals.



According to the theory, individuals have 3 core needs that guide their behavior and actions.

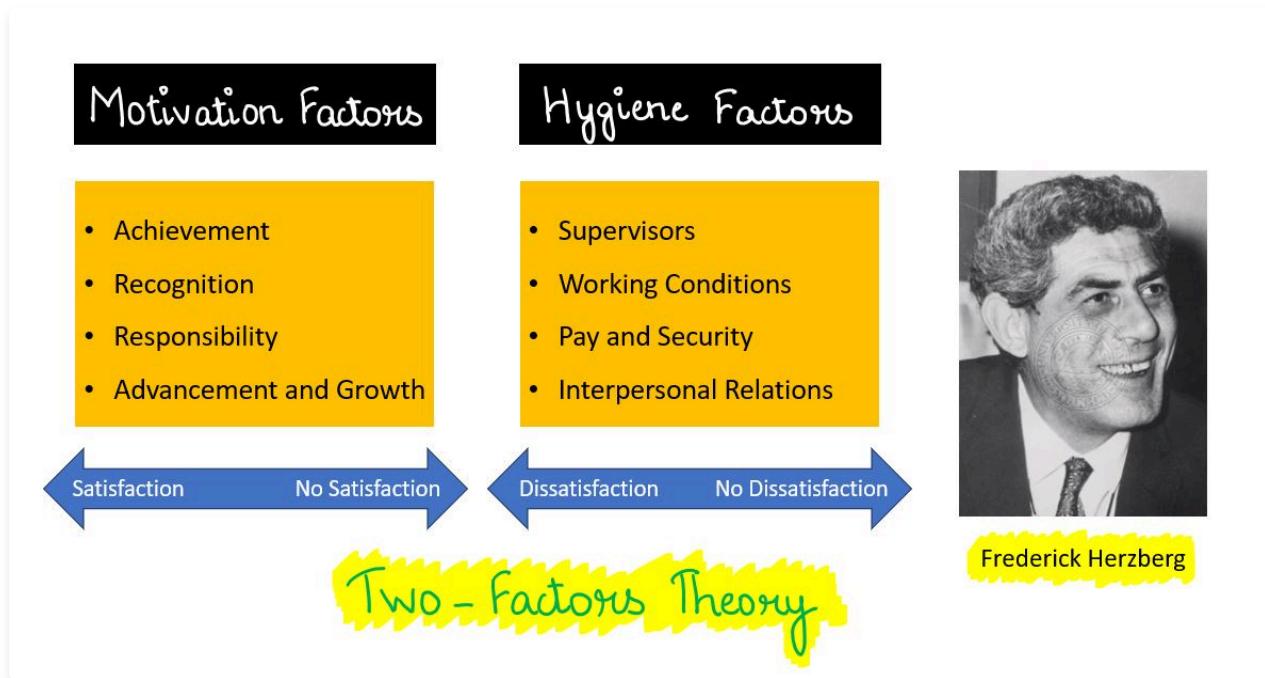
1. **Need for achievement** : This refers to a person's drive to achieve success and excel in their endeavors. People with a high need for achievement are motivated by the desire to set high standards for themselves and continuously strive to meet and exceed these standards.
2. **Need for power** : This refers to a person's desire to exert control and influence over others. People with a high need for power are motivated by the desire to make others behave in a way that they wouldn't have without their influence.
3. **Need for affiliation** : This refers to a person's desire for close and friendly interpersonal relationships. People with a high need for affiliation are motivated by the desire to build and maintain strong social connections with others.

In conclusion, McClelland's Theory of Needs provides insight into the different motivations that drive individuals and can help to understand why people behave in certain ways. By recognizing and understanding these needs, individuals can better understand their own motivations and make more informed decisions about their lives and careers.

6. Two-Factor Theory

The Two-Factor Theory, also known as the Motivator-Hygiene Theory, was introduced by **Frederick Herzberg**, a behavioral scientist, in 1959. The theory proposes that *job satisfaction* and *job dissatisfaction* are determined by different factors. According to Herzberg, the presence of certain job factors leads to satisfaction while the absence of others leads to dissatisfaction.

The job factors that lead to satisfaction are classified as Motivational Factors, while the factors that prevent dissatisfaction are known as Hygiene Factors.

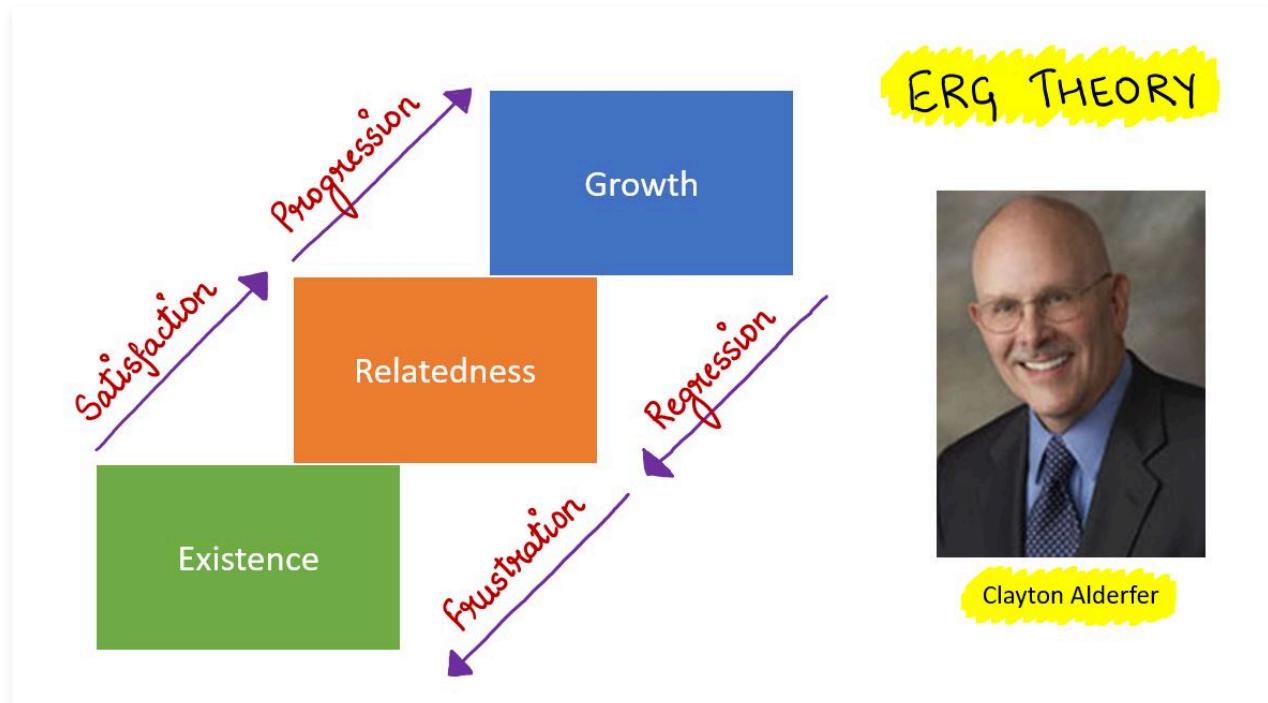


1. Hygiene Factors : Hygiene Factors are the basic necessities that an employee needs in order to maintain motivation in the workplace. These factors, such as pay, benefits, working conditions, job security, and interpersonal relations, are not enough to lead to long-term job satisfaction. Instead, they are essential to prevent dissatisfaction.

2. Motivational Factors : Motivational Factors are those that lead to job satisfaction. These factors, such as recognition, opportunities for growth and advancement, meaningful work, and a sense of achievement, are inherent to the job and motivate employees to perform at a high level. Employees find these factors intrinsically rewarding.

In summary, the Two-Factor Theory suggests that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are influenced by two different sets of factors, the Hygiene Factors and the Motivational Factors. While Hygiene Factors are essential to prevent dissatisfaction, Motivational Factors are what lead to long-term job satisfaction.

7. ERG Theory



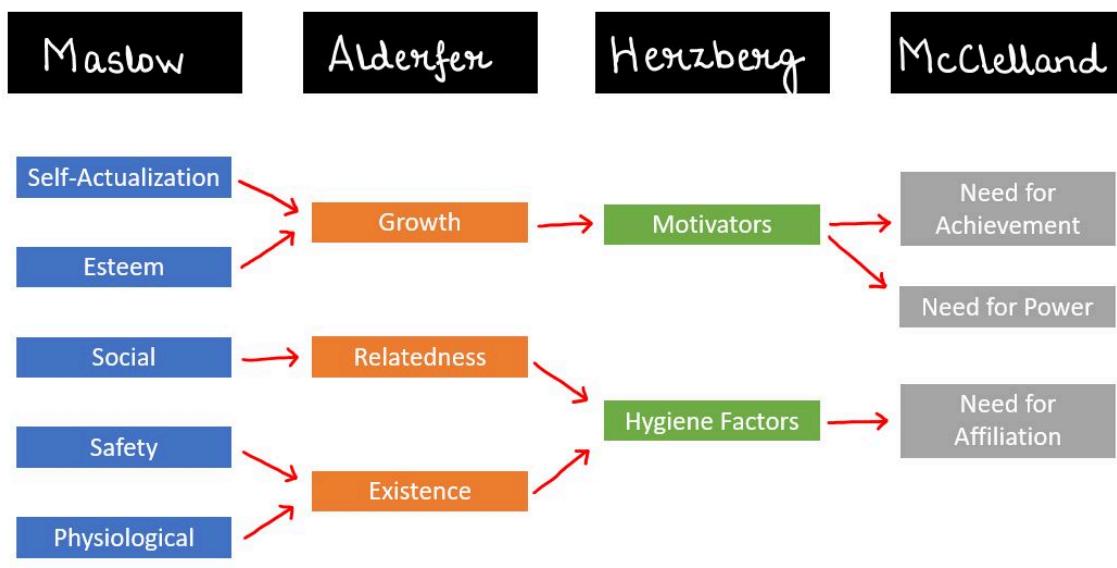
The ERG theory, developed by **Clayton Alderfer**, is a revision of Maslow's hierarchy of needs that is based on empirical research. According to **Alderfer**, there are three core needs that drive human behavior: existence, relatedness, and growth.

1. **Existence** encompasses our basic necessities for survival, including food, shelter, and security. These needs align with Maslow's physiological and safety needs.
2. **Relatedness** refers to the desire to maintain meaningful relationships and connections with others. This group of needs encompasses Maslow's social need and the external aspect of his esteem need.
3. **Growth** encompasses the intrinsic drive for personal development, encompassing the internal aspect of Maslow's esteem need and the characteristics of self-actualization.

ERG theory differs from Maslow's hierarchy of needs in two key ways. Firstly, it allows for multiple needs to be active simultaneously. Secondly, if a higher-level need is thwarted, it may increase the drive to satisfy a lower-level need. This theory is more in line with our understanding of individual differences and recognizes that factors such as education, family background, and cultural environment can impact the relative importance of each group of needs for a given person.

In the context of the ERG theory, *Frustration* refers to the feeling of disappointment that arises when a need is not met. *Regression* refers to a person retreating to a lower-level need when a higher-level need is frustrated. *Progression* refers to a person moving towards satisfying a higher-level need. *Satisfaction* refers to the feeling of contentment that arises when a need is met.

8. Summarizing Needs Theories



All needs theories of motivation, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's theory of needs, and Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (or the two-factor theory), propose a similar idea: Individuals have needs that, when unsatisfied, will result in motivation.

For instance, if you have a need to be praised, you may work harder at your task in order to receive recognition from your manager or other co-workers. Similarly, if you need money and you are asked to do something, within reason, that offers money as a reward, you will be motivated to complete the task in order to earn the money.

Where needs theories differ is in the types of needs they consider, and whether they propose a hierarchy of needs (where some needs have to be satisfied before others) or simply a list of needs. The figure illustrates the relationship of the 4 needs theories to each other. While the theories use different names for the needs, and also have different numbers of needs, we can see that they are somewhat consistent in the types of needs addressed.

9. Expectancy Theory



$$\text{Force of Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy}$$

Victor H. Vroom's expectancy theory is widely regarded as a fundamental explanation of motivation in the workplace.

From a practical standpoint, this theory posits that an employee's motivation to exert effort is shaped by three key beliefs:

- 1. Expectancy (Effort-Performance Relationship):** This aspect concerns an individual's perception of the likelihood that their effort will lead to successful performance. For instance, consider a salesperson who believes that putting in extra hours to prepare for a presentation will significantly enhance the chances of securing a lucrative client deal. Expectancy can be expressed as a probability, and ranges from 0 to 1.
- 2. Instrumentality (Performance-Rewards Relationship):** Instrumentality focuses on whether achieving a certain level of performance will result in obtaining desired rewards or outcomes. For example, an employee might believe that surpassing sales targets consistently will lead to a bonus or promotion, motivating them to strive for higher performance levels. Instrumentality ranges from -1 to +1. A negative instrumentality indicates that high performance reduces the chances of getting the desired outcome. An instrumentality of 0 indicates that there is no relationship between performance and receiving the desired outcome.
- 3. Valence (Rewards-Personal Goals Relationship):** Valence assesses the alignment between organizational rewards and an individual's personal goals or needs. An example could be an employee valuing a flexible work schedule as a reward, aligning with their desire for a better work-life balance. Valence ranges from -1 (very undesirable reward) to +1 (very desirable reward).

The force of motivation is determined by the product of these three variables, and if one of the variables is zero, the motivation will also be zero.

Expectancy Equation represented as: $\text{Force} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Expectancy}$.

10. Goal-Setting Theory



Edwin Locke

Goal Setting Principles

- ↳ Task Complexity
- ↳ Feedback
- ↳ Commitment
- ↳ Clarity
- ↳ Challenge

The Goal-setting theory of motivation, proposed by **Edwin Locke** in the 1960s, suggests that setting goals is closely linked to task performance. According to the theory, specific and challenging goals along with appropriate feedback can lead to improved and better task performance. This theory asserts that behavior is a result of conscious goals and intentions, and therefore, by setting goals, a manager can influence the behavior of people in an organization.

The goal-setting theory highlights several key principles including clarity, challenging goals, commitment, feedback, task complexity, goal difficulty, specificity, and acceptance.

Clarity refers to the need for setting clear and precise goals, while challenging goals refer to raising the stakes.

Commitment refers to both rational and emotional involvement in the goal, and **feedback** helps determine progress.

Task complexity is the need to avoid exceeding beyond a limit, and goal difficulty refers to the extent to which a goal is challenging and requires effort.

Specificity refers to the clarity and precision of the goal, and acceptance refers to the extent to which a person accepts a goal as their own.

The original version of goal-setting theory identified two important characteristics of goals that shape performance goal difficulty and goal specificity.

1. **Goal difficulty** refers to the level of challenge a goal presents, and goal specificity refers to the clarity and precision of the goal. Later, an expanded model of goal-setting was proposed, which argues that goal-directed effort is a function of four goal attributes: difficulty, specificity, acceptance, and commitment.

2. **Goal acceptance** refers to the extent to which a person accepts the goal, and goal commitment refers to their personal interest in reaching the goal.

SMART approach

The SMART approach to goal setting is a widely used framework that can help individuals and organizations set and achieve their goals effectively. SMART stands for Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Time-bound. This approach to goal setting is aligned with the principles of the goal-setting theory, which suggests that clear and specific goals lead to improved performance.



- **Specific**: Goals should be specific and clearly defined so that it's easy to understand what needs to be achieved.
 - **Measurable**: Goals should be quantifiable and measurable so that progress can be tracked and monitored. This helps to provide feedback and measure the effectiveness of the goal-setting process.
 - **Achievable**: Goals should be realistic and achievable, given the resources, time, and ability of the individual or organization. Setting unrealistic goals can lead to disappointment and a lack of motivation.
 - **Relevant**: Goals should be relevant and aligned with the values, priorities, and interests of the individual or organization. This helps to increase motivation and commitment to achieving the goal.
 - **Time-bound**: Goals should have a clear deadline or timeline to help create a sense of urgency and accountability.
-

11. Equity Theory

EQUITY THEORY

$\frac{\text{Individual Outputs}}{\text{Individual Inputs}}$

=

$\frac{\text{Other's Outputs}}{\text{Other's Inputs}}$

The equity theory of motivation, first proposed by John Stacey Adams in 1963, suggests that an individual's motivation at work is influenced by their perceived fairness of the rewards they receive in relation to the effort they put in.

The equity theory delves into how employees gauge the fairness of their job's rewards in comparison to their contributions. It's a balance between what they put in (**inputs** like effort, experience, and dedication) and what they get out (**outcomes/outputs** like pay, promotions, or recognition).

In this framework, people seek a fair equilibrium between their efforts and the rewards they receive. They do this by comparing their own contributions to those of others, both within their current workplace and in past roles at different organizations. This comparison involves measuring their efforts against their rewards, evaluating the ratio of outcomes to inputs, and aligning it with their colleagues and past experiences to determine fairness.

Adams categorized rewards like salary, bonuses, recognition, annual leave, and positive work appraisals as outputs. On the other hand, inputs encompass the effort put in by the employee, including work hours, responsibilities, commitment, loyalty, flexibility, and support provided to the organization and colleagues.

Ratio Comparisons

Perception

$\frac{O}{I_A} < \frac{O}{I_B}$ → Inequity due to being underrewarded

$\frac{O}{I_A} = \frac{O}{I_B}$ → Equity

$\frac{O}{I_A} > \frac{O}{I_B}$ → Inequity due to being overrewarded

$\frac{O}{I_A} = \text{Employees}$ $\frac{O}{I_B} = \text{Others}$ O = Outcomes I = Inputs

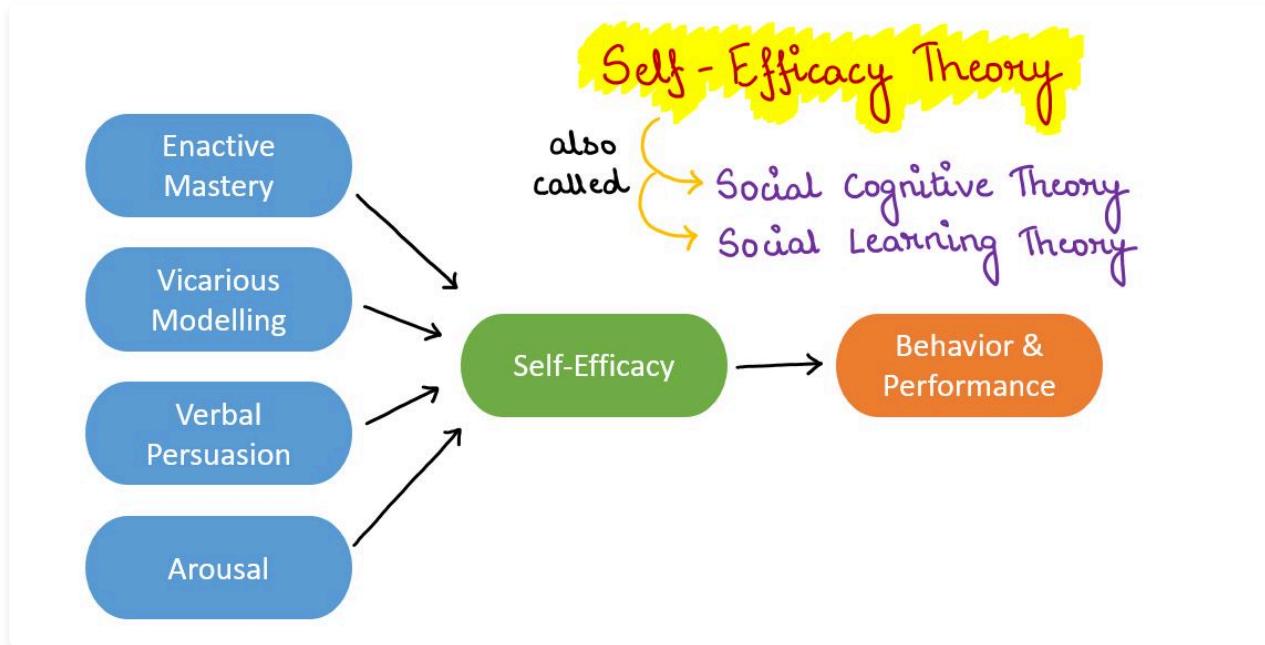
If an employee perceives a mismatch between what they contribute and what they receive compared to their peers, a sense of inequity arises. This perception of fairness or unfairness, based on the comparison of inputs and outputs with colleagues, can significantly impact an employee's motivation levels. When the balance seems skewed, it can lead to demotivation and dissatisfaction among employees.

Based on equity theory, employees who perceive inequity will make one of six choices:

1. Change inputs (exert less effort if underpaid or more if overpaid).

2. Change outcomes (individuals paid on a piece-rate basis can increase their pay by producing a higher quantity of units of lower quality).
 3. Distort perceptions of self ("I used to think I worked at a moderate pace, but now I realize I work a lot harder than everyone else.").
 4. Distort perceptions of others ("Mohan's job isn't as desirable as I thought.").
 5. Choose a different referent ("I may not make as much as my brother-in-law, but I am doing a lot better than my father did when he was my age.").
 6. Leave the field (quit the job).
-

12. Self-Efficacy Theory



The Self-efficacy theory, also referred to as the *Social Cognitive theory or the Social Learning theory*, states that an individual's perception of their capability to perform a task plays a crucial role in their motivation and behavior. High self-efficacy results in confidence and a greater likelihood of making an effort to succeed, while low self-efficacy can lead to decreased effort and potentially giving up in challenging situations.

Albert Bandura's Self-Efficacy theory outlines four avenues to enhance one's belief in their capabilities:

1. **Enactive Mastery** (Gaining Task-Relevant Experience): Bandura emphasizes this as the foremost method to boost self-efficacy. It involves acquiring firsthand experience and proficiency with the task or job. Past successes build confidence in handling similar tasks in the future.
2. **Vicarious Modeling** (Learning from Others' Examples): The second approach is vicarious modeling, where observing others successfully completing a task enhances one's confidence. For instance, witnessing a friend's academic improvement can bolster confidence in achieving similar progress.
3. **Verbal Persuasion** (Encouragement and Positive Feedback): Verbal persuasion is another source. It involves gaining confidence through someone else's assurance in your capabilities. This method, often employed by motivational speakers, influences belief in one's skills and potential for success.
4. **Arousal** (Increased Excitement and Motivation): Bandura also highlights arousal as a factor that influences self-efficacy. Arousal creates an energized state, boosting performance. However, for tasks requiring a calm and focused approach (like meticulous manuscript editing), excessive arousal might hinder performance instead.

Pygmalion effect

The Pygmalion effect refers to a phenomenon where an individual's performance or behavior is influenced by others' expectations. Essentially, if someone believes strongly in a particular outcome or behavior, it can impact their actions in a way that fulfills those expectations.

For example, imagine a teacher who holds high expectations for a student she believes is exceptionally bright. Due to this belief, the teacher may provide more attention, encouragement, and challenging tasks to that student. Consequently, the student, sensing this elevated expectation, may feel more motivated and confident, ultimately performing better academically.

Conversely, if a teacher has low expectations for a student and assumes they will struggle, they might inadvertently provide less support or opportunities for growth. Consequently, the student might internalize these low expectations, leading to decreased motivation and potentially poorer performance.

13. Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive Evaluation Theory explores how the introduction of external rewards, such as monetary incentives, for tasks that were previously personally rewarding (intrinsic) can potentially diminish overall motivation levels. Historically, motivation theories viewed intrinsic and extrinsic motivators as independent, but this theory challenges this assumption.

The concept suggests that when external rewards are employed by organizations to acknowledge superior performance, the intrinsic enjoyment derived from the task itself decreases. In simpler terms, if someone is paid to do something they find inherently interesting, the introduction of payment might actually reduce their enjoyment of the task.

For instance, consider a scenario in an office setting: a team member, who typically finds immense satisfaction in organizing events voluntarily, suddenly starts receiving monetary compensation for this activity. Initially, the incentive might seem positive, but over time, the satisfaction derived from organizing events may diminish because the previously enjoyable task has become associated with an external reward.

This phenomenon is often explained by the perceived loss of control over one's behavior due to external rewards. When an external source starts dictating or rewarding the behavior, the individual's intrinsic motivation declines. The shift from internal (intrinsic) to external (extrinsic) explanations for why one engages in an activity can impact their perception of enjoyment and diminish their intrinsic motivation over time.

Essentially, if an individual attributes their behavior solely to external rewards, their intrinsic motivation might diminish. For example, if someone reads novels solely because it's a course requirement, their reading behavior might cease once the course ends, suggesting that their motivation was purely external. However, if they continue reading even after the course concludes, their natural inclination might be to believe they enjoy reading novels intrinsically.

Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory is another complementary theory that hypothesizes that extrinsic rewards will reduce intrinsic interest in a task. According to this theory, people are driven by a need for autonomy and seek ways to achieve competence and positive connections to others. People are motivated by intrinsic factors, such as a strong interest in the work itself, more sustainably than by extrinsic rewards.

The recent outgrowth of self-determination theory, called *self-concordance*, considers how strongly people's reasons for pursuing goals align with their interests and core values. Research shows that individuals who pursue goals for intrinsic reasons are more likely to attain their goals, are happier when they do, and are even happier if they don't. On the other hand, individuals who don't enjoy their work for intrinsic reasons but do it out of obligation can still perform well but experience higher levels of strain.

For individuals, it is recommended to choose a job for reasons other than extrinsic rewards. For organizations, it means providing both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives and making the work interesting, providing recognition, and supporting employee growth and development. Employees who feel in control and have a sense of free choice are more likely to be motivated and committed to their employers.

14. Reinforcement Theory

The Reinforcement Theory of motivation, proposed by **BF Skinner** and his associates, suggests that an individual's behavior is influenced by the consequences of their actions. It is based on the "law of effect," meaning that an individual is more likely to repeat a behavior if it results in positive consequences, and less likely to repeat a behavior if it results in negative consequences.

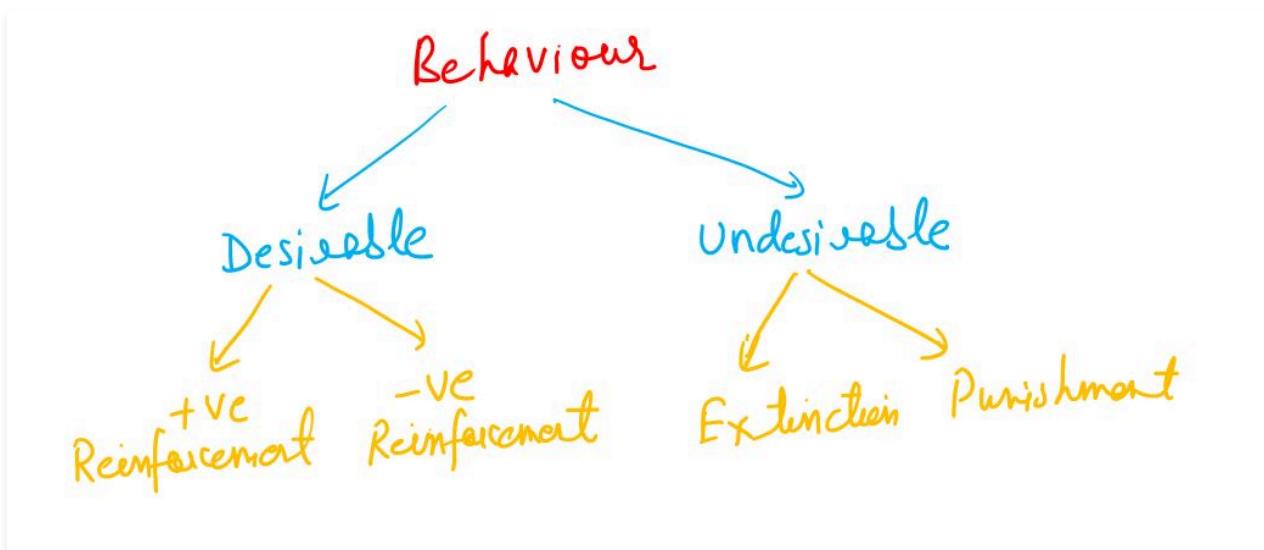
According to the theory, behavior can be classified as *desirable* or *undesirable*.

Desirable behavior that is followed by *positive reinforcement*, such as a reward, will increase the likelihood of that behavior being repeated in the future. For example, in a business setting, if an employee consistently meets their targets, they may receive a bonus as positive reinforcement, encouraging them to continue performing well. Desirable behavior can also be strengthened through *negative reinforcement*, which involves removing an aversive stimulus to increase the likelihood of the behavior being repeated. For example, an employee who arrives on time to work may avoid being reprimanded, thus strengthening their punctual behavior through negative reinforcement.

Undesirable behavior can be weakened through *extinction*, which involves withholding positive reinforcement. For example, if an employee consistently misses their targets, their bonus may be gradually reduced, leading to the extinction of their poor performance. Undesirable behavior can also be discouraged through *punishment*, which involves applying an aversive stimulus. For example, an employee who consistently arrives late may receive a warning, serving as punishment for their tardiness.

Avoidance is a type of behavior that occurs when an individual engages in an action to avoid a negative consequence. For example, an employee who is afraid of being fired might work extra hard to avoid being let go.

Behavior modification is the process of using reinforcement and punishment to change behavior. This may involve using positive reinforcement to encourage desirable behaviors or punishment to discourage undesirable behaviors. The goal of behavior modification is to improve performance and achieve specific objectives.



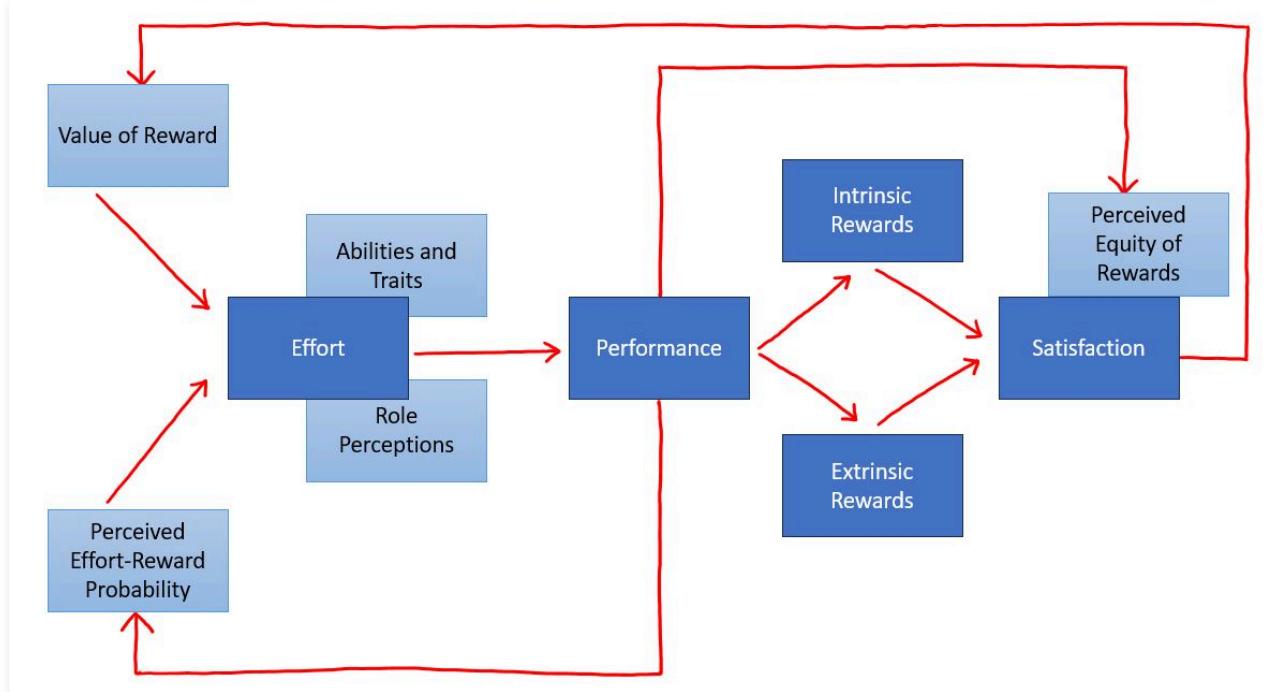
Schedules of Reinforcement

The schedules of reinforcement refer to the pattern in which reinforcement is delivered following a behavior. Here are brief explanations of the different types of schedules with examples:

1. *Continuous reinforcement*: In this schedule, every instance of the desired behavior is immediately followed by reinforcement. For example, if an employee receives a bonus every time they complete a task, this would be an example of continuous reinforcement.
2. *Fixed ratio*: In this schedule, reinforcement is given after a specific number of instances of the desired behavior. For example, an employee might receive a bonus for every 10 tasks they complete, representing a fixed ratio schedule of reinforcement.
3. *Variable ratio*: In this schedule, the number of instances of the desired behavior required for reinforcement is unpredictable. For example, a salesperson might receive a commission for every third sale they make, but the exact number of sales required for a commission is unpredictable, creating a variable ratio schedule of reinforcement.
4. *Fixed interval*: In this schedule, reinforcement is given at regular, predictable intervals of time. For example, an employee might receive a performance-based bonus every six months, representing a fixed interval schedule of reinforcement.

5. *Variable interval:* In this schedule, the intervals between reinforcement are unpredictable. For example, an employee might receive unexpected bonuses at random intervals, creating a variable interval schedule of reinforcement.

15. Porter and Lawler's Theory



Porter and Lawler's (by Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler) theory is an improvement over Vroom's expectancy theory.

Porter and Lawler built upon Victor Vroom's expectancy theory to construct their own expectancy model, emphasizing that an individual's motivation hinges on the anticipated rewards for task completion. However, they expanded on Vroom's theory by introducing additional elements.

Their model proposes that satisfaction arises from the perceived fairness of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards tied to high-level performance. Intrinsic rewards, personally granted for good performance, involve feelings of accomplishment and fulfillment of higher-level needs. These are directly linked to performance if the job structure is complex enough for self-reward based on perceived success. Extrinsic rewards, bestowed by the organization, predominantly fulfill lower-level needs like pay, promotion, status, and job security. They are directly tied to performance on a regular basis.

What sets the Porter-Lawler theory apart is its comprehensive consideration of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, task requirements, ability, and fairness perceptions. Their model suggests that satisfaction is indirectly connected to rewards through perceived equity. This equity encompasses the expected rewards an individual believes they should receive based on performance or position within the organization.

Satisfaction, according to Porter and Lawler, is a comparison between actual rewards and perceived equitable rewards. If actual rewards exceed what's perceived as fair, it leads to satisfaction. Conversely, if there's a shortfall between actual and expected rewards, it results in dissatisfaction. The extent of satisfaction or dissatisfaction experienced by an individual depends on the magnitude of this difference between actual and perceived equitable rewards.

16. Contribution-Satisfaction equilibrium

The contribution-satisfaction equilibrium is a concept in motivation theory first introduced by **Chester I. Barnard**. According to Barnard, individuals will only make contributions to organizations if they receive a level of satisfaction in return. While contributions are the work of an individual, the satisfactions are the inducements or incentives, which he derives in exchange for his contributions. That is why, it is important for an executive to handle the "economy of incentives" within organization.

In analysing man's satisfaction in an organization, Barnard identifies four **specific incentives**:

1. Material inducements (such as money or physical conditions)
2. Personal non-material opportunities (for distinction and personal power)
3. Desirable physical conditions of work
4. Ideal benefactions (such as the pride of workmanship, sense of adequacy, loyalty to organization, altruistic service for family, etc.).

Barnard also spells out four types of **general incentives**, which affect man's behaviour in an organization:

1. Associated attractiveness (based upon compatibility with associates);
2. The adaptation of working conditions to habitual methods and attitudes;
3. The opportunity for the feeling of enlarged participation in their course of events; and
4. The condition of communion with others, a condition based upon personal comfort in social relations and the opportunity for comradeship and for mutual support in personal attitudes.

It is important to note that Barnard does not view individuals as purely motivated by material rewards. Rather, he believes that material rewards are only effective to a certain extent, and that non-material incentives such as the pride of workmanship and a sense of adequacy can also play a significant role in motivation.

For example, an individual might take a job at a non-profit organization because they believe in the cause, even if the pay is lower than at for-profit organizations. This sense of purpose and connection to a greater cause can be seen as a general incentive, while the salary would be a specific inducement.

17. FIRO Theory



The FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) Theory, introduced by Dr. Will Schutz in 1958, is a theory of interpersonal relations that identifies three basic needs shared by all human beings.

1. **Need for inclusion** : It refers to the desire to maintain relationships with others and to be included in their activities. Individuals differ in the strength of their relative needs in this area and exhibit tendencies towards extroversion and introversion.
2. **Need for control** : It refers to the desire to maintain a balance of power and influence in relationships and to exert control, influence, and direction over others while remaining independent from them. This creates a trade-off between authoritarianism and dependency.
3. **Need for affection** : It refers to the desire to form close personal relationships with others. This encompasses the need for warmth, intimacy, and love, not just physical affection or romantic relationships. Individuals need closeness but also wish to avoid being smothered.

The FIRO-B Instrument is used to measure behaviors driven by interpersonal needs in the three areas of inclusion, control, and affection. This instrument can be used for leadership development by combining it with the MBTI instrument in a Leadership Report Using FIRO-B and MBTI, as well as in team-building workshops.

18. Udai Pareek Theory and MAO-B

Udai Pareek (1986) identified what he believes to be the six primary needs or motivators relevant to understand the behavior of people in organizations and developed the MAO-B instrument to measure them.

Udai Pareek Theory & MAO - B

MOTIVE	APPROACH (Hope of)	AVOIDANCE (Fear of)
Achievement	Success	Failure
Expert Influence	Impact	Impotence
Control	Order	Chaos
Extension	Relevance	Irrelevance
Dependence	Growth	Loneliness
Affiliation	Inclusion	Exclusion

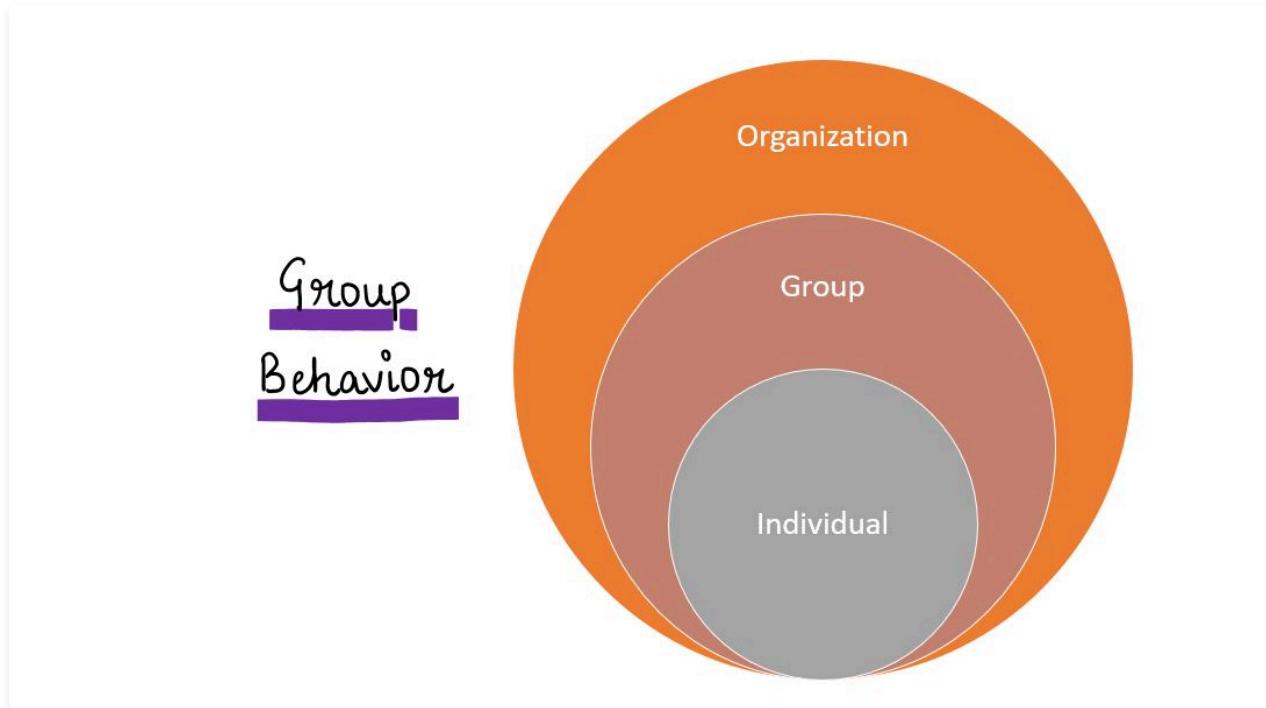
The six motives are:

1. **Achievement** : Characterized by concern for excellence, competition with the standards of excellence set by others or by oneself, the setting of challenging goals for oneself, awareness of the hurdles in the way of achieving those goals, and persistence in trying alternative paths to one's goals.
2. **Affiliation** : Characterized by a concern for establishing and maintaining close, personal relationships; a value on friendship; and a tendency to express one's emotions.
3. **Influence** : Characterized by concern with making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right, and an urge to change matters and (develop) people.
4. **Control** : Characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to be and stay informed, and an urge to monitor and take corrective action when needed.
5. **Extension** : Characterized by concern for others, interest in superordinate goals, and an urge to be relevant and useful to larger groups, including society.
6. **Dependence** : Characterized by a desire for the help of others in one's own self-development, checking with significant others (those who are more knowledgeable or have higher status, experts, close associates, etc.), submitting ideas or proposals for approval, and having an urge to maintain an "approval" relationship.

Each of the six motives can have two dimensions: approach and avoidance. For example, with the achievement motive, the two dimensions are hope of success *approach* and fear of failure *avoidance*. The latter is dysfunctional. The table that follows summarizes the approach and avoidance dimensions of each of the six motives.

The Motivational Analysis of Organizations-Behavior (MAO-B) instrument, developed by Udai Pareek, measures these six motives by evaluating 60 items - five for each dimension (approach and avoidance) of the six motives. The results of the assessment provide a numerical representation of what motivates an individual's behavior, their responses to each of the six motivators, and how they respond to each motivator - whether positively or negatively.

1. Introduction



A *group* is a collection of two or more individuals who interact and depend on each other to achieve specific objectives or share a common purpose. Members of a group work together, share a sense of membership, consciousness, and interdependence, which enables them to act in a unitary manner. Understanding group behavior is essential for managers as group pressures can influence the behavior of individual members and their work performance.



Group behavior refers to the actions and interactions of individuals within a group or team setting. It includes communication, decision-making, conflict resolution, and social influence.

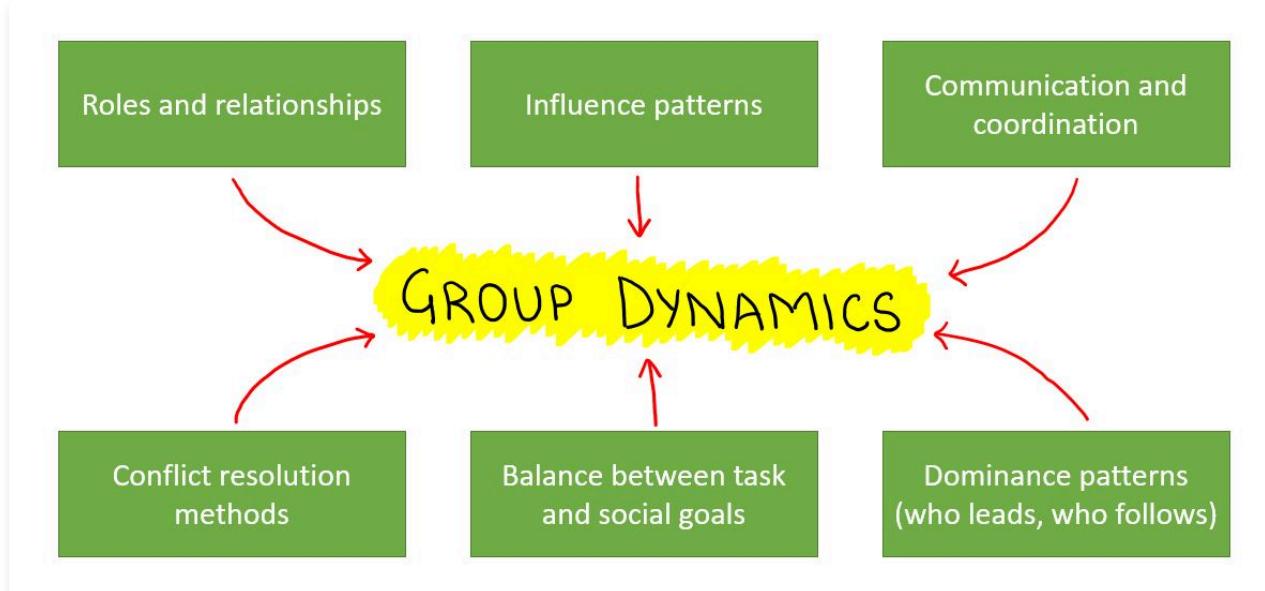
HR managers need to understand group behavior because groups and teams are essential to the success of organizations. They must be able to form and manage effective teams to accomplish organizational goals. Additionally, HR managers must understand the dynamics of group behavior to create a positive work culture, prevent conflicts, and improve employee engagement and satisfaction.

Individual behavior is how a person acts within the organization, while group behavior is how people interact within a group. Organizational behavior is the study of how individuals and groups behave within an organization. There is a close relationship between individual behavior, group behavior, and organizational behavior because they are interconnected and influence each

other. For example, an individual's behavior can affect the group's behavior, which in turn can impact the overall performance and culture of the organization.

Individuals tend to join groups for various reasons, including seeking a sense of security and protection, attaining higher status, boosting their self-esteem, forming connections with others, gaining power or influence, and achieving particular goals. These needs and desires can be fulfilled through group membership, and individuals often seek out groups that align with their personal motivations and values.

2. Group Dynamics



Group dynamics refers to the interactions and relationships between individuals within a group, and how these interactions affect the behavior and performance of the group as a whole. It includes how group members communicate, coordinate activities, influence each other, assign roles, establish leadership, balance task and social issues, and resolve conflicts. Social psychologists study group dynamics to understand how to create and manage effective groups in various contexts.

3. Hawthorne Experiments



HAWTHORNE
EXPERIMENTS

↓

HR School

The Hawthorne experiments conducted between the 1920s and 1930s at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago revolutionized the understanding of group behavior in organizations and significantly influenced the Human Relations (HR) school of management. These experiments were pivotal in shaping modern management practices by highlighting the social dynamics within work groups.

Key conclusions drawn from the Hawthorne experiments that significantly impacted the HR school of management and our understanding of group behavior in organizations include:

1. **Work as a Group Activity:** The experiments highlighted that work is not solely an individual activity; it is strongly influenced by group dynamics. The productivity and attitudes of workers were significantly impacted by social interactions and group settings rather than just individual efforts.
2. **Social Aspect of Work:** The social environment at work is essential. The experiments revealed that the social world of adults revolves significantly around work activities. People find a sense of belonging, recognition, and fulfillment of their social needs within their work groups. This social connection positively influences their productivity and job satisfaction.
3. **Impact of Informal Groups:** The experiments shed light on the power of informal groups within the workplace. These informal groups exerted strong social controls over individual work habits and attitudes. The norms, values, and peer pressure within these groups influenced individual behavior and productivity significantly.
4. **Managerial Collaboration with Informal Groups:** Recognizing the influence of informal groups, the Hawthorne experiments emphasized that managers should collaborate and work alongside these informal groups. Building cohesion and rapport within these groups can be beneficial for the company's productivity and overall success. Managers need to understand and integrate with these informal structures to effectively manage their teams and enhance performance.

The Hawthorne experiments fundamentally altered the perception of the workplace, shifting the focus from a purely mechanistic view to one that recognizes the importance of social interactions, group dynamics, and human relations in influencing productivity and behavior.