

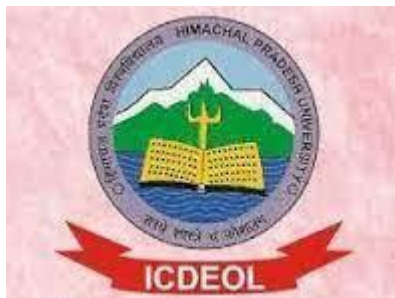
**MA 4<sup>th</sup> Semester  
Sociology (New Syllabus CBCS)**

**Course Code: SOC-C-403**

# **Social Psychology**

**(Lesson- 1-16)**

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## SEMESTER IV

**Course Code: SOC-C-403**

**Maximum Marks 100**

**Course Name: Social Psychology**

**Time: 3 hours**

**Credits: 6**

**Course Objectives:** This course intends to provide students with a general introduction to social psychology. It will develop an understanding of the individual in relation to the social world and introduce students to the realm of social influence, as to how individuals think, feel and behave in social situations.

### **Course Outcomes:**

- ☐ Demonstrate the ability to state the fundamental principles of Social Psychology.
- ☐ Demonstrate the ability to articulate independently and creatively about human Social Behavior and the cultural influences that affect our behavior.
- ☐ Describe, discuss and analyze major issues and concepts in the field of Social Psychology.
- ☐ Compare and contrast the research methodologies used in the scientific study of human Social Behavior.

### **Course Contents:**

#### **Unit-I                    Social Psychology**

Meaning, Nature, Scope and its Growth as a Specialised Science; Relationship of Social Psychology with Psychology and Sociology; Attitudes; Public Opinion; Propaganda; Prejudices and Stereotypes

#### **Unit-II                    Individual and Society**

Mind, Self and Society; Culture and Personality; Theories of Personality; Leadership- Concept, Characteristics, Functions and Types; Techniques of Leadership; Theories of Leadership- Trait, Functional and Situational

#### **Unit-III                    Psychological Processes**

Motivation- Concept, Functions and Types of Motives; Theories of Motivation; Motives and Human Behaviour  
Perception- Concept, Nature and Processes; Perception and its

Correlates; Factors in Perception; Laws of Perception  
Learning- Concept, Nature, Importance and Types; Factors of  
Learning; Laws of Learning; Theories of Learning.

#### **Unit-IV**

#### **Group Dynamics**

Nature and Types of Social Groups; Group Formation and Development; Inter-Group and Intra-Group Relations; Competition and Conflict between the Groups; Collective Behaviour- Audience, Public, Crowds and Mobs

#### **Suggested Readings**

1. Allport, G.W. 1954. *The Nature of Prejudice*. Cambridge: Addison Wesley.
2. Baron, R.A. and Byrne, D.H. 1995. *Social Psychology*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.
3. Brown, C. 2006. *Social Psychology*. London: Sage Publications.
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5. Krech, D. and R.S. Crutchfield. 1975. *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology*. New York: McGraw Hill.
6. Kuppaswami, B. 1980. *An Introduction to Social Psychology*. Bombay: Media Promoters and Publishers Pvt Ltd.
7. Lindgren, H.C. 1973. *An Introduction to Social Psychology*. New Delhi: Wiley Eastern.
8. Lindzey, G. and E. Aronson (eds.). 1964. *Handbook of Social Psychology*. London: Wiley.
9. Mannheim, K. 1966. *Essay on Sociological and Social Psychology*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.
10. McDavid, J. and H. Harari .1986. *Social Psychology* .New Delhi: CBS Publications.
11. Newcomb, T.M. 1950. *Social Psychology*. New York: Dryden Press.
12. Rose, E.A. 1911. *Social Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Publishers.
13. Rosenberg, M. and R.H. Turner (eds.). 1981. *Social Psychology: Sociological Perspective*. New York: Basic Books.
14. Sanderson, C.A. 2010. *Social Psychology*. New Jersey: Wiley.
15. Sargent, S.S. and R.C. Williamson. 1952. *Social Psychology: An Introduction to the Study of Social Relations*. New York: The Ronald Press Co.
16. Shaw, Marvin E. 1981. *Group Dynamics: The Psychology of Small Group Behaviour*. New York: McGraw Hills.
17. Sherif, Muzafer and Carolyn W. Sherif. 1969. *Social Psychology*. New York: Harper and Row.
18. Spratt, W.J.H. 1952. *Social Psychology*. London: Methuen and Co.
19. Toch, Hans. 2013. *The Social Psychology of Social Movements*. London: Routledge.
20. Young, K. 1963. *A Hand Book of Social Psychology*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul



## **Chapter-1**

### **Social Psychology: Meaning, Nature, Scope and Growth**

#### **STRUCTURE**

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Objectives

1.2 Social Psychology: Meaning

1.2.1 Definition of Social Psychology

1.2.2 Nature of Social Psychology

1.2.3 Scope of Social Psychology

1.2.4 Growth of Social Psychology

1.3 Self- Check Exercise

1.4 Summary

1.5 Glossary

1.6 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

1.7 Suggested Readings

1.8 Terminal Questions

#### **1.0 Introduction**

Social psychology is the study of how people think about, influence and relate to others. It emerged at the interface of psychology and sociology in the early 20th century. While Psychology analyses the nature of humans, sociology analyses the nature of society. Social psychology on the other hand, analyses the nature and the relation of man to

society. The sphere of social psychology is social and its focus is individual. It is the study of individual in social situation. This social situation can be person to person interaction, person to group interaction and a group related to another group. The formation of pre-conditions of social psychology is the same as the development of any other scientific discipline. The socio-psychological ideas originally took shape within the realm of philosophy and then gradually branched off from the system of psychological knowledge. First, we will briefly discuss the social thought before the advent of social science and then discuss the second stage of the development of social psychology which is deemed to be more productive.

## **1.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand social psychology.
- Know the nature of social psychology.
- Analyse the scope of social psychology

## **1.2 Social Psychology: Meaning**

Social psychology is 'the scientific investigation of how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others' (G. W. Allport, 1954). What does this mean? What do social psychologists do, how do they do it and what do they study? Social psychologists are interested in explaining *human* behaviour and generally do not study animals. Animal research sometimes identifies processes that generalize to people and certain principles of social behaviour may be general enough to apply to humans and, for instance, other primates. But, as a rule, social psychologists believe that the study of animals does not take us very far in explaining human social behaviour, unless we are interested in evolutionary origins (Neuberg, Kenrick, & Schaller, 2010; Schaller, Simpson, & Kenrick, 2006).

Social psychologists study behaviour because behaviour can be observed and measured. Behaviour refers not only to obvious motor activities (such as running, kissing, and driving) but also to more subtle actions such as a raised eyebrow, a quizzical smile or how we dress, and, critically important in human behaviour, what we say and what we write. In this sense,

behaviour is publicly verifiable. However, behaviour serves a communicative function. What a behaviour means depends on the motives, goals, perspective and cultural background of the actor and the observer.

Social psychologists are interested not only in behaviour, but also in feelings, thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and goals. These are not directly observable but can, with varying degrees of confidence, be inferred from behaviour and may influence or even determine behaviour. The relationship between these unobservable processes and overt behaviour is in itself a focus of research; for example, in research on attitude–behaviour correspondence research on prejudice and discrimination. Unobservable processes are also the psychological dimension of behaviour, as they occur within the human brain. However, social psychologists almost always go one step beyond relating social behaviour to underlying psychological processes – they almost always map psychological aspects of behaviour onto fundamental cognitive processes and structures in the human mind and sometimes to neuro-chemical processes in the brain.

What makes social psychology *social* is that it deals with how people who are affected by other people, who are physically present or who are imagined to be present, or even whose presence is implied. This last influence is more complex and addresses the fundamentally social nature of our experiences as humans. For instance, we tend to think with words; words derive from language and communication; and language and communication would not exist without social interaction. Thought, which is an internalized and private activity that can occur when we are alone, is thus clearly based on implied presence. As another example of implied presence, consider that most of us do not litter, even if no one is watching and even if there is no possibility of ever being caught. This happens because people, as members of a society, have constructed and internalized a social convention or norm that proscribes littering. Such a norm implies the presence of other people and influences behaviour even in their absence.

The practical needs of the discipline have been increased by the increased demand for efficient management in the areas of industry, education, health, mass communication system, struggle against anti-social behaviour, public services, and sports etc. In this unit we will discuss the concept and definition of social psychology, its background and



developments and its relation to other social sciences. Floyd Allport (1924) has defined social psychology as “the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture”. A similar definition by Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline “that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.”

### **1.2.1 Definition of Social Psychology**

Social psychology is an important branch of psychology which studies human interaction, its manifestations, causes, consequences, and the various psychological processes involved in it.

Social psychology is defined as the scientific study of *“how we feel about, think about and behave toward the people around us and how our feelings, thoughts, and behaviours are influenced by those people in the social context”* (Kassin, Fein, & Markus, 2017).

Gordon Allport (1985) In a slightly different expression Social psychology is defined as a *discipline that uses scientific methods to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others”*

Myers and Spencer (2006) define social psychology as the *“scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another”*.

Barron and Byrne (2007) defined social psychology as *“the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and cause of individual behaviour and thought in social situations”*.

### **1.2.2 Nature of Social Psychology**

Careful explanation of definitions given above reveals that it has three major components that characterise the nature of social psychology. These characteristics have been further elaborated below:

### **1. Social Psychology Applies Scientific Methods of Study**

Social psychology is scientific in nature. It applies the scientific method of systematic observation, description, and measurement to the study of the human behaviour in social context. Social psychological studies refer to the data being collected through direct observation or experiment. Such experiments and observation are carried out carefully and reported in detail so that other investigators can repeat and verify the work. The scientific social psychology carries out three major activities: description, explanation, and prediction of social behaviours. Social psychology provides a scientific account of social behaviour based on direct observation rather than on common beliefs. Social psychology also attempts to explain why people behave in a particular way in a particular social situation. Such interconnected explanations of social behaviours lead to formation of theories which help in predicting social behaviours and managing them in a desirable direction.

### **2. Social Psychology Studies Individuals' Thought, Feeling and Behaviour.**

The varied issues of the field of social psychology include- individuals' thought, feeling and behaviour. Cognition is referred as the way people process information. Social psychology studies cognition that relates to social activities and that helps us in understanding and predicting our social behaviours. Social psychology also studies the feelings we experience as an individual in our social lives. What we think or feel in the social context is finally expressed through our behaviours in social interactions. Social psychology studies these behaviours in the forms of cooperation, helping behaviour, conflict, aggression, etc.

### **3. Social Psychology Studies Individuals' Behaviour in Social Contexts.**

Social psychology studies individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours in the social contexts. This component of social psychology refers that our behaviour is influenced by the presence of other people and we also influence other people's behaviour. The social context referred to in the definition of social psychology does not have to be real or present. Even the implied or imagined presence of others can have important effects on individuals (Gordon Allport, 1985). However, in order to establish general principles of

human social behaviour, social psychologists sometimes examine non-social factors also. Kurt Lewin (1936), one of the important early figures in social psychology proposed a model for understanding social behaviour, which says that social behaviour is a function of the interaction of the situation and the individual's characteristics.

### **1.2.3 Scope of Social Psychology**

Social psychology concentrates on the individual behaviour in the social context, so the subject matter of social psychology is the interactions of the individual with other individuals and society as well. It is the social world, based upon the relations of human to their fellow beings which furnishes the subject matter of social psychology. The scope of social psychology can be broadly outlined in the following ways:

- People generally express feelings of approval and disapproval, favourability and unfavorability, or likes and dislikes towards different persons, objects or issues that further influence their thought and actions. This phenomenon is termed as attitudes and social psychologists have been emphasizing upon various aspects of attitude, such as formation of attitude, attitude structure, attitude change, function of attitudes and relationship between attitudes and behaviour.
- One of the emerging areas of social psychology is social cognition, which studies the ways people perceive, ponder and remember information related to social stimuli. Various phenomena studied under social cognition are person perception, attribution process, schema, stereotypes, etc.
- Social influence is a traditional, core area of study in social psychology which refers to the way people affect the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of others.
- Social psychologists are also interested in the question of why people sometimes act in a pro-social way (helping, liking, or loving others), but at other times act in an antisocial way (hostility, aggression or prejudice against others).

Social psychologists have vastly studied various phenomena related to social groups and group dynamics. Groups may be understood in terms of group composition, group structures, group process and the effect this has on individual change and group development, as well as on task performance. Thus, a social psychologist studies almost everything that we do every day in the social context.

## **1.2.4 Growth of Social Psychology**

### **1. Social Thought Before the Advent of Social Science.**

Two earlier forms of social thought over the centuries are Platonic and Aristotelian. Platonic thought emphasised the primacy of state over the individual who had to be educated to become truly social. Aristotelian thought states that human being is social by nature and nature can be trusted to enable individuals to live together and to enter personal relationships from which families, tribes and ultimately the state will naturally develop. In modern times these two traditions of social thought have been known as socio centred approach and individual centred approach. Socio centred approach emphasises the determining function of social structures (systems, institutions, and groups) for individual experience and behaviour. According to the individual centred approach social systems are said to be explicable in terms of individual processes and functions. For Hegel (1770-1831), the German philosopher, the state is not only the ultimate form of society but the incarnation of the objective social mind of which individual minds are active participants. The notion of Group Mind derived from Hegel's supra-individual nature.

Social psychology from its beginning has been defined as the scientific study of the individual in the social context. Individualism has been an inherent property of the discipline. Individualistic doctrine says that all the explanations of individual social phenomena are to be rejected unless they are expressed in terms of individual. Individualism in psychology has been characterised and criticised for the self-centred denial of the other. Individualism has appeared in two forms in sociological thought:

Hedonism: People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and to avoid and reduce pain. Utilitarianism: The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. For most modern theories of conditioning and of motivation, the underlying ideas of individual satisfaction (reinforcement, reward, reduction of stress, of dissonance, uncertainty) are variations of the pleasure or utility principle. Utility and satisfaction are important constructs involved in many social psychological theories.

From Machiavelli (1513) and Thomas Hobbes (1651) the concept of power and its role in social relationships returned in social psychology. The concept of social power (social influence) found its proper frame of reference in the field theory and social exchange theory. In Lewinian field theory 'power' became the term for the potential to influence others while control and influence refer to the power of action. Research areas where power has been studied are: aggression, conformity to group pressure and obedience to authority, and power in language. Modern social psychology was also influenced by the developments in the nineteenth century in two major areas: sociology and theory of evolution. We will discuss these influences later under the titles: social psychology and other disciplines and the influence of evolutionary theory will be discussed in current trends in social psychology.

## **2. The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline**

In the process of branching off from the psychology as a separate discipline, three moments are important to be outlined (Galina Andreyeva 1990): The requirement concerning the solution of socio-psychological problems which aroused in various related sciences. The processes involved in the separation of socio-psychological problems within the two parent disciplines: psychology and sociology. Finally, the description of the first forms of independent socio- psychological knowledge.

In the mid-19th century, the first forms of socio-psychological theories that appeared, three were most important in terms of their influence: people's psychology, mass psychology and the theory of instincts of social behaviour. These theories developed in the background of philosophical and descriptive tradition; hence their nature was speculative and abstract.

## **3. The First Textbooks of Social Psychology**

The year 1908 is considered to the year of final emergence of social psychology as an independent scientific discipline. This year two books appeared with the title social psychology: *An Introduction to Social psychology* by William McDougall and the other *Social Psychology* by sociologist Edward A. Ross. Before these two works in 1897, James Mark Baldwin's work, *Social and Ethical Interpretation in Mental Development* was published in New York which can be considered as one of the first systematic

manuals in social psychology. According to E. A. Ross social psychology deals with uniformities in feeling, belief, volition, and action. Uniformities were to be explained by the capacities for imitation and suggestion operating among individuals collectively. McDougall's theory proposed that inborn instincts are the cause of social behaviour. In his views, tendencies of imitation and suggestion are rooted in their biological nature. Imitation supposedly grew out of non-specific innate tendency, whereas suggestion was seen stemming from an instinct to submit to a prestigious person or symbol. In spite of great popularity of McDougall's ideas, they played a negative role in the history of science. Recognition of instincts as the motive force behind the social behaviour gave importance to the irrational and unconscious motives. Human understanding and thought processes were not given much attention. The overcoming of the theory of instincts is deemed to be an important milestone in the formation of scientific social psychology.

#### **4. Social Psychology on Cutting Edge**

Social psychology is ever developing science. Various journals of social psychology publish research done in this area: some of them are Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, Journal of Applied Social Psychology, are some examples. In this section, we would discuss current trends, the cutting edge of Social Psychology.

**1. Cognition and Behaviour:** Couple of decades back, cognition and behaviourism were considered as two different kinds of things in psychology. But it no longer exists. Cognition and behaviour are currently considered as intimately linked and related approaches. Present research findings are clearly indicating that the cognition and behaviour need to be considered as strongly linked with each other.

**2. Social Neuroscience:** Social neuroscience is merging of two different fields: social psychology and neuroscience. In fact, now specialist journals are being published in this area, eg, Social Neuroscience. This interdisciplinary field is devoted to understanding how biological systems execute social processes and behaviour. It uses concepts and methods from biological sciences to understand and purify theories of social thought, behaviour, and processes. The MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imagery), fMRI (Functional

MRI), PET (Positron Emission Tomography) are commonly used techniques in this science. Typically, when people engage in social activities, their biological parameters are measured. For example, Ito and Urland (2003) asked white students to indicate ethnicity (black / white) and gender (Male / Female) of the photograph shown while measuring their event related brain potential. Results shown that initially attention was paid to ethnicity and then to gender. Other social factors (presence of other members) activated brain later. This indicates that people consider ethnicity and gender as important factors and paid attention first.

**3. Role of Implicit Process:** The implicit processes are nonconscious processes. The process that occurs in the mind but we are not aware of them. We are not aware of many factors that influence our behaviour. Pelham, Mirenberg, and Jones (2002) have shown that if something is closer to our self-concept then we tend to like it more. For example, they found that significantly larger number of people stay in the city that resembles their own name (more than chance number of people with the name Louse stay in the city St. Louse). They have called it implicit egotism.

**4. Social Diversity:** If you look at India, you will realize that it is a multi-lingual, multi-ethnic, multi-religious country. It has 18 languages and more than 3000 dialects. Every part of the world shows the diversity that exists. Cross-cultural research focuses on this diversity. Recently, multiculturalism has been promoted as a position to understand this diversity. Multiculturalism means the acceptance or promotion of multiple ethnic cultures, for practical reasons and for the sake of accepting and celebrating diversity. It is useful in many demographic setups. e.g., schools, businesses, neighbourhoods, cities, etc. It promotes the idea of equitable status to all religious, ethnic groups without encouraging any specific values as central. This has been used in various psychological practices, for example, multicultural counselling.

### **1.3 Self Check Exercise**

- What do you mean by social psychology?
- Define social psychology.
- What is the scope of social psychology?

## 1.4 Summary

It can be summed up from the above discussion that social psychology is a field which analyses our thoughts, feelings, and behaviour toward the people around us. It also explains how others have an influence on our behaviour in the social context. Thus, social psychology concentrates on studying the interactions of individuals with other individuals and society. Social psychologists investigate human social behaviour at various levels. Primarily, these levels are intrapersonal social behaviours, interactions between individuals, interactions between individual and group and interactions between group and group.

## 1.5 Glossary

- **Group-** a number of people or things that are together in the same place or that are connected in some way.
- **Culture-** the customs, ideas, beliefs etc of a particular society, country etc.
- **Development-** the process of becoming bigger, stronger, better etc.
- **Society-** the people in a country or area, thought of as a group, who have shared customs and laws.

## 1.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 1.2
- Refer to section 1.2.1
- Refer to section 1.2.3

## 1.7 Suggested Readings

1. Adinarayan, S.P. (1957). A study of racial attitudes in India. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 45, 211-216.
2. Allport, G. W. (1985). The historical background of social psychology. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology* (3rd ed., Vol. I, pp. 1-46). New York: Random House.
3. Kassin, S., Fein, S., & Markus, H. R. (2017). *Social Psychology* (10th ed.).
4. Cengage Learning. Baron, R. A., & Branscombe, N. R. (2016). *Social Psychology* (14th ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
5. <https://www.egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/54116/1/Block-1.pdf>



### **1.8 Terminal Question**

1. Explain the nature of social psychology.
2. Discuss emergence of social psychology as a discipline.
3. Define social psychology.
4. Explain the growth of social psychology.

## **Chapter-2**

### **Social Psychology Relationship, Attitudes and Public Opinion**

#### **STRUCTURE**

2.0 Introduction

2.1 Objectives

2.2 Relationship of Social Psychology

2.3 Attitude: Meaning

2.3.1 Characteristics of Attitudes

2.3.2 Formation of Attitudes

2.4 Public Opinion

2.4.1 Characteristics of Public Opinion

2.4.2 Impact and Relevance of Public Opinion to Society

2.5 Self –Check Exercise

2.6 Summary

2.7 Glossary

2.8 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

2.9 Suggested Readings

2.10 Terminal Questions

#### **2.0 Introduction**

Attitudes are evaluations people make about objects, ideas, events, or other people. Attitudes can be positive or negative. Explicit Attitudes are conscious beliefs that can guide decisions and behaviours. Implicit Attitudes are unconscious beliefs that can still influence decisions and behaviours. Attitudes can include up to three components: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural. Public opinion is the aggregate of individual attitudes or beliefs held by the adult population. Public opinion can also be defined as the complex collection of opinions of many different people and the sum of all their views.

#### **2.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the relationship of social psychology
- Know the meaning of attitudes
- Analyse the characteristics of public opinion

## 2.2 Relationship of Social Psychology

### 1. Social Psychology and Psychology

Social psychology is related to other social sciences and to other branches of psychology. It also differs from them in important ways. Social psychology is related to other disciplines in the family of social sciences and to other branches of psychology in many ways. It also differs from them in important ways.

Word psychology is derived from two Greek words “psyche” and “logos”? Psyche means soul (life) and logos means knowledge (explanation) or the study of the soul. The founders of psychology were both philosophers and psychologists and both tried to find answers to the philosophical questions in a scientific manner, like distinction between nature and nurture, existence of free will, etc. The word ‘psychology’ (Psychologia in Latin) dates to 16th century, but was popularized in German by the early 18th century philosopher Christian Worff. One of the most influential early users of the term in English was Herbert Spencer, who published the first volume of his Principles of Psychology in 1870. Psychologists preferred using the word mind rather than soul. Psychology was one of the last special sciences that separated from philosophy in the nineteenth century. Today, psychology is very popular among students and has become a part of everyday lives.

Hence, psychology is defined as the scientific study of behaviour and mental processes. It focuses on both biological and social dimensions. The most accepted definition today is psychology is the science of *behaviour* and *mental processes*. Thus, there are three parts to the definition. *Firstly*, psychology is a science because it systematically tries to gather data by carefully observing and recording events or behaviour of humans and animals under controlled experimental conditions. Thus, measurement of behaviour is as objective as possible in psychology. The knowledge that is gained collecting data with the help of experiments and other methods of observation, is then applied to solve real-life problems. *Secondly*, the term behaviour in the definition implies the overt actions and reactions. Whatever the animals or humans do, that is of interest, can be

recorded, such as actions, thoughts, emotions, attitudes, etc. *Lastly*, the term mental processes refer to all the covert or internal processes, such as thinking, feeling, and remembering.

The physiological psychologists or psychobiologists focus on relationships between behaviour and mental functioning. As for the social psychologists, they focus on group and social influences on individuals. Psychologists are interested in every aspect of human thought and behaviour. The different fields of psychology include developmental psychology, physiological psychology, experimental psychology, personality psychology, clinical psychology, counselling psychology, social psychology, industrial psychology, organizational psychology, etc. In these fields, they study different areas like development, physiological bases of behaviour, learning, perception, consciousness, memory, thought, language, motivation, emotion, intelligence, personality, adjustment, abnormal behaviour, social influences, and social behaviours. Psychology is often applied in education, industry, health, clinical, consumer affairs, engineering, and many other areas.

**Social Psychology:** Social psychology studies groups of people, their relationship to one another, their characteristics, attitudes, beliefs, their decision-making process, and communication with other members of their group, group cohesion, etc. The emphasis is to understand the behaviour of an individual in a group.

## **2. Social Psychology and Sociology**

Sociology is defined as the study of society. Sociology is the social science dealing with social system and structures, relationships, institutes, and entire societies. The emergence of sociology in the nineteenth century greatly contributed to the development of social psychology. John Stuart Mill, Auguste Comte and others laid the foundation for social psychology by asserting that human social cognition and behaviour could and should be studied scientifically like any other natural science. A sociologist begins with the domain of society and works towards the individual while the social psychologist reverses the order. As far as social psychology is concerned it is sometimes difficult to demarcate it from social psychology with a sharp line as both the disciplines invest most of their resources in the ambiguous middle ground. Social psychology exchanges freely ideas, methods, and models with sociology. In fact, this exchange is so rich and ubiquitous that it is often difficult to distinguish the two fields.

Being the study of individual in a society, the vantage point of social psychology is more prone to the individual and the experimental method. But with the expanding application, social psychology is adopting the other methods like ethnography and qualitative research more popular with the domain of sociology.

Sociology is a branch of social science that deals with society. Social relationships are the subject matter of sociology. Sociology is a new science developed only in 19th century. Even though it is a youngest science its scope is extremely wide. Man, and society and their relationship are the specific area of study. Sociology which had once been treated as social philosophy or the philosophy of history emerged as an independent social science in the 19th century in France. Auguste Comte, a French philosopher is popularly known as the founding father of Sociology. Comte is accredited with the coining of the term sociology in 1839. The term sociology is composition of two words like *Latin word socius* means companion and *Greek word logos* meaning science or study. Sociology has been defined as scientific study of society. Sociology is concerned with the study of human relationships and the society. It is believed that relationships develop when individuals come in close contact with other and interaction takes place between them. This leads to the formation of social groups and complex relationships among these groups develop as result of constant interaction. Hence, it can be said that social self and individual self are two parts of the same coin.

Given this, scholars have attempted to define and explain the subject matter of sociology. One of the founding fathers of sociology, Auguste Comte divided the subject matter of sociology into the study of social static and social dynamic. The static was concerned with the study of how the parts of the societies inter-relate, the dynamic was to focus on whole societies as the unit of analysis and to show how they developed and changed through time (Inkeles, 1964). According to Emile Durkheim sociology is the study of social facts. Sociology can be defined as the scientific study of human life, social relations, social groups and every aspect of the society as a whole. The scope of sociology is very wide, ranging from the analysis of the everyday interaction between individuals on the street to the investigation and comparison of societies across the globe.

### **3. Inter-disciplinary Approach to Social Psychology**

The definition given by Allport suggests that the roots of social psychology are embedded in sociology as well as psychology. Scholars such as Cook, Fine, and House (1995), Delamater (2006) are of the view that social psychology essentially includes analysis and synthesis of major works in the field of sociology and psychology hence, it is interdisciplinary in nature. The main subject matter of social psychology is the study of the individual in the social context. In other words, the mind, self and society are the subject matters of social psychology. There are many sociological and psychological perspectives used in social psychology to explain and understand the constant influence of human and society on each other.

#### **2.3 Attitude: Meaning**

Attitude is a word frequently used by us in our day-to-day life. In its common sense it refers to an individual's specific state of mind through which he expresses his opinions and feelings towards some conditions, things, event, and persons in his social environment. For example, a person who feels favourably for widow remarriage may advocate widow remarriage, write some article in favour of it or even remarry his widow daughter, thus expressing his attitude towards the issue of widow remarriage. Psychologists, Sociologists, and other social scientists have taken undertaken various researches to throw light on different aspects of attitude and related concepts like stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination. In the beginning psychologists defined attitude in terms of one dimension i.e., attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object. Thus, the essence of attitude was a person's intensity of feelings toward some object. However, some psychologists tried to explain attitude in terms of two dimensions namely, affective, and cognitive components.

Cognitive component refers to a person's opinions and beliefs toward some object or event. For example, a person's beliefs and opinions regarding widow remarriage. Affective component means how strongly and a person feels for the event or object in question. This feeling may be for or against. Some were of the view that attitude has three dimensions i.e., affective, cognitive, and behavioural. This approach is known as ABC of attitude. Behavioural component indicates action a person would take in favour

of or against the event or object of attitude. As said earlier a person having favourable attitude towards widow remarriage may organise meetings, give lectures in favour of widow remarriage or even go to the extent of marrying a widow.

These three components of attitude have some characteristics, understanding of which is imperative, in order to understand the nature of attitudes.

**Valence** - it refers to the degree of favourableness or unfavourableness to the object or event in question.

**Multiplexity** - components of attitude have the characteristic of multiplexity. It means the number of elements a component has. Higher the number of elements in a component the more complex it would be.

**Consistency** - it is found more among the valence factors than among multiplexity.

### 2.3.1 Characteristics of Attitudes

**a) Attitude is learnt:** A person is not born with attitude but he or she acquires it through the process of becoming an acceptable member of the group he/ she belongs to. Also, a person develops attitude from the experiences of life. These experiences and process of socialisation may predispose a person favourably or unfavourably to the object or event in question.

**b) Attitude gives direction:** Attitude directs our behaviour in either away from an object or toward the object. For example, a favourable attitude toward education will impel the person to send his children to school for formal education for the betterment of their life, while an unfavourable attitude may prompt him for not sending children to school.

**c) Relative permanency:** It means attitudes are stable over time and changes in them take place only gradually.

**d) Attitude is always related to some issue, object, or thing:** This means for the development of attitude occurrence of some event, thing or person is a must. Attitudes do not take place in vacuum.

**e) Attitude has motivational properties:** Attitude motivates a person to do some behaviours more readily than others. For example, an individual having positive attitude for sports may readily go for play than pass his time reading some book.

### 2.3.2 Formation of Attitude

One important question that psychologists are interested in answering is: how are attitudes formed? Like many other thoughts and concepts that develop and become part of our cognitive system, attitudes towards different topics, things and people also are formed as we interact with others. However, there are specific conditions that lead to the formation of specific attitudes. In general, attitudes are learned through one's own experiences, and through interaction with others. There are a few research studies that show some sort of inborn aspect of attitudes, but such genetic factors influence attitudes only indirectly, along with learning. Therefore, most social psychologists have focused on the conditions which lead to the learning of attitudes.

#### Process of Attitude Formation

The processes and conditions of learning may be different, resulting in varying attitudes among people.

- a. **Learning attitudes by association:** You might have seen that students often develop a liking for a particular subject because of the teacher. This is because they see many positive qualities in that teacher; these positive qualities get linked to the subject that s/he teaches, and ultimately get expressed in the form of liking for the subject. In other words, a positive attitude towards the subject is learned through the positive association between a teacher and a student.
- b. **Learning attitudes by being rewarded or punished:** If an individual is praised for showing a particular attitude, chances are high that s/he will develop that attitude further. For example, if a teenager does yoga asanas regularly, and gets the honour of being 'Miss Good Health' in her school, she may develop a positive attitude towards yoga and health in general. Similarly, if a child constantly falls ill because s/he eats junk food instead of proper meals, then the child is likely to develop a negative attitude towards junk food, and a positive attitude towards eating healthy food.
- c. **Learning attitudes through modelling** (observing others): Often it is not through association, or through reward and punishment, that we learn attitudes. Instead, we learn them by observing others being rewarded or punished for



expressing thoughts, or showing behaviour of a particular kind towards the attitude object. For example, children may form a respectful attitude towards elders, by observing that their parents show respect for elders, and are appreciated for it.

- d. **Learning attitudes through group or cultural norms:** Very often, we learn attitudes through the norms of our group or culture. Norms are unwritten rules about behaviour that everyone is supposed to show under specific circumstances. Over time, these norms may become part of our social cognition, in the form of attitudes. Learning attitudes through group or cultural norms may be an example of all three forms of learning described above learning through association, reward or punishment, and modelling. For example, offering money, sweets, fruit, and flowers in a place of worship is a normative behaviour in some religions.
- e. **Learning through exposure to information:** Many attitudes are learned in a social context, but not necessarily in the physical presence of others. Today, with the huge amount of information that is being provided through various media, both positive and negative attitudes are being formed. By reading the biographies of self-actualised persons, an individual may develop a positive attitude towards hard work and other aspects as the means of achieving success in life.

## **2.4 Public Opinion**

Public opinion is the common opinion of the people in society. Though individuals have different opinion regarding issues and matters either concerned with them or society, they come to a common point of agreement. They develop a Social Worker common perceptive through an exchange of views, interactions, projections and criticism. Public opinion is the outcome of this whole process. Public opinion consists of the opinions held by the public at a certain time. Public opinion is made up of the ideas of the masses and judgments operative in a community. They are stable for a considerable time and well formulated. Public opinion simply refers to the mass of ideas on a given issue expressed by the people. Public opinion consists of opinions held by the people of a small or large

community about a particular problem at a certain time. It is not necessary for the public opinion to be the opinion of all members of the society, but it should be a opinion of a majority of the people. Members of the group or community take it seriously. Public opinion is not static and changes with the situation and time.

#### **2.4.1 Characteristics of Public Opinion**

- i. Public opinion always relates to a common subject matter or issues concerning society instead of an individual's or group's interest.
- ii. Public opinion is a widely accepted decision of a majority of the people of a particular society.
- iii. Public opinion is not formed by any particular individual. It emerges from the collaborative opinion of the people of any society.
- iv. Public opinion is an outcome of a social process and emerges through interpersonal interactions of people in a society.
- v. It is not necessary that public opinion be logical. It may be logical or illogical.
- vi. Public opinion influences even those people of society who do not agree with it, as it is the opinion of a majority of people.
- vii. Often public opinion is an indicator of social culture. Public opinion grows up, expands and depends on the faiths, ideals, assumptions, values, sentiments and past experiences of society.
- viii. Public opinion may be influenced by some distinguished, honoured, rich and powerful person of society. Such a personality influences aims, interests and life style of the people of the society.
- ix. Quite often public opinion seems to be related to a particular problem or issue at a particular time.
- x. Public opinion pertaining to any issue does not remain the same for a long time and thus it is not stable in nature. It changes with the change in time and situation. It changes on the basis of need of society.
- xi. Often public opinion emerges after a wide discussion on the issue or the problem.

Public opinion pertaining to customs, stereotypes and traditions of the community tend to be more constant. Propaganda, projection and extension make it dynamic

### **2.4.2 Impact and Relevance of Public Opinion to Society**

Public opinion has been significant for society since ancient times. It has an important place in modern society. Public opinion is even more significant and important in a large society as compared to a small group or community. The present period is an era of democracy and public opinion has a significant place in the present social order. Democracy cannot function effectively in the absence of public opinion. Democracy is meaningful only in case of acceptability of public opinion. The strength and power of public opinion is inherent in its acceptance. The concurrence of the people to any law that is to be implemented in society is essential for its effectiveness. Public opinion does not always help the government and people but it controls them. The importance of public opinion is inherent in its power to control. Public opinion controls the feelings, emotions, and action of even the influential personalities in society.

Public opinion is relevant for the government as the public is a live fact of large size. Ignorance of such a live fact may result in disaster. A government should function with its people's concurrence on different issues. It may be troublesome for a government to keep people in large numbers unconcerned about its activities. The form of the government in any society depends upon public opinion. Public opinion is important for the evaluation and appraisal of the working of the government. The shortcomings of the rules and regulations framed by the government can only be judged by the people and not by the government itself.

Public opinion, in this respect, becomes quite relevant to society. Public opinion influences the functioning and decision of the people and the government and therefore it has a definite impact on society. Public opinion educates both the people and the government and enables them to reach a commonly agreed point of solution of the problems in society. Public opinion influences the socialisation of individuals, their thinking and behaviour, as it sets widely accepted norms of behaviour.

Public opinion provides an opportunity to individuals and institutions to frame, develop and moderate their functioning in accordance with society. Any individual or institution, whether religious, educational, social, cultural, economic, or political - existing in society, cannot function smoothly by ignoring public opinion. Ignorance of public opinion may make them incapable of achieving their goals and, in an extreme situation, may be disastrous. Since public opinion influences individuals, groups and institutions by shaping their thinking and action, it has a definite relevance for society. Public opinion is more important in a society ruled by a monarch or a dictator. People enjoy enough freedom in a democracy but in a monarchy or a dictatorship they are bound to obey the orders of rulers, with insignificant intervention in their functioning.

## **2.5 Self- Check Exercise**

- Define the relation of social psychology.
- What are the characteristics of attitudes?
- Define public opinion.

## **2.6 Summary**

social psychology could be is further divided into sociological social psychology and psychological social psychology (this term is coined by House (1977) and Stryker (1977)). It is very difficult to make clear distinctions between the two, as social psychology tends to draw from both the disciplines of sociology and psychology. The cognitive social psychology or the social cognition is an approach that investigates how information is processed and stored. According to Thoits (1995:1232) "information is stored as prototypes, schemas, and the like; information processing includes attending to cues, retrieving from memory, and making judgments, inferences and predictions about oneself and others." In this approach, cognition is seen as social because it originates from the social experience and bears consequence on the interpersonal behaviour. Sociological social psychology concentrates on the mass psyche, the psychology of classes and the elements of group mentality such as customs, moral and traditions. In other words, it focuses on small group dynamics.

## 2.7 Glossary

- **Moral-** concerned with what is right and wrong.
- **Beliefs-** a feeling that somebody/ something is true, morally good or right.
- **Tradition-** a customs, belief or way of doing something that has continued from past to the present.

## 2.8 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

- Refer to section 2.2
- Refer to section 2.3.1
- Refer to section 2.4

## 2.9 Suggested Readings

1. Andreyeva, Galina (1990) Social Psychology. Progress Publication: Moscow Baron, R. A. and Byrne, D. (1997). Social Psychology, 8th edition.
2. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon Tajfel, H. and Israel J. (ed.) (1972) The Context of Social Psychology. Academic Press: London and New York.
3. <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/67228/1/Block-1.pdf> .

## 2.10 Terminal Questions

1. Explain the relationship of social psychology.
2. What do you mean by attitude?
3. Discuss formation of attitude.
4. Define the characteristics of public opinion.

## **Chapter-3**

# **PROPAGANDA AND PREJUDICE**

### **STRUCTURE**

3.0 Introduction

3.1 Objectives

3.2 Meaning, Definition of Propaganda

3.2.1 Types of propaganda

3.2.2 Methods of Propaganda

3.2.3 Implications of Propaganda

3.3 Prejudice Meaning and Characteristics

3.3.1 Types of Prejudice

3.3.2 Manifestation of Prejudice

3.4 Self- Check Exercise

3.5 Summary

3.6 Glossary

3.7 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

3.8 Suggested Readings

3.9 Terminal Questions

### **3.0 Introduction**

Social psychology attempts to understand an individual's thoughts and behaviour in interaction with others. Social psychologists focus on factors that shape the actions and thoughts of the individual human being within different social settings. They are mainly concerned with understanding wide range of conditions and circumstances that shape the social behaviour and thought of individuals, their actions, feelings, beliefs, memories and influences with respect to other persons. A large number of different factors play an important role in this regard. Factors influencing and responsible for social interaction and behaviour may be either biological, cognitive, ecological, and cultural characteristics and behaviour patterns of other people. Social psychologists study all

these aspects carefully with the help of different tools and techniques of modern scientific research methodology, draw inferences from their findings and develop theories pertaining to them.

### **3.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Know the meaning of propaganda
- Understand the meaning of prejudice
- Analyse the manifestation of prejudice

### **3.2 Meaning, Definition of Propaganda**

Propaganda is essentially a technique of controlling attitude and it assumes greatest historical significance when carried on in a systematic manner over a long period of time by well organised groups. Its presence and practical importance are felt at every moment of human life. The word propaganda is derived from the Latin word. "Propagate" which means to generate or to reproduce in an artificial manner. This suggests that propaganda does not take place spontaneously. It has to be produced or generated by someone. The emphasis is, therefore, on forced generalization and there is always a definite motive or purpose in mind behind any and every propaganda. Every political party, every religion, every business organisation adopts certain methods either through advertisement, personal efforts or through public meetings to spread their own beliefs, attitudes, views, faiths or norms.

Thus, propaganda always aims at moulding people's attitudes and behaviour in the direction of the propagandist by impressing upon the mass through various methods, techniques, and strategies. It uses symbols mainly through suggestion and related psychological techniques, with a view to alter and control opinions and ideas and bring about a change in pre-determined actions. It is an organised and systematic attempt of a person or a group to influence public opinion and attitudes towards life styles. Through the use of suggestion, it controls the attitude and, consequently, actions of a group of individuals. It simply attempts to influence people's attitudes and opinions and thereby their actions in a desired direction. Propaganda does not depend on facts and logic.

### 3.2.1 Types of Propaganda

Propaganda may be of three types

1. Direct and Indirect
2. Primary and Secondary
3. Conscious and Unconscious.

#### 1. **Direct Propaganda and Indirect Propaganda:**

In *direct propaganda*, the public is aware of the purpose of the propagandist for instance, propaganda campaigns taken up by Government or voluntary, social organizations on family planning, Prohibition, literacy, women's welfare, dowry less marriage, education for all, saving schemes, national integration, health care and protection from infectious diseases. All these come under the category of direct propaganda. Here the purpose of propaganda is very clear and devoid of ulterior motive. People are aware of the objective of propaganda and it is transparent. *Indirect propaganda* refers to that type where people are not aware of the objective and purpose of the propaganda. It is concealed. The propagandists in this technique try to change the views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes of people in a very tactful and subtle manner as per their desire. The national sentiments of patriotism is aroused among the fellow countrymen by national leaders during wartime for national integration. The purpose behind such propaganda is to persuade more and more people to join the army, to save the country through the arousal of patriotism.

#### 2. **Primary and Secondary Propaganda:**

The propagandist tries to investigate and excite the attitudes and prejudices that already exist through primary propaganda. The tension between the Hindu and the Muslim, the upper caste and the lower caste, the Thakurs and the backward classes continues from the past into the present. Kashmir problem may be a brilliant example in this regard. The tension between the Hindus and the Muslims provides a special advantage to the Azad Kashmir is to revolt and to take recourse to war and militancy. In secondary propaganda, however, no previous attitude, belief, prejudice or mental set is present. Through propaganda new tendencies and thoughts are set in the minds of people.



### 3. **Conscious and Unconscious Propaganda:**

Conscious propaganda is done purposefully and with some intention like propaganda made for a particular political party at the time of election. But in unconscious propaganda, the propagandist has no intention to propagate something. It appears accidentally and unknowingly.

#### 3.2.2 **Methods of Propaganda**

Various methods of propaganda are in practice. A propagandist may make a suggestion in his favour through projection, demonstration, oration and narration. These methods are applied through different techniques and media. The popular techniques are:

1. **Press and publications** - This is a popular media for propaganda. Through printed matters like newspapers, magazines, booklets, bulletins and brochure etc. the propagandist creates favourable attitude for himself or his ideas in the public. Quite often people read a newspaper of their own liking and develop an attitude in accordance with the views of the newspaper they favour. People believe more in printed matter than in spoken matter. The print media allays or removes anxieties of people.
2. **Meeting and speech** - In a meeting, the propagandist presents his views before the public. This method becomes more successful if the personality of the speaker is attractive and impressive. The public gathers for the meeting with some pre-conceived views about the speaker. The art and ability of presentation influence the mind of the audience.
3. **Cultural programme, drama, theatre** - Through cultural programmes, drama and theatre people are influenced in favour of certain products or views.
4. **Radio** - This is a widely used powerful medium of publicity in modern society. It spreads news throughout the world within seconds.
5. **Television** - Television is a modern audio-visual method of effective propaganda. It is somewhat costly for the people of a developing country and therefore does not cover the range that the radio covers.

6. **Cinema is also a audio - visual medium of publicity.** It is a powerful and cheap medium of propaganda. Low-income group people enjoy it largely.
7. **Loud speaker** - Loud speakers are used for publicity directly among people living in their homes, engaged in their jobs or going on the road.
8. **Demonstration and procession** - Political parties often organise demonstrations and processions to publicise their views in public,
9. **Rumour** - Through rumour people may be influenced easily for a short while. It results in changing the opinion of the masses in a critical situation.
10. Dance and music groups, concerts, puppet shows, wall writings, hoardings, posters, folk lore, slogans, magic shows, circus etc. are some other media of propaganda in society.

### 3.2.3 IMPLICATIONS OF PROPAGANDA

Propaganda is a method of making suggestions to people and influence them in favour of certain political, social, religious, cultural or economic institution or views or products. Propaganda may make people aware of a certain view of any person or a product of some manufacturing establishment. Sometimes propaganda leads people to adopt harmful suggestions. Powerful propaganda diverts people's minds from logical perception and decision making. Sometimes people become victims of its glamour and adopt undesirable views.

### 3.3 PREJUDICE MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS

Social Psychologists tried to define prejudice from different viewpoints. Some psychologists define prejudice as a preconceived irrational judgement, while others define it as an expression of dislike against members of some religion, race, or group. However, majority of psychologists agree upon the definition given by Secord and Backman "*Prejudice is an attitude that predisposes a person to think, perceive, feel and act in favourable and unfavourable ways towards a group or its individual members.*" According to Baron & Byrne "*Prejudice is generally a negative attitude towards the members of some social, ethnic or religious.*" Prejudice be it negative or positive is decidedly an attitude and has all the three components of attitude i.e.,

affective, cognitive, and behavioural. In this unit we will be discussing the definition of prejudice, characteristics of prejudice and types of prejudice.

Psychologists have identified following characteristics of prejudice:

- a. **Prejudice is acquired:** Like attitude prejudice is acquired through the process of learning and socialisation. When born a child is like a blank slate and is free of any kind of prejudice. It is only when the process of socialisation begins that he starts imitating his parents and their likes and dislikes. Norms, values, customs, and traditions of the society of which he is member make him prejudiced toward members of another group. Acquisition of prejudice is facilitated by classical conditioning, instrumental and observational learning. A child learns to hate Pakistanis only because he sees significant others in the society hating Pakistanis.
- b. **Emotional overtones:** Prejudice is always coloured with emotions. It is either for or against some group, community, or religion. If favourable, the person would show too much affection, love, care, and sympathy for members of another group. But if unfavourable the person would show hatred, dislike, and hostility.
- c. **Prejudice is irrational:** Prejudice does not lend itself to reason, wisdom, and relevance. The individual does not change his prejudice in the face of information and evidence to the contrary.
- d. **Prejudice is functional:** Prejudice helps the individual justify his hostilities, repressed desires and strengthen feelings of self-esteem and prestige. It helps individual justify his exploitation, discrimination of members of other group. For example, in Indian society the upper caste Hindus justified their exploitation of lower castes reasoning that they are like that only and deserve to be exploited and discriminated against.

**Prejudice has no connection with reality:** It is primarily based on hearsay, incomplete and wrong information, customs, and traditions of the society. It cannot stand test of logic and reasoning.

### 3.3.1 TYPES OF PREJUDICE

Prejudices are of different types depending upon the social conditions of the individual. Sociologists and Psychologists delineate following main types of prejudices:

- a. **Racial prejudice:** This is aimed at members of another race. For example, Negroes have been subject of racial prejudice at the hand of whites. Similarly, Jews were a target of prejudice by Nazis in Germany. Hitler went to the extent of exterminating at mass scale.
- b. **Sex prejudice:** This is for centuries women have been target of prejudice. They have been thought of weak, dependent, and intellectually less gifted than men.
- c. **Caste prejudice:** Indian social structure is the best example of such prejudice. Our society is divided into numerous castes and each caste is believed to have specific characteristics.
- d. **Prejudice and Discrimination Language prejudice:** This is often evident when we go to different parts of India. Particularly in South India it is very evident. People despise Hindi knowing fully well that it is our national language. They prefer to speak English but not Hindi even if they know Hindi. Infact organisation of states in India has been on linguistic basis.
- e. **Religious prejudice:** This has been a burning problem in India since pre independence days. Creation of Pakistan was only because of religious differences. In religious prejudice individual holds positive attitude toward his own religion and unfavourable attitude toward other religion. Consequently, misunderstandings and misconceptions about people of other religions crop up. Some other prejudices are political prejudice, communal prejudice etc.

### 3.3.2 MANIFESTATION OF PREJUDICE

As we know that a prejudice is a negative attitude directed toward some member of a particular group. An attitude is a hypothetical construct observable only through the behaviour of a person. A prejudice manifests itself through the following modes of behaviour:

- a. **Withdrawal:** It means moving from the object of prejudice. For example, a person is prejudiced against jews. He goes to a party and finds that some jews have been invited to that party. Now instead of making jews leave that party he decides to move away from that party.
- b. **Avoidance:** Keeping away from the social situation where the object of prejudice may be present. For example, the person who is prejudiced against jews and hates them, comes to know before-hand that some of the invitees at the party are jews. In that condition he may decide to not to join that party. Thus he is able to avoid a situation where he might have to interact with object of prejudice.
- c. **Discrimination:** It involves biased behaviour against the object person of prejudice. For example, a teacher who is prejudiced against a particular community may fail students belonging to that community. He may not select students of particular community for school team, although the students in question deserve and merit selection against all criteria.
- d. **Lynching:** It involves behaviour aimed at causing physical hurt or injury to the object person of prejudice. For example, the teacher in above example may go to the extent of actually subjecting students of a particular community to physical punishment without any reasonable ground.
- e. **Extermination:** It is an extreme form of manifestation of prejudice. It is aimed at removing the existence of the object person of prejudice. For example, in the Second World War, Hitler, the then Chancellor of Germany, ordered mass extermination of Jews. Millions of Jews were massacred at the orders of Hitler. Hitler believed himself to be Aryan and he aimed to cleanse Germany of Non-Aryans.

### 3.4 Self Check- Exercise

- Define propaganda.
- What are the methods of propaganda?
- Define prejudice meaning and characteristics.

### 3.5 Summary

Propaganda as a process and a method, which brings about a change in thought, faith and attitude of individuals and groups through persuasive devices. Propaganda

is deliberately planned. It uses symbols. mainly through suggestion and related psychological techniques, with a view to alter and control opinions and ideas and bring about a change in pre-determined actions. We studied Prejudice and its nature, different types of prejudices and what havoc they play with society and individual. We also studied characteristics of prejudice. Then we studied discrimination, what does it mean and we also discussed prejudice and discrimination.

### 3.6 Glossary

- **Assertiveness:** The maintaining of the claim, or right.
- **Attitude:** Manner with regard to a person or thing
- **Audience:** An assembly of listeners or spectators.
- **Behaviour:** The actions or activities of the individual.
- **Cognitive:** To know, to perceive, to think, to judge.
- **Conformity:** Behaviour that agrees with that of the others in a group

### 3.7 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 3.2
- Refer to section 3.2.2
- Refer to section 3.3

### 3.8 Suggested Readings

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2. Crisp, R. J., & Turner, R. N. (2010). Essential Social Psychology (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
3. <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20879/1/Unit-3.pdf>
4. <https://www.psychologydiscussion.net/social-psychology-2/propaganda/propaganda-meaning-definition-and-need-psychology/1376>

### 3.9 Terminal Questions

1. What do you understand by the term prejudice?
2. What are the different types of prejudice?

## **Chapter-4**

### **Stereotype, Individual and Society**

#### **STRUCTURE**

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Objectives

4.2 Stereotypes: Meaning

4.2.1 Nature and Origin of Stereotypes

4.2.2 Development and Maintenance of Stereotypes

4.2.3 Stereotypes and Social Life

4.3 Individual

4.4 Society

4.4.1 Nature of Society

4.5 Relation between Individual and Society

4.6 Self- Check Exercise

4.7 Summary

4.8 Glossary

4.9 Answers to Self Check Exercise

4.10 Suggested Readings

4.11 Terminal Questions

#### **4.0 Introduction**

Stereotype, in psychology, a fixed, oversimplified, and often [biased](#) belief about a group of people. [Stereotypes](#) are typically rationally unsupported generalizations, and, once a person becomes accustomed to stereotypical thinking, he or she may not be able to see individuals for who they are. Stereotypes can legitimize hostility against a whole [social group](#). In addition, because stereotypes are ingrained in the culture people begin learning stereotypes during childhood they tend to signal which social groups are presumably appropriate targets for relieving individual frustration.

Man is a social animal. He has a natural urge to live an associated life with others. Man needs society for his existence or survival. The human child depends on his parents and others for its survival and growth. The inherent capacities of the child can develop only in society. The ultimate goal of society is to promote good and happy life for its individuals. It creates conditions and opportunities for the all-round development of individual personality. Society ensures harmony and cooperation among individuals in spite of their occasional conflicts and tensions. If society helps the individuals in numerous ways, great men also contribute to society by their wisdom and experience. Thus, society and individuals are bound by an intimate and harmonious bond and the conflicts between the two are apparent and momentary. In a well-ordered society, there would be lasting harmony between the two.

Social psychology is the study of how people think about, influence and relate to others. It emerged at the interface of psychology and sociology in the early 20th century. While Psychology analyses the nature of humans, sociology analyses the nature of society. Social psychology on the other hand, analyses the nature and the relation of man to society. The sphere of social psychology is social and its focus is individual. It is the study of individual in social situation. This social situation can be person to person interaction, person to group interaction and a group related to another group. A social psychologist uses scientific methods to study how we perceive peoples and social events, how do we influence others and get influenced, social relation and communication and group dynamics. The relation between individual and society is very close. Essentially, “society” is the regularities, customs, and ground rules of antihuman behaviour. These practices are tremendously important to know how humans act and interact with each other. Society does not exist independently without individual. The individual lives and acts within society but society is nothing, in spite of the combination of individuals for cooperative effort. On the other hand, society exists to serve individual not the other way around. Human life and society almost go together. Man is biologically and psychologically equipped to live in groups, in society. Society has become an essential condition for human life to arise and to continue.



The relationship between individual and society is ultimately one of the profound of all the problems of social philosophy. It is more philosophical rather than sociological because it involves the question of values. Man depends on society. It is in the society that an individual is surrounded and encompassed by culture, as a societal force. It is in the society again that he must conform to the norms, occupy statuses, and become members of groups. The question of the relationship between the individual and the society is the starting point of many discussions. It is closely connected with the question of the relationship of man and society. The relation between the two depends upon one fact that the individual and the society are mutually dependent, one grows with the help of the other.

#### **4.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the meaning of stereotype.
- Know about the development and maintenance of stereotypes.
- Discuss the nature of society

#### **4.2 Stereotypes: Meaning**

A stereotype is a cluster of beliefs usually lacking a rational basis regarding the members of some group. The word 'stereotype' was first used by Walter Lipman in his book *"Public Opinion"* (1922). According to Albrecht, Thomas & Chadwick (1980) *"A stereotype is a belief about some particular trait being prevalent among all members of a social group. Whatever be the characteristic it is assumed to vest all people in that category. Therefore, all members of the group are perceived and understood alike."*

According to Allport (1954) : Whether favourable or unfavourable a stereotype is exaggerated belief asserted with a category.

Vinake has defined stereotype as a collection of trait names upon which a large percentage of people agree as appropriate for describing some sort of individuals.

Baron and Byrne (1988) : held that stereotypes are negative schemata for social group. They are a type of cognitive frame work for interpreting and studying social information. It strongly affects the incoming information and information processing.

Information relevant to a particular stereotype is processed and accepted more quickly than information not related to that stereotype.

Sherif and Sherif (1969) : have said that group stereotype is a popular term referring to agreement among members of a group on their image of another group and its members.

From above definitions it can be concluded that:

- Stereotype is a set of beliefs used to categorise people.
- Such categorisation is exaggerated and lacks in truth.
- This categorisation provides for the basis for gross generalisation about people.
- Some particular physical, social and cultural characteristics are ascertained which serve to identify people of that group.
- There is general consensus as to the prevalence of a particular trait among people of that category.
- It is assumed that a person will exhibit all the traits of that category simply because he is member of that group.

Stereotypes about groups are the beliefs and expectations that we have concerning what members of those groups are like. Stereotypes can include more than just traits; physical appearance, abilities, and behaviours are all common components of stereotypic expectancies (Deaux & LaFrance, 1998; Zhang, Schmader, & Forbes, 2009). The traits thought to distinguish between one group and another can be either positive or negative; they can be accurate or inaccurate, and may be either agreed with or rejected by members of the stereotyped group. Gender stereotypes- beliefs concerning the characteristics of women and men, consist of both positive and negative traits. Stereotypes of each gender are typically the converse of one another. For instance, on the positive side of the gender stereotype for women, they are viewed as being kind, nurturant, and considerate. On the negative side, they are viewed as being dependent, weak, and overly emotional. Thus, our collective portrait of women is that they are high on warmth but low on competence (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Indeed, perceptions of women are similar on these two dimensions to other groups (e.g., the elderly) who are seen as relatively low in status and nonthreatening (Eagly, 1987; Stewart, Vassar, Sanchez, & David, 2000).

Men too are assumed to have both positive and negative stereotypic traits (e.g., they are viewed as decisive, assertive, and accomplished, but also as aggressive, insensitive, and arrogant). Such a portrait being perceived as high on competence but low on communal attributes—reflects men's relatively high status (e.g., the category “rich people” is perceived similarly on these two dimensions; Cikara & Fiske, 2009).

Interestingly, because of the strong emphasis on warmth in the stereotype for women, people tend to feel somewhat more positively about women on the whole compared to men a finding described by Eagly and Mladinic (1994) as the “women are wonderful” effect. Despite this greater perceived likeability, women face a key problem: The traits they supposedly possess tend to be viewed as less appropriate for high-status positions than the traits presumed to be possessed by men. Women's traits make them seem appropriate for “support roles” rather than “leadership roles” (Eagly & Sczesny, 2009). Although dramatic change has occurred in the extent to which women participate in the labour force from 20 percent in 1900 to 59 percent in 2005 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007) most working women in the United States and other nations are in occupations that bring less status and monetary compensation than comparably skilled male-dominated occupations (Tomaskovic, Devey et al., 2006).

Stereotype is a mental picture or image about people of a community or category on the basis of which we ascribe traits or characteristics to people. Stereotype is a widely agreed belief about people of some category or community. For example, it is widely agreed that politicians are opportunist. Stereotype involves gross and exaggerated generalisations. An important characteristic of stereotype is that they develop out of experiences with individuals of other community and are then extended to apply to all members of that community. For example, it is generally believed that Bengalees are timid by nature. This may be true for some people of Bengali community but certainly not for all Bengalees. Stereotypes usually are not amenable to change despite information and evidence to the contrary. For example, when we encounter a brave, fearless, and bold Bengali we do not change our stereotype about them instead we say that this person is exception among Bengalees.

### 4.2.1 NATURE AND ORIGIN OF STEREOTYPES

From where does stereotype and prejudice emerge? Why do they exist? Why do people even today carry stereotypes leading to prejudice and discrimination? There are many possible sources from where these stems.

1. **Direct inter-group conflict (competition as a source of Prejudice):** It is sad but true that people want and value most good jobs, nice homes, high status, which is always in short supply. This fact serves as the oldest explanation for stereotypes and prejudice. This is the realistic conflict theory, the view that prejudice stems from direct competition between various social groups over valued commodities and opportunities.
2. **The social learning view:** A second explanation for the origins of stereotype and prejudice is straightforward. It suggests that prejudice is learned and that it develops in the same manner and through the same basic mechanisms as other attitudes towards social groups because we hear such views expressed by parents, teachers and others and because they are directly rewarded for adopting such views. Another reason is also conformity with social norms or with groups to which they belong. The development of stereotype and prejudice comes from this tendency. "If the members of my group dislike them, then so should I."
3. **Social categorization: Us versus–Them Effect:** A third perspective on the origins of stereotyping and prejudice begins with this basic fact that people generally divide the social world into two distinct categories Us and Them—social categorization. In group is us and the Out group is them. Persons in the In group are perceived favourably while those in the latter are perceived more negatively. This tendency to make more favourable and flattering attributions about members of one's group than members about the other group is known as the ultimate attribution error. Research evidence shows that individuals seek to enhance their self-esteem by identifying with some special groups. And so, the result is inevitable, each group seeks to view itself better than the rivals. Thus, one of the important sources of stereotyping and prejudice is to divide our world into two opposing camps.
4. **Outgroup Homogeneity Effect:** Tendency for social perceivers to assume there is greater similarity among members of out groups than among members of in groups.

Sometimes we come across statements like you know what they are like? “They are all the same if you have met one you have met all” this means members of out group are more similar than the in group.

#### **4.2.2 DEVELOPMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF STEREOTYPES**

Stereotypes are acquired. Psychologists have delineated following factors that go into development and maintenance of stereotypes. A major cause of development of stereotypes is inadequate and improper experience and information about people of another group. Experiences with handful of people of other community lead to formation of wrong notions about them and it is then generalised to all members of that community.

- a. **Socialisation:** Process of socialisation plays an important role in the formation of stereotypes. Most important agent of socialisation are parents. Many parents encourage their children to develop stereotypes thinking it will better prepare them to deal with people of other community.
- b. **Imitation:** In order to become an acceptable member of the community or society we live in, we simply imitate beliefs, opinions and attitudes held by them without even thinking their desirability and logical validity. Result is that knowingly or unknowingly we develop stereotypes. Perhaps this is the reason a person born in Hindu community easily adopts stereotypes held by other people of Hindu community but he will not with that ease adopt stereotypes held by Muslim community.
- c. **Traditions and folkways:** Traditions and folkways prevalent in a culture also help foster stereotypes. Everybody tries to behave according to the traditions, customs, and folkways prevalent in the society because doing so brings prestige and social reputation.
- d. **Social and cultural distance:** Social and cultural distance is another important factor in the development and maintenance of stereotypes. Social distance prevents us from gaining right knowledge and information about people of other community and society. Similarly, due to cultural distance we lack knowledge about living style, habits, customs, beliefs, opinions, and attitudes of people of

other culture. This lack of correct knowledge and information about other people provides breeding ground for development and maintenance of stereotypes.

### **4.2.3 Stereotypes and Social Life**

Stereotypes have profound importance in social life as they directly affect social interactions. For example, teachers are usually thought to be idealistic and accordingly we expect conversation with teachers to take idealistic tone. Thus, our behaviour naturally orients toward idealistic patterns. Stereotypes serve a number of social functions as given below:

1. Stereotypes help understand social behaviour. Stereotype that politicians are opportunist helps us understand their behaviour and we are not easily taken in by their statements and claims.
2. Stereotypes help control social behaviour. In fact, stereotypes equip us with a power that automatically directs our behaviour in a specific direction. For example, Americans are known to be friendly. Therefore, when dealing with an American we are in relaxed mood and try to be frank and friendly with them.
3. Stereotypes help in prediction. Whether right or wrong stereotypes control our social interaction. We even predict behaviour on the basis of stereotypes. For example, Nepali servants are believed to be brave, honest, and reliable. Thus, we can predict that our house and property will remain safe in the hands of a Nepali servant, when we are out on vacations.

### **4.3 Individual**

Social psychology is about understanding individual behaviour in a social context. It therefore, looks at human behaviour which is influenced by other people and the social context in which it occurs. In this field, the concept of the individual plays a vital role. The term individual can also be called as 'self-concept.' It is a general term which is used to refer to how someone thinks about, evaluates, or perceives themselves. To be aware of oneself is to have a concept of oneself. According to a social psychologist, Roy F Baumeister, self-concept means 'the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is.'

## 4.4 Society

The term “society” means relationships social beings, men, express their nature by creating and re-creating an organization which guides and controls their behaviour in myriad ways. Society liberates and limits the activities of men and it is a necessary condition of every human being and need to fulfilment of life. Society is a system of usages and procedures of authority and mutual aid many divisions of controls of human behaviour and of liberties. This changing system, we call society and it is always changing. Society exists only where social beings “behave” toward one another in ways determined by their recognition of one another.

Society not confined to man. It should be clear that society is not limited to human beings. There are many degrees of animal societies, likely the ants, the bee, the hornet, are known to most school children. It has been contended that wherever there is life there is society, because life means heredity and, so far as we know, can arise only out of and in the presence of other life. All higher animals at least have a very definite society, arising out of the requirements their nature and the conditions involved in the perpetuation of their species. In society each member seeks something and gives something.

A society can also consist of likeminded people governed by their own norms and values within a dominant, large society moreover; a society may be illustrated as an economic, social, or industrial infrastructure, made up of a varied collection of individuals. Finally, we can say that the word “society” may also refer to an organized voluntary association of people for religious, benevolent, cultural, scientific, political, patriotic, or other purposes. Society is universal and pervasive and has no defined boundary or assignable limits. A society is a collection of individuals united by certain relations or modes of behaviour which mark them off from others who do not enter into those relations or who differ from them in behaviour. In this way we can conclude that, society is the whole complex of social behaviour and the network of social relationship.

#### **4.4.1 Nature of Society**

Society is an abstract term that connotes the complex of inter-relations that exist between and among the members of the group. Society exists wherever there are good or bad, proper or improper relationships between human beings. These social relationships are not evident, they do not have any concrete form, and hence society is abstract. Society is not a group of people; it means in essence a state or condition, a relationship and is therefore necessarily an abstraction. Society is organization of relationship. It is the total complex of human relationships. It includes whole range of human relations. Social relationships invariably possess a physical element, which takes the form of awareness of another's presence, common objective, or common interest. Now we can say that society is the union itself, the organization, the sum of formal relations in which associating individuals are bound together. Societies consist in mutual interaction and inter relation of individuals and of the structure formed by their relations.

#### **4.5 Relation between Individual and Society**

Human cannot survive without society and societies cannot exist without members. Still there may be conflicts between the individual and society; one can imagine that social systems function better when they have considerable control over their individual members, but that this is a mixed blessing for the system's members. Like-wise can competition with other societies strengthen the social system, while wearing out its constituent members? This idea was voiced by Rousseau (1769) who believed that we lived better in the original state of nature than under civilization, and who was for that reason less positive about classic Greek civilization than his contemporaries.

The relation between individual and society has been an interesting and a complex problem at the same time. It can be stated more or less that it has defied all solutions so far. No sociologist has been able to give a solution of the relation between the two that will be fully satisfactory and convincing by reducing the conflict between the two to the minimum and by showing a way in which both will tend to



bring about a healthy growth of each other. Aristotle has treated of the individual only from the point of view of the state and he wants the individual to fit in the mechanism of the state and the society. It is very clear that relation between individual and society are very close.

#### **4.6 Self- Check Exercise**

- Define nature and origin of stereotypes.
- Define individual.
- What are the relation between individual and society?

#### **4.7 Summary**

Though accurate information about the exact origin of society is not known still it is an accepted fact that man has been living in society since time immemorial. Long ago, Aristotle expressed that “Man is essentially a social animal by nature”. He cannot live without society, if he does so; he is either beast or God. Man has to live in society for his existence and welfare. In almost all aspect of his life he feels the need of society. Biologically and psychologically, he compelled to live in society. Man can never develop his personality, language, culture and “inner deep” by living outside the society. The essence of the fact is that man has always belonged to a society of some sort, without which man cannot exist at all. Society fulfils all his needs and provides security. Every human took birth, grows, live and die in society. Without society human’s life is just like fish out of water. Hence there exists a great deal of close relationships between man and society. Both are closely inter-related, interconnected, and inter-dependent. Relationship between the two is bilateral in nature. But this close relationship between man and society raises one of the most important questions i.e., in what sense man is a social animal? No doubt Aristotle said so long ago. However, man is a social animal mainly because of the following three reasons.

Society not only fulfils his physical needs and determines his social nature but also determines his personality and guides the course of development of human mind. Development of human mind and self is possible only living in society. Society

moulds our attitudes, beliefs, morals, ideals and thereby moulds individual personality. With the course of living and with the process of socialization man's personality develops and he became a fully-fledged individual. Man acquires a self or personality only living in a society. From birth to death individual acquires different social qualities by social interaction with his fellow beings which moulds his personality. Individual mind without society remains undeveloped at infant stage. The cultural heritage determines man's personality by molding his attitudes, beliefs, morals, and ideals. With the help of social heritage man's in born potentialities are unfolded. Thus, from the above discussion we conclude that Man is a social animal. His nature and necessities make him a social being. He also depends on society to be a human being. He acquires personality within society. There exists a very close relationship between individual and society like that of cells and body.

#### **4.8 Glossary**

- **Socialisation:** Process of socialisation plays an important role in the formation of stereotypes. Most important agent of socialisation are parents.
- **Imitation:** In order to become an acceptable member of the community or society we live in, we simply imitate beliefs, opinions and attitudes held by them without even thinking their desirability and logical validity.
- **Cooperation:** working together with somebody else to achieve something.

#### **4.9 Answers to Self- Check Exercise**

- Refer to section 4.2.1
- Refer to section 4.3
- Refer to section 4.5

#### **4.10 Suggested Readings**

1. Baron, R. A., & Branscombe, N. R. (2012). Social Psychology (13th ed). New Jersey:
2. Pearson Education Limited. Mohanty, G. (2016). Social Psychology (4th ed). New Delhi: Kalyani Publishers.
3. <https://egyankosh.ac.in/handle/123456789/4486>
4. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/stereotype-social>

5. <https://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/display/document/obo-9780199828340/obo-9780199828340-0086.xml>

#### **4.11 Terminal Questions**

1. Explain the various advantages and dis-advantages of stereotypes.
2. Define Stereotypes with its nature and development.
3. Explain the nature of society.
4. What are the relation between individual and society?

## **Chapter-5**

### **MIND, SELF AND SOCIETY**

#### **STRUCTURE**

5.0 Introduction

5.1 Objectives

5.2 G.H. Mead: Life and Time

5.2.1 Stimulus Interpret and Define Response

5.3 Mind

5.4 Self

5.4.1 Development of the Self

5.5 Society

5.6 Culture

5.7 Self- Check Exercise

5.8 Summary

5.9 Glossary

5.10 Answers to Self Check Exercise

5.11 Suggested Readings

5.12 Terminal Questions

#### **5.0 Introduction**

One of the significant theoretical ideas that began to emerge in the beginning of the twentieth century was the understanding that individuals through their everyday activities create and maintain the larger structures of society. This came as a new insight, contrary to the previous understanding that society has its own unique origin and it is originated on its own. This understanding motivated many theorists to focus on the everyday activities of the individuals and the ways in which it creates conditions for the existence of society as a whole. Significant attention was given on the nature and the underlying principles of interaction processes and the ways in which they shape our social world in which we live.

## 5.1 Objectives

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the life and time of G.H. Mead
- Know about the development of the self.
- Discuss society

## 5.2 George Herbert Mead: Life and Time

Mead's main contribution was his attempt to show how the human self arises in the process of social interaction. He thought that spoken language played a central role in this development. Through language the child can take the role of other persons and guide his behaviour in terms of the effect his contemplated behaviour will have upon others. Thus, Mead's psychological approach was behaviouristic. George Herbert Mead, (1863-1931), American philosopher prominent in both social psychology and the development of Pragmatism. Mead studied at Oberlin College and Harvard University. During 1891–94 he was instructor in philosophy and psychology at the University of Michigan. In 1894 he went to the University of Chicago, where he remained until his death.

Mead never published his work. After his death his students edited four volumes from stenographic recordings and notes on his lectures and from unpublished papers: *The Philosophy of the Present* (1932); *Mind, Self, and Society* (1934); *Movements of Thought in the Nineteenth Century* (1936); and *The Philosophy of the Act* (1938). A philosopher at the University of Chicago, George Herbert Mead (1863-1931), was most influential and is often credited to be the founding father of symbolic interactionism. He made a breakthrough in understanding the symbolic elements of human interaction and the ways in which individual selves emerge in the early years of one's childhood and gets matured while coming in contact with others in society.

Mead is generally regarded as the founder of the symbolic interaction approach. George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) was trained in social psychology and philosophy and spent most of his academic career at the University of Chicago. Mead's major work is *Mind, Self and Society*, a series of his essays put together after Mead's

death and originally published in 1934, a work in which he emphasizes how the social world develops various mental states in an individual.

Mead looked on the "self as an acting organism, not a passive receptacle that simply receives and responds to stimuli" (Wallace and Wolf, p, 197), as Durkheim and Parsons may have thought. People are not merely media that can be put into action by appropriate stimuli, but that "we are thoughtful and reflective creatures whose identities and actions arise as a result of our interactions with others" (Farganis).

For Mead, what distinguishes humans from non-human animals is that humans have ability to delay their reactions to a stimulus. Intelligence is the ability to mutually adjust actions. Non-human animals also have intelligence because they often can act together or adjust what they do to the actions of other animals. Humans differ from non-human animals in that they have a much greater ability to do this. While humans may do this through involuntary gestures, Mead thought it more important that it is only humans that can adjust actions by using significant or meaningful symbols. As a result of this greater intelligence, humans can communicate, plan, and work out responses, rather than merely reacting in an instinctive or stimulus-response manner.

Mead notes that human actions have three characteristics: (i) humans can organize their minds concerning the array of possible responses open to them; (ii) humans can consider the likely implications of different actions, and test possible outcomes mentally in their own minds; and (iii) since there are a range of stimuli that impinge upon an individual, a human need not react to the immediate stimulus, but may react to one of the lesser stimuli. This means that humans are able to make choices that are better adapted to the situation and "intelligence is largely a matter of selectivity" (Ritzer, p. 339). For Mead, rather than action being defined by:

**Stimulus Response** action is more appropriately identified with the following sequence of events:

### **5.2.1 Stimulus Interpret and Define Response**

That is, the stimulus-response pattern is not what characterizes social interaction, but rather what happens between stimulus and response. Here humans go through a process of interpreting and defining the stimulus before providing a response. Associated with this is meaning – "the wedding of different attitudes and the use of significant symbols that have the same import for all concerned" (Wallace and Wolf, p. 202). "When individuals share symbolic interpretations, the act is meaningful to them" (Wallace and Wolf, p. 202). For Mead, symbols are important in allowing human interaction to occur, and it is the shared understanding of the significance of symbols that and what they denote that makes for social interaction.

### **5.3 MIND**

Mead conceived of the mind as the processes involved in responding to stimuli and contemplating action, with these being almost more important than the physiological processes of the brain, the structure of knowledge, or the contents of individual knowledge. The mind is also social, rather than being purely a characteristic of the brain or the individual. That is, the mind develops as a result of social interaction, the mind is part of social processes, and since the latter precede the mind, society is prior to the mind and self for Mead. While Mead's concept of the mind is less clear than that of the self, Ritzer notes that the mind "has the ability to respond to the overall community and put forth an organized response." This is not just a particular response, but one that can have meaning for the community as a whole, with symbols playing a major role. Further, the mind "involves thought processes oriented toward problem solving."

### **5.4 SELF**

The self is the central social feature in the symbolic interaction approach. Instead of being passive and being influenced by values or structures, Mead considers the self as a process that is active and creative – taking on the role of others, addressing the self by considering these roles, and then responding. This is a reflexive process, whereby an individual can take himself or herself to be both subject and object. This

means that "the individual is an object to himself, and, so far as I can see, the individual is not a self in the reflexive sense unless he is an object to himself" (Mead, quoted in Farganis).

Wallace and Wolf note that Mead distinguished "things" from "objects" and the "I" from the "me." When an individual is involved in a situation and acts, this action occurs in an environment. Physical things or stimulæ exist in the environment, prior to action, and people encounter these. By considering these things and acting in response to them, following self-reflection and interpretation, these things become objects. In doing this, individuals are active and creative. Those things of which the individual is conscious are those that the individual takes note of and indicates to the self. This has two consequences. (i) By being conscious of certain things, the individual makes these things into objects, and these are more than stimuli. The individual "constructs his objects on the basis of his on-going activity." These objects then become meaningful for the individual and "This is what is meant by interpretation or acting on the basis of symbols" (Blumer in Wells, p. 92). (ii) This also means that acts are "constructed or built up instead of being a mere release." The act is considered, in the context of the surroundings including the possible responses of others, and the overall consequences that are anticipated by the actor. Action is thus conscious and is not just a reaction to a stimulus.

Similarly, the impulsive and spontaneous, unorganized response of the individual, whereas the me is the organized self that is learned in interaction with others and which guides the behaviour of the socialized person. The I allow for spontaneity, innovation, and individuality, and the me is that part of the self which involves the influence of others. The self involves both the I and the me, with acts resulting from the dialogue between the two. Self-interaction is the way in which the individual takes things into account and organizes himself or herself for action. As the social environment changes, or as individuals encounter new or altered experiences, they experiment and interact with themselves in order to find an appropriate response. This involves taking on the role of the other, considering how others will respond, having a conversation with oneself, and forming a means of response which takes



all these considerations into account. This may sometimes be quick and not entirely conscious, as in fairly routine situations such as buying food at the cafeteria. At other times, it may involve a long period of conscious role-playing, for example in preparing for a job interview. In either case though, some self-interaction does take place, in that each action is unique and is a result of the individual using the information from previous experiences and what the individual understands about the environment and situation, in order to act appropriately in the future.

Humans are distinctive in having the ability to be able to have a conversation with themselves, to imagine themselves in the position of other people, to consider what the other person imagines, and contemplates what the reaction of the other person is likely to be. This is evident in communication with the other person, where the individual carries on a conversation with himself or herself (although this is covert and, in the mind, and is not stated for others to hear) at the same time as the conversation with the other person is carried on.

#### **5.4.1 Development of the Self**

Mead spends considerable time discussing the development of the child, because this is how the self is created. The first stage of development of the self involves imitative acts on the part of the child. This is the pre-play stage, around age two, where the child does not have the ability to take on the role of others, but merely imitates the actions of others. A play stage follows, where the child can act out the parts of others but cannot yet relate to the role of others. That is, the child repeats what others say, and takes on several roles, one at a time. Later, the child is able to act with others and anticipate the actions of others. This is the game stage, where the child can take on the role of all the others involved in the game or situation. In doing this, the child learns the organized attitudes of the whole community, and is able to act in common with others. The final stage in socialization is the internalization of the generalized other, whereby people can put themselves in the position of the other person, imagine how others will react, and from that contemplate various courses of action. Once this ability is developed, the individual has a self which is individual, yet could not have developed apart from the

community. That is, "one has to be a member of a community to be a self" (Wallace and Wolf).

Simple and then more complex situations and games are means by which the child develops a self, and these situations illustrate the nature of more general social processes interacting with family and friends and taking part in social relationships. Other than games, the development of the individual's ability to communicate using language and other symbols also play an important role in this. In the use of different forms of language, the child learns what others think and how others might respond. Games and learning a language are both social – they could not occur in the isolated individual.

## **5.5 SOCIETY:**

The third major part of Mead's approach is society. The ongoing symbols and social processes that exist are logically and historically prior to the development of the mind and self. Institutions that give the common responses of society and the regular habits of the community are the context within which the mind and self are created. Socialization and education are the means by which individuals internalize these common habits. Mead does not see these as coercive or oppressive, and feels that individual creativity can exist within this. Social institutions can be viewed as constraining on individuals but these same institutions can also be viewed as enabling people to become creative individuals (Ritzer, p. 347). Mead did not develop a macro view of society and social institutions as a whole, but his approach might be combined with some of the more structural approaches to provide a more integrated view of the macro and micro approaches. Note that the classical sociologists have a similar conception of society to that of Mead, but they do not have a theory of the self, and they do not emphasize interaction.

**SYMBOLIC MEANING:** For Mead, significant symbols are those "which will call out in another that which it calls out in the thinker" (Mead in Farganis, p. 150). Symbols of this sort are universal (rather than particular) and are involved in the process of thinking "an internalized or implicit conversation of the individual with himself" (Mead in Ritzer, p. 338) using gestures or symbols. Language is a set of vocal

gestures which are significant symbols carrying social meaning. Thinking is implicit conversation, or covert behaviour that is, it "is not a mentalistic definition of thinking; it is decidedly behaviouristic" (Ritzer, p. 338).

While Weber considered meaning to be essential to defining what is social, he did not provide a very clear idea of how he defined meaning or what aspects of meaning were important. In contrast, Mead makes meaning an essential part of definition and development of self. "Meaning as such, i.e., the object of thought, arises in experience through the individual stimulating himself to take the attitude of the other in his reactions toward the object" (Wallace and Wolf,). That is, meaning develops through experiences, as different individuals develop a common understanding of social situations and symbols. When symbolic interpretation is shared, people see things in the same light, and acts are meaningful to actors. As a result of this common understanding, the gesture or symbol arouses the same attitude in the individuals, and this is sufficient to trigger a reaction.

## 5.6 CULTURE

The dictionary defines culture as 'customs and civilization of a particular time or people' and 'intellectual and artistic achievement or expression'. Through time, various thinkers and philosophers have defined and explored the meaning of culture in their own ways. In the 1950s, A. L. Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn collected over a hundred definitions of culture. In his book, *Knowledge, Culture and Man*, Pritibhushan Chatterji says that culture "means something cultivated or ripened... 'Culture' also refers to some kind of refinement which is born of education and enlightenment." This seems to be very close to culture as envisioned in our ancient Vedic view. Perhaps one of the very first comprehensive statements about culture in the Western world was offered by an anthropologist, Prof. Edward Burnett Tylor who said that culture was a multifaceted set of "*knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*". Another anthropologist, William A. Haviland, offered this modern view of culture: "*Culture is a set of rules or standards that, when acted upon by the*

*members of a society, produce behaviour that falls within a range of variance the members consider proper and acceptable."*

## **5.7 Self- Check Exercise**

- Define mind.
- Discuss development of self.
- Define society.

## **5.8 Summary**

George Herbert Mead (b.1863) was a major American thinker and philosopher. He taught philosophy and social psychology at the University of Michigan, and never published anything in his lifetime. His book, *Mind, Self, and Society: From the standpoint of a Social Behaviourist* was compiled and published posthumously by his students in 1934. This book laid the foundations of the school of symbolic interactionism. His theory about the development of self and of consciousness is the bedrock on which other theories were built. The basic premises of his theory are that the self emerges, not by itself but through interaction with others. We learn to see ourselves through the eyes of others. Or, how we perceive who we are is largely influenced by what feedback we get about ourselves from those around us.

## **5.9 Glossary**

- **Environment-** the conditions in which you live, work etc.
- **Action-** doing things, often for a particular purpose.
- **Community-** all the people who live in a particular place, area, etc, when considered as a group.

## **5.10 Answers to Self- Check Exercise**

- Refer to section 5.3
- Refer to section 5.4.1
- Refer to section 5.5

## **5.11 Suggested Readings**

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### **5.12 Terminal Questions**

1. Give brief detail of George Herbert Mead: Life and Time.
2. Explain George Herbert Mead concept of Mind Self and Society.
3. Define society.

## **Chapter-6**

### **Personality**

#### **STRUCTURE**

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Personality
- 6.3 Theories of Personality
  - 6.3.1 Sigmund Freud Theory of Personality
  - 6.3.2 Erikson Theory of Personality
  - 6.3.3 Alfred Adler Theory of Personality
  - 6.3.4 Carl Jung Theory of Personality
  - 6.3.5 Allport Theory of Personality
- 6.4 Self- Check Exercise
- 6.5 Summary
- 6.6 Glossary
- 6.7 Answers to Self- Check Exercise
- 6.8 Suggested Readings
- 6.9 Terminal Questions

#### **6.0 Introduction**

The term culture and personality has been used in several senses, both popularly and psychologically. Before going into discussion of theory let us first discuss the meaning and determinants of culture and personality. Culture is a term practically used in everyday life. Anthropological meaning of culture is different from its popular meaning. Defining culture has never been as simple for anthropologists. It is no wonder in anthropology; culture has over 300 definitions of this concept. For the convenience of learners culture herein is used to mean any knowledge that a person/individual has acquired as a member of his/her society. Such knowledge is important because it subsequently influences the shaping of his/her personality. It was widely believed that early enculturation in particular has very important bearing

on personality development of the child as he/she grows into adulthood. The conceptualisation of culture is by no means a simple matter. One possible way to think about culture is that “culture is to society what memory is to individuals” (Kluckhohn 1954). It includes what has worked in the experience of a society, so that it was worth transmitting to future generations.

## 6.1 Objectives

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the personality.
- Know about the G.H. Mead theory of personality.
- Analyse the Allport theory of personality.

## 6.2 PERSONALITY

*What is personality?*

**A.** Personality: Individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving:

**1. “Thinking”:** Personality includes differences between people in how they typically think. Example: Do people tend to focus on the positive (optimists) or the negative (pessimists)?

**2. “Feeling”:** Personality includes differences between people in how they typically feel. Examples: Do people tend to be happy or unhappy? Do they experience intense emotions or not? Do they get angry easily? Are they especially sensitive to rejection?

**3. “Behaving”:** Personality includes differences between people in how they typically behave. Examples: Do they tend to talk a lot? Do they usually go along with what other people want or insist on doing things their way? Are they neat and tidy or sloppy and disorderly? Do they like to try new things, or do they always order the same thing when they go out to eat?

**B.** Personality does not refer to physical characteristics, abilities, or temporary states.

1. Personality refers to differences between people in their psychological characteristics, not physical or biological differences (e.g., height or age). Example: A person's level of testosterone can influence his or her typical pattern of behaviour. However, level of testosterone itself is not considered a personality characteristic, though it may be related to personality characteristics.
2. Personality does not include many skills or abilities. Personality is about what people are typically like, not what they are capable of at their best. Example: Just because someone can be an excellent negotiator or a skilled chess player, that does not mean it is part of his/ her personality.
3. Personality does not include fleeting states like hunger, arousal, or mood. Just because a person happens to be happy at a given moment does not mean it is part of his/her personality; that is why the "characteristic patterns" part of the definition is so important.
4. Personality includes prominent consideration of diversity because the theories and the tests that arise out of diversity have been primarily based on the observations of a specific group (European American males)

"Personality is that pattern of characteristic thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that distinguishes one person from another and that persists over time" "It is the sum of biologically based and learnt behaviour which forms the person's unique responses to environmental stimuli." The term personality is derived from the Latin word *persona* meaning a *mask or character*. Personality is a patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes, and ideas of an individual as these are organised externally into roles and statuses and as they relate internally to motivation, goals and various aspects of selfhood. It is a term used in routine life as the distinctive way a person thinks, feels, and behaves. But in anthropology, the term is used in a different sense. Funder (1997) defined personality as "*an individual's characteristic pattern of thought, emotion, and behaviour, together with the psychological mechanisms hidden or not-behind those patterns*". Whereas Ralph Linton (1945) defines personality as the individual's mental qualities the sum total of his rational faculties, perceptions, ideas, habits and conditional emotional responses. He states that there is a close relation between personality and culture of the society to which the



individual belongs. The personality of every individual within the society develops and functions in constant association with its culture. Personality affects culture and culture affects personality. In short, he says personality embraces the total organised aggregate of psychological processes and status pertaining to the individual.

There are four main factors or determinants, which affect the personality formation. They are environment, heredity, culture and peculiar experiences. The influence of geographical or physical environment plays very important role to determine the variation in personality construction of members of a group. According to physical environment humans comes to form ideas and attitudes where he/she lives in. A close relationship exists between environment, culture and personality. To the amount that the environment determines cultural development and to the extent that culture in turn determines personality. In the 18th century Montesquieu claimed that the bravery of those blessed by a cold climate enables them to maintain their liberties. Great heat weakens courage while cold causes certain vigour of body and mind. The people those who live in mountain as well as deserts areas are usually bold, hard, and powerful. Nevertheless, physical conditions are more permissive and limiting factors than causative factors. People who live in mountain as well as in deserts areas set the limits within which the personality develops. For example, Andaman tribes have different cultural personality than Fiji tribes because of the fact that the above two cultural groups develop in two different geographical environments.

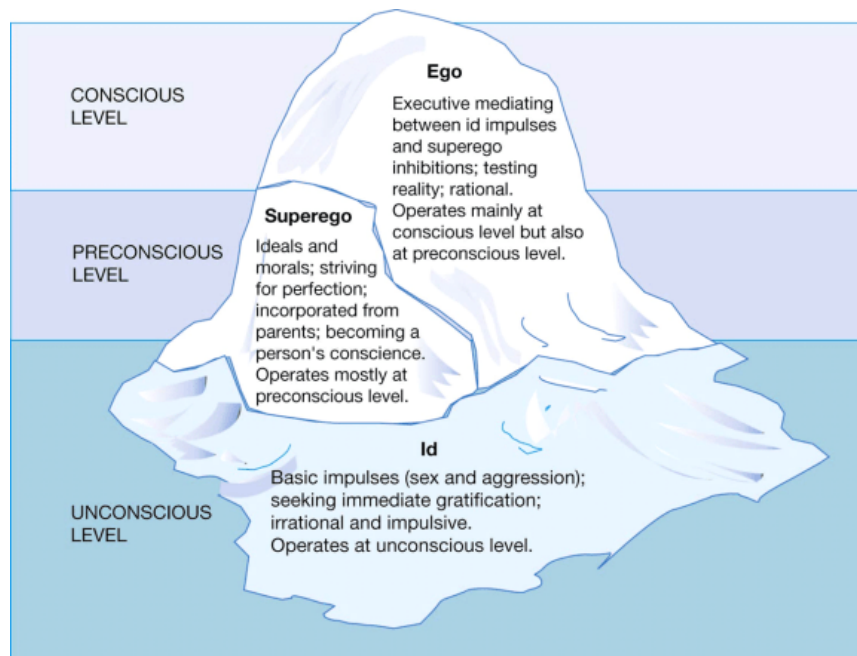
Heredity is another factor which determines the traits of human personality. Some of the similarities in individual/group personality are said to be due to his common heredity. Some set of biological needs and capacities are inherited by human group in every society. These common biological needs and capacities explain some of the similarities in personality of the particular group. For example, humankind tends to resemble his/her parents in physical appearance and intelligence. However, human heredity does not mould human personality alone and independently. There is assumption that functioning of human life in human beings there are genes for

normal personality traits as well as there are genes for other aspects. Heredity is one of determinants that provides the materials out of which experience will mould the personality. Experience determines the way these materials will be used. Because of his/her heredity an individual may be energetic but whether he is active on his own belief or on behalf of others is a matter of his training.

## 6.3 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

### 6.3.1 Sigmund Freud (Psychodynamic theories of Personality)

Freud theorized that personality contains three structures the id, ego, and superego and that the mind is like an iceberg, the unconscious making up 90% while the conscious (like the tip of the iceberg floating above water) makes only 10% of the mind.



Freud suggested an analogy about the mind. He said that the mind is like an iceberg in the ocean, floating 10% above the water and 90% below. The unconscious, Freud proposed, makes up most of our mind. In Freud's view, only about 10% of our behaviours are caused by conscious awareness about 90% are produced by unconscious factors. According to psychoanalytic theory, most of what controls our behaviours, thoughts, and feelings is unknown to our aware minds.

Normally, the unconscious guides us. Freud said that the mind could be divided into three abstract categories. These are the id, the ego, and the superego.

**1. The id:** Latin for the term “id,” this division of the mind includes our basic instincts, inborn dispositions, and animalistic urges. Freud said that the id is totally unconscious, that we are unaware of its workings. The id is not rational; it imagines, dreams, and invents things to get us what we want. Freud said that the id operates according to the pleasure principle it aims toward pleasurable things and away from painful things. The id aims to satisfy our biological urges and drives. It includes feelings of hunger, thirst, sex, and other natural body desires aimed at deriving pleasure.

**2. The ego:** Greek and Latin for “I,” this personality structure begins developing in childhood and can be interpreted as the “self.” The ego is partly conscious and partly unconscious. The ego operates according to the reality principle; that is, it attempts to help the id get what it wants by judging the difference between real and imaginary. If a person is hungry, the id might begin to imagine food and even dream about food. (The id is not rational.) The ego, however, will try to determine how to get some real food. The ego helps a person satisfy needs through reality.

**3. The superego:** This term means “above the ego,” and includes the moral ideas that a person learns within the family and society. The superego gives people feelings of pride when they do something correct (the ego ideal) and feelings of guilt when they do something they consider to be morally wrong (the conscience). The superego, like the ego, is partly conscious and partly unconscious. The superego is a child’s moral barometer, and it creates feelings of pride and guilt according to the beliefs that have been learned within the family and the culture.

**Conclusion:** Although these are known as structures, do not take the term literally. Freud did not mean that these are physical parts of our bodies or our brains. He coined these terms and proposed this division of the mind as abstract ideas meant to help us understand how personality develops and works, and how mental illnesses can develop.

Freud theorized that healthy personality development requires a balance between the id and the superego. These two divisions of the mind are naturally at conflict with one another: The id attempts to satisfy animal, biological urges, while the superego preaches patience and restraint. The struggle between these two is an example of intrapsychic conflict within the mind.

According to psychoanalytic theory, defence mechanisms are automatic (unconscious) reactions to the fear that the id's desires will overwhelm the ego. Freud believed that a healthy personality was one in which the id's demands are met but also the superego is satisfied in making the person feel proud and not overwhelmed by guilt. If the id is too strong, a person will be rude, overbearing, selfish, and animalistic. If the superego is too strong, a person is constantly worried, nervous, and full of guilt and anxiety and is always repressing the id's desires. An overly strong id makes one a psychopath, lacking a conscience, or an ogre, selfishly meeting one's needs without concern for others. An overly strong superego, on the other hand, makes one a worrier, a neurotic, so overwhelmed by guilt that it is difficult to get satisfaction.

### **6.3.2 Erikson Theory of Personality**

Erikson converted Freud's emphasis to a focus on social relationships into eight psychosocial stages. These stages became known as the Eight Ages of Man. (As you know, at that time in history, the word man was used to apply to all human beings.) Each of Erikson's eight stages was described as a time of crisis a time when the personality would go one way or the other. For example, you have likely heard of the identity crisis. Erikson theorized that during adolescence, we all face a crisis of figuring out who we are. Each of the stages has this either-or quality.

#### **Erikson's Psychosocial Stages: (Eight Ages of Man)**

1. Infant	Trust versus Mistrust	Babies whose needs are met develop a feeling of trust for the environment. If infants have frustration and deprivation, they learn a basic mistrust for the world that will stick throughout life.
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2. Toddler	Autonomy versus Shame	When toddlers learn to act independently and to control and doubt their bodies (toilet training, walking, etc.), they learn self-confidence and a feeling of autonomy. Failure leads to feelings of inadequacy and therefore a sense of basic shame and doubt.
3. Preschool	Initiative versus Guilt	The pre-schooler is ready to take action in play, in imagination and in running his or her life. Success here leads to good self-esteem; problems lead to feelings of guilt.
4. Early school age	Industry versus Inferiority	The school-aged child is ready for learning many new skills and, if successful, will develop a sense of industry—being good at things. Failures at this stage result in a deep sense of being no good, of being inferior to others a feeling that might carry into adulthood.
5. Adolescent	Identity versus Role of confusion	An adolescent is beginning to think abstractly and can conceptualize his or her self-identity and personality. The adolescent begins to consider questions of identity such as: Who should I be? What should I value? And what interests should I have? The teen must answer these to develop a good sense of self-identity. Exploration of various roles and personalities is common in this stage.
6. Young adult	Intimacy versus Isolation	A young adult faces the challenge of developing close emotional relationships with other people. Here the term intimate does not mean sexuality, but social and emotional connections with others. The opposite result, for those who do not develop a sense of intimacy, is to

		become isolated from social contact
7. Middle-aged adult	Generativity versus Stagnation	Middle-aged adults feel an urgency to leave a mark on the world, to generate something of lasting value and worth. Finding a purpose in life is a central theme. To fail at generating something significant means a person becomes stagnant and stops moving forward; this person may become selfish and self-absorbed.
8. Old adult	Integrity versus Despair	In old age, it is common to look back on life and reflect on what was accomplished. People who feel good about what they have done build a sense of integrity. For those whose evaluations are not so good, there is despair, the feeling of regret and remorse for the life they led.

### 6.3.3 Alfred Adler theory of personality

Individual Psychology Adler's theory is known as ***theory of individual psychology***. He believed that experiences of early childhood shape one's personality. If encouraged during childhood, it would motivate the child to feel capable and acts in a cooperative way throughout their life. Whereas, if discouraged the child may misbehave and indulge in unhealthy competition or withdrawal behaviour. He proposed that there is a need to understand one's personality psychology within their social context. According to Adler, instead of any instinct (as proposed by Freud), an innate force motivates us to perform the behaviour. He named this force as the striving for the perfection-an innate desire that motivates individuals to achieve their full potential.

***Inferiority and Superiority Complex:*** As a child, Adler explained that we feel weak, dependent, less capable and thus inferior to others (older siblings, parents, and caregivers). This feeling of inferiority is innate and natural. If a child decides to overcome this feeling of inferiority, then s/he would strive for achievement or success. Thus, overcoming of this feeling of inferiority is essential for optimal development. If this

feeling is not compensated, then it would lead to inferiority complex and when overcompensated, it would lead to a superiority complex.

**Sibling rivalry and birth order:** Adler introduced the term-sibling rivalry to explain how competition for parents' love and affection between siblings lead to rivalry and thus shaping their personalities. According to Adler, arrival of a new-born might lead to a feeling of dethronement and sibling rivalry. Here dethronement refers to the feeling of being replaced from the focus of attention and love by the new sibling. He has also proposed that your birth order also affects your personality. Later, numerous studies have confirmed his proposition about birth order. According to him, firstborn children are usually responsible, obedient, and intelligent individuals. The second born master their skill in social adjustment. They are generally trusting, accepting and other-cantered. And, the third order children are exhibiting strong security, high self-esteem but less competitiveness. Since they are never dethroned; they remain the baby of the family throughout their life.

### **6.3.4 Carl Jung theory of personality**

Analytical Psychology Carl Gustav Jung (pronounce as "yooung"), was a Swiss psychiatrist and a close friend of Sigmund Freud. He emphasised the idea that we need to study different cultures as it will provide the essence of humanity. Jung's personality theory is known as *the **analytic theory or analytical psychology***.

#### **The Fundamental Concept of Jung's Theory of Personality**

Jung extended Freud's idea of the unconscious. Freud considered unconscious as an essential part of one's personality. It is a storehouse of repressed memories, aggressive motives, and sexual desires. Even though the basic characteristic of the Freud's unconscious is similar across different individuals but its content is highly personal in nature. An important part of Jung's conception of personality is the idea of unity or wholeness. This wholeness is represented by the psyche, including all thoughts, feelings, and behaviours, both conscious and unconscious. Individuals strive to achieve this wholeness throughout their entire lives. Here, the self is considered both the centre and the entire personality. Other aspects of personality include attributes of the individuals and the way they function psychologically.

## Levels of Consciousness

While explaining personality, Jung identified three levels of consciousness. The concepts of soul, mind, and spirit exist in these levels of consciousness, along with cognitions, emotions, and behaviour:

**The conscious level:** This is the only level individuals can know directly. It starts at birth and continues to grow throughout one's life. As they grow, individuals become different from others. This process is known as individuation, according to Jung (1959). The goal of this process is to know oneself as completely as possible. As individuals increase their consciousness, they achieve greater individuation. Ego is at the center of consciousness and organizing. The organizational structure of the ego gives an individual a sense of identity. The ego screens out great amounts of unconscious material to bring a sense of coherence and consistency while being an expression of individuality.

**The personal unconscious:** Those experiences, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions not admitted by the ego are stored in the personal unconscious. This contains experiences that may either be trivial or highly conflicting, depending on the nature of the thoughts. When memories, thoughts, and feelings have a theme and an emotional impact on the individual, it is called a complex.

**The collective:** This refers to the inherited tendency of the human mind to form representations of mythological motifs. Such representations vary a great deal without losing their basic pattern. Jung considered that this is the predisposition for certain thoughts and ideas that are inherited- archetypes.

The Basis of Perceptions: Archetypes

Though archetypes do not have content, they have a form. They represent the possibility of types of perceptions. They are the pathways from the collective unconscious to the conscious, which may lead to action. According to Jung, the following are the most important for personality are as following:

- a. *The self*- knowing about the wholeness of one's own identity.
- b. *The persona*-the phony self that we show to others.
- c. *The anima*-feminine side of the men.
- d. *The animus*-masculine side of the female.



- e. *The shadow*-the darker side of our personality, consisting of aggressive urges, biological instincts, and feeling of inferiority.

## **TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY**

The trait theory of personality suggests that people have certain basic traits and it is the strength and intensity of those traits that account for personality differences. The trait approach to personality is one of the major theoretical areas in the study of personality. Trait theory suggests that individual personalities are composed of broad dispositions.

### **6.3.5 Allport's Trait theory of personality**

The first trait theory was proposed by a psychologist named Gordon Allport in 1936. Allport found that one English-language dictionary contained more than 4,000 words describing different personality traits. He categorized these traits into three levels:

#### **Cardinal Traits**

Allport suggested that [cardinal traits](#) are rare and dominating, usually developing later in life. They tend to define a person to such an extent that their names become synonymous with their personality. Examples of this include the following descriptive terms: Machiavellian, narcissistic, Don Juan, and Christ-like.

#### **Central Traits**

These general characteristics form basic personality foundations. While central traits are not as dominating as cardinal traits, they describe the major characteristics you might use to describe another person. Descriptions such as "intelligent," "honest," "shy," and "anxious" are considered central traits.

#### **Secondary Traits**

Secondary traits are sometimes related to [attitudes](#) or preferences. They often appear only in

certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples include public speaking anxiety or impatience while waiting in line.

## **6.4 Self- Check Exercise**

- Define personality.

- Discuss Erikson theory of personality.
- What is the Carl Jung view of personality?

## 6.5 Summary

In this chapter we have studied culture and personality and how culture mould or affect personality. We also have studied different theories (i.e. psychoanalytic theory of G H Mead, theory of individual psychology by Adler, and trait theory by Allport) views of thinkers on personality.

## 6.6 Glossary

- **Heredity**- the process by which physical or mental qualities pass from parent to child.
- **Conflict**- a difference between two or more ideas, wishes.
- **Matter**- a substance made up of various types of particles that occupies physical space and has inertia.

## 6.7 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 6.2
- Refer to section 6.3.2
- Refer to section 6.3.4

## 6.8 Suggested Readings

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## **6.9 Terminal Questions**

1. What do you mean by personality?
2. Explain Sigmund Freud theory of personality. .
3. What is the Erikson view on personality?

## **Chapter-7**

### **Leadership**

#### **STRUCTURE**

7.0 Introduction

7.1 Objectives

7.2 Meaning of Leadership

7.2.1 Characteristics of Leadership

7.2.2 Functions of Leadership

7.2.3 Types of Leadership

7.2.4 Styles or Techniques of Leadership

7.3 Self –Check Exercise

7.4 Summary

7.5 Glossary

7.6 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

7.7 Suggested Readings

7.8 Terminal Questions

#### **7.0 Introduction**

Leadership is a social phenomenon that exists throughout the world. It is seen in one form or the other in every sphere of life. Leadership is a process of influencing the activities of the group for the achievement of set organizational targets. The group member who exerts more positive influence over others is a leader. Any effort of a group member to influence the behaviour of one or more group members is an attempt at leadership. The member of the group who is more open to risky options, influences other members and hence performs leadership functions.

#### **7.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the meaning of leadership.
- Know about the functions of leadership.

- Discuss the types of leadership

## 7.2 Meaning of Leadership

Leadership is the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants. The man who successfully marshals his human collaborators to achieve particular ends is a leader. A great leader is one who can do so day after day, and year after year, in a wide variety of circumstances. He may not possess or display power; force or the threat of harm may never enter into his dealings. He may not be popular; his followers may never do what he wishes out of love or admiration for him. He may not ever be a colourful person; he may never use memorable devices to dramatize the purposes of his group or to focus attention on his leadership. As for the important matter of setting goals, he may be a man of little influence, or even of little skill; as a leader he may merely carry out the plans of others. His *unique* achievement is a human and social one which stems from his understanding of his fellow workers and the relationship of their individual goals to the group goal that he must carry out.

### 7.2.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADER

When you think about some of the leaders in society, whether it is your supervisor, boss at workplace or the politicians for whom you vote, you might find yourself wondering exactly what makes them fit for a leadership position. Social scientists and psychologist have attempted to identify some of the characteristics of a leader. The attributes required to be a leader vary from group to group, place to place, time to time, and situation to situation. The key psychological characteristics of a leader are as follows:

- i. **Integrity and Honesty:** A leader must possess the characteristic of honesty. The importance of honesty should be obvious. Although it may not necessarily be an assessment in member reviews, integrity is essential for the leader and the group. It is incredibly necessary for leader who plan the group's direction and make countless other useful decisions.
- ii. **Communication:** Leadership and successful communication are intertwined. Leader need to be able to communicate in a variety of ways, from transmitting information to coaching the group members. In addition, through occupations, social identities, and more, a wide range of member must be able to listen to, and

communicate with others. The quality and efficacy of communication within group directly affects the effectiveness of group cohesiveness, groupthink and plan, too.

- iii. **Drive and Motivation:** This involves desire, enthusiasm, high energy and strategies for achievement. Many leaders have a strong sense of mission, aim, concentration and dedication.
- iv. **Self-esteem:** To the degree to which a person is at peace with himself and has a good overall assessment of her or his self-worth and skill, any individual is considered appropriate to be a leader. Leaders with high self-esteem respect their followers more. Higher levels of self-confidence can affect those with high self-esteem and this affects their image in the eyes of their followers. Self-esteem can also explain the correlation between certain physical attributes and the emergence of leaders.
- v. **Intelligence:** Either a leader is appointed or elected, intelligence is one of the important attribute of leadership.
- vi. **Empathy:** A leader has enough open-mindedness to understand their followers' motives, dreams, expectations, and challenges so that they can build a profound emotional touch with them.
- vii. **Maturity:** A leader should have a high degree of emotional quotient. She or He needs to maintain her/his temper of calmness. She or He must be highly tolerant. She or He should be open minded to explore fresh ideas. She/ He should be able to look at situations logically.
- viii. **Physical Features:** A leader must have an image that is pleasing. For a good leader, physique and fitness are very important.
- ix. **Sense of responsibility:** To bring a sense of power, responsibility and accountability for the work of a person is very important. A leader must have a sense of accountability for group objectives and only then, in a real sense, will he get full potential exploited. She or He has to motivate himself and arouse and urge herself or himself to give the best of her or his skills for this. Only then can the members motivate the best.

- x. **Vision and foresight:** If leader shows that she or he is forward thinking, a leader can not retain power. Leader needs to imagine scenarios and so logical programmes have to be framed.
- XI. Passion:** Leaders should feel a passion for their work and show it. The buy-in of members would be stronger if their leader indicates that they care for the job they do.
- XII. Influence:** Great leaders will positively affect their workers. Earn the organisation 's confidence and appreciation so that you can inspire them to work hard, stay optimistic and show ingenuity.

### 7.2.2 FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

The role of the leader in a group depends upon the nature, requirement and potentiality of the group as well as the type of leadership. A boss type of leader can function well in an organisation with a hierarchical arrangement of functionaries and members. A charismatic leader may play his role more influentially in a religious group of faithful members. A democratic leader ]nay be more effective in a group with a decentralised power structure. A reformer plays an effective role in guiding and launching movements for a struggle against social evils like alcoholism, untouchability, communal disharmony. and human rights abuse, etc.

By and large, functions of leader are the following:

- i. **As a planner and policy maker** - Thefunction of a leader as the policy maker and planner is very important. He has to develop an appropriate policy. plan, programme and activity either by himself or through a dialogue and discussion with the group members. This may be based on guidelines and orders of the organisational heads or suggestions from the group member. He should be goal-oriented and enable the smooth functioning of the group.
- ii. **As an executive** - A leader shoulders the responsibility of executing the policies of the group and he assigns responsibilities for different tasks to group members.
- iii. **As an expert** - The leader as a specialist in a certain field. provides technical assistance and advice to the group.

- iv. **As a representative** - In a situation where members of the group are not in position to deal directly with other groups or people outside the group, the leader assumes the role of representative of the group in its external relations.
- v. **As a purveyor of reward and punishment** - A leader offers reward for desirable action and punishment for undesired behaviour among the members of the group.
- vi. **As a controller of external relations** - The group leader governs specific details of the group structure and functions as the controller of internal group relations.
- vii. **As an arbitrator and mediator** - The leader may function as a conciliator and judge to resolve intra-group conflict. He has the power to reduce or encourage activities of members in the group.
- viii. **As an exemplar or role model** - Sometimes the leader becomes a model of behaviour for the group members indicating to them what they should be and what they should do.
- ix. **As the symbol of the group** - Sometimes the leader provides cognitive focus for group unity such as the Royal family of Great Britain.
- x. **As the substitute for individual responsibility** - Sometimes the leader plays a role for the individual member relieving him of his responsibility for a personal decision or act that he wishes to avoid. The leader frees the individual from the compulsion of decision-making.
- xi. **As an ideologist** - In some circumstances the leader furnishes the ideology of the group and serves as the source of beliefs, values and norms of the individual members.
- xii. **As a father figure** - The leader may be an ideal object of identification for group members. xiii) **As a scapegoat** - The leader may serve as a target for the aggression of the disappointed, frustrated, and disillusioned group.
- xiii. **Scapegoat:** He may constitute an ideal object for positive rational feelings, so he may serve as a target for the aggressions of the frustrated, disappointed and disillusioned pup and it is the opposite side of the coin, he may be blamed in the event of failure too.



### 7.2.3 Types of leadership

The leadership typology has been classified into various ways, based on the nature displayed by the leaders in influencing the followers. The types of leadership that has been discussed here include feudal, paternal, dictatorial, participatory, developmental, bureaucratic, manipulative, expert type and charismatic type of leadership, which are as follows (Fadia & Fadia, 2006; Sahni & Vayunandan, 2010):

- i. **Feudal Type:** In the feudal type of leadership, the relationship that exists between a leader and follower is that of a lord and his subject. Under this type, the employee of the organization is considered as an essential part of the organization and is given compensation by the leader for performing his/her immediate task.
- ii. **Paternal Type:** In this type of leadership, the leader's relationship with the employee is that of a father and son. Hence, the leadership as per this typology is called as „paternal“ and the employees of the organization are seen as family members. This type of leadership is quite popular in Japan, mainly due to their cultural environment.
- iii. **Dictatorial Type:** When a leader adopts a style, where he/she dictates terms to the employees and demands obedience of the employees in carrying out the orders, the typology is called as „dictatorial“. That is, in this typology, the leader gives out orders and expects the subordinates to carry out the orders rigidly and the employees of the organisation, has completely no role in decision making. However, dictatorship is redundant in the present time and people express their resentment by way of massive resistance, low morale and low productivity.
- iv. **Participatory Type:** In this typology, the leader tends to adopt a flexible approach, wherein the employees of the organisation are allowed to participate in decision making process and the leader rather than passing out orders, just shares his/her vision and ideas to the employees and the decisions are arrived at by having a group discussion. The leader of this kind believes in upbringing of team spirit and cordial atmosphere in the organisation.
- v. **Developmental Type:** Under this typology, the leader feels that it is his/her duty to develop people. The leader considers his/her subordinates to have vast potentialities

for improvement and thus the focus of this leader is laid on promoting the subordinates to highest performances.

- vi. **Bureaucratic Type:** Under this type of leadership, a leader is bound by strict rules and regulations and they expect their employees to follow the procedures in a prompt manner. Bureaucratic style of leadership may be suitable for a routine organisation, where the tasks undertaken by the leader and the employees are routine in nature. Bureaucratic leaders may not be suitable for flexible and large organisations, where the nature of work is quite complex. As per this typology, rules and procedures, decide the way of functioning of employees and no initiation or participation is permitted.
- vii. **Manipulative Type:** According to this typology, the leader manipulates the employees of the organization so as to attain his own personal goals. However, this kind of leadership attitude cannot be exhibited for a long time, as people cannot be exploited on a sustainable basis. Thus, once the employees become aware of such manipulations, resentment sets-in in the organization.
- viii. **Expert Type:** Expert type of leadership is an emerging style of leadership, which evolved as a result of the growing complexities in organizations. The basis for expert leadership is the individual leader's knowledge and ability and he/she assumes the role of a leader regardless of his/her age, sex, physical or other attributes.
- ix. **Charismatic Type:** The term „charisma“ is primarily associated with Max Weber, who states that, “charisma is applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he/she is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, exceptional powers or qualities”. Charismatic leaders are regarded as of divine origin and the recognition of the followers depends upon the demonstration of constant proof, which in turn, augments follower devotion and enthusiasm.

Charismatic leaders are further classified into 5 types, viz. socialized, personalized, office-holder, personal and divine charismatic, which are as follows (Dubrin, 2001):

(i) *Socialized Charismatics:* A socialized charismatic is a leader who uses power only for the benefit of others, rather than using it for private gains. The socialized charismatic formulates and pursues goals that fulfill the needs of group members and provide

intellectual stimulation to them. Followers of socialized charismatics are autonomous, empowered, and responsible;

(ii) *Personalized Charismatics*: Personalized charismatics are leaders who use the powers to a certain extent for personal gains, to serve their own interests. Such leaders impose self-serving goals and they offer support to group members only when it facilitates their own goals. Followers of this type of leader are typically obedient, submissive and dependent;

(iii) *Office-holder Charismatics*: For this type of leader, charismatic leadership is more about the office occupied by him/her rather than his/her personal characteristics. By being a holder of key position, the leaders attain high status; (iv) *Personal Charismatics*: A leader with this quality, often gain very high esteem through the extent to which others have faith in them as people. Irrespective of the high or low status held by this leader, the personal charismatics are able to influence the followers, through their right traits, behaviours and characteristics;

(v) *Divine Charismatics*: A historically important type of charismatic leader is that of the divine charismatic. Such leaders tend to have divine grace and they are considered as magnetic saviour, who would arise to lead people through a crisis.

#### 7.2.4 STYLES OR TECHNIQUES OF LEADERSHIP

There are four major techniques of leadership, which are as follow:

- i. **Autocratic Style**: “Do as I say” is the most illustrative expression of an autocratic leadership style. An autocratic leader usually assumes that she or he is the best individual at any context and better than anyone. With no input from group members, they make all the decisions.
- ii. **Participative Style**: Participative leadership is a form of leadership in which all group members working together for taking decisions. Participative leadership is also known as democratic leadership, where everyone is supposed to participate.
- iii. **Laissez -fair Style**: A laissez-faire leader does not directly apply power over its members under this model of leadership. Since members are highly experienced and require minimal guidance, under her or his supervision, a laissez-faire leader fails to provide members with continuous input. This style of leadership is also related to leaders who do not track their group members, who have not given

ongoing input resulting in high costs , poor service, failure to meet deadlines, loss of control and production.

- iv. ***Narcissistic leadership Style:*** Narcissistic leadership is a form of leadership in which the leader only thinks for herself/ himself. At the detriment of their people / group participants, their focus is themselves. This leader displays the characteristics of a narcissist: arrogance, superiority and aggression.

### 7.3 Self- Check Exercise

- What are the characteristics of leadership?
- Define styles and techniques of leadership.

### 7.4 Summary

This chapter thus introduced you to the leadership style, which is regarded as the pattern of behaviour that characterizes a leader. The concept of leadership style is influenced by many factors such as the personality of the leader and employee, nature of task performed and the nature of environment. Based on such influences, a leader tends to adopt different styles and the style adopted by leaders also depended on the qualities and characteristics of a leader, wherein you were introduced to qualities of leadership as stated by various scholars. Further, leadership typologies ranging from dictatorship to charismatic leadership were discussed.

### 7.5 Glossary

- **Circumstances-** the facts and events that affect what happens in a particular situation.
- **Information-** is stimuli that has meaning in some context for its receiver.
- **Participative Style:** Participative leadership is a form of leadership in which all group members working together for taking decision .
- **work Laissez -fair Style:** A laissez-faire leader does not directly apply power over its members under this model of leadership.

### 7.6 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

- Refer to section 7.2.1
- Refer to section 7.2.4

## **7.7 Suggested Readings**

1. Baron, Robert A. Donn Byrne (2001), Social Psychology, Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., 8th edition, New Delhi.
2. Galina,Andereyeva (1990), Social Psychology, Progress Publishers, Moscow.
3. KrechDaird, and others (1983), Individual in Society, A Text Book of Social Psychology, Mc Graw-Hill International Book Company, Tokyo.
4. Paliwal,Suprithy, (2002), Social Psychology, RBSA Publishers, Jaipur.
5. <https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/19210/1/Unit-31.pdf>

## **7.8 Terminal Questions**

1. Explain leadership.
2. What are the types of leadership?
3. Discuss the styles and techniques of leadership.

## **Chapter-8**

### **THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP**

#### **STRUCTURE**

8.0 Introduction

8.1 Objectives

8.2 Trait Theory of Leadership

8.2.1 Great Man Theory/Trait Theory of Leadership

8.2.2 Situational Theory of Leadership

8.2.3 Functional or Action Theory of Leadership

8.3 Self- Check Exercise

8.4 Summary

8.5 Glossary

8.6 Answers to Self- Check Exercise

8.7 Suggested Readings

8.8 Terminal Questions

#### **8.0 Introduction**

Leadership is an important requirement for social development. We need individuals who can effectively steer groups towards attainment of goals. However, research and experience indicate that good leaders are hard to come by, because of the qualities and abilities leadership demands. One finds individuals with a natural flair for leadership and also individuals who are trained to be leaders. Both the aspects of being a 'born leader' or a 'trained leader' is feasible, according to behavioural scientists. Some authors believe that individuals with substantial experience in working with groups as members (prior to becoming group leaders) are found to excel in leadership tasks. Thus, leadership is an ability that grows out of partaking. While India has had many charismatic leaders, especially in the political arena, in this material we shall be looking at group leaders and their profiles.

Leadership has been defined in different ways by different set of scholars. Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of a vision or set of goals. Keith Davis observes that, "without leadership, an organization is but a muddle of

men and machines...Leadership transforms potential into reality. It is the ultimate act which brings to success all the potential that is in an organization and its people". A person in an organization may assume leadership both in a formal and informal way. By formal leadership we mean to say that a person assumes leadership role, based on the position that he holds in an organization and in such form of leadership, the leader is designated with the title, along with the authority and responsibility to lead the team. In the second form of leadership, a person assumes leadership without any formal sanction of authority and duty. That is, in informal leadership, the ability to influence the group arises outside the formal structure of the organization and people in the organization oblige to such influence even without the formal influence.

We will discuss different types of theories of leadership below.

## **8.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the trait theory of leadership.
- Know about the situational theory of leadership.
- Discuss the functional or action theory of leadership.

## **8.2 Trait Theory of Leadership**

The trait theory of leadership postulates that successful leadership arises from certain inborn personality traits and characteristics that produce consistent behavioural patterns. This line of research emerged as one of the first investigations into the nature of effective leadership. The leadership trait theory is a concept based on the practice of discovering specific personality traits and characteristics proven to lead to successful leadership in various contexts. This theory proposes one of the oldest methods of improving workplace effectiveness and derives its foundation from the "great man theory of leadership" introduced by Thomas Carlyle in the 19th century. According to the leadership trait theory, leaders are born with specific natural characteristics that ensure success in their work duties. This theory also acts as an approach to identify potential leaders by using personality assessments to determine the likelihood of success or failure of a potential leader. Once a person displays traits related to becoming an

effective leader, this theory states that they can get trained to maximise their leadership potential.

## **Leadership Traits**

While the list of leadership traits can vary by whoever is drawing up the list, a recent study outlined behavioural traits that separated lower-level supervisors from higher-level supervisors.

According to the researchers, the traits most commonly associated with great leadership include:

- **Adaptability and flexibility:** Effective leaders don't get stuck in a rut. They are able to think outside of the box and adapt quickly to changing situations.
- **Assertiveness:** A great leader is able to be direct and assertive without coming off as overly pushy or aggressive.
- **Capacity to motivate people:** A great leader knows how to inspire others and motivate them to do their best.
- **Courage and resolution:** The best leaders are brave and committed to the goals of the group. They do not hide from challenges.
- **Creativity:** Perhaps most importantly, great leaders not only possess their own creativity, but they are also able to foster creativity among members of the group.<sup>5</sup>
- **Decisiveness:** A great leader is capable of making a decision and is confident in his or her choices.
- **Eagerness to accept responsibility:** Strong leaders take on responsibility and don't pass the blame on to others. They stand by their success and take ownership of their mistakes.
- **Emotional stability:** In addition to being dependable overall, strong leaders are able to control their emotions and avoid overreactions.
- **Intelligence and action-oriented judgment:** Great leaders are smart and make choices that move the group forward.
- **Need for achievement:** Strong leaders have a need to succeed and help the group achieve goals. They genuinely care about the success of the group and are committed to helping the group reach these milestones.



- **People skills:** Excellent interpersonal skills are essential for leading effectively. Great leaders know how to interact well with other leaders as well as with team members.
- **Perseverance:** Strong leaders stick with it, even when things get difficult or the group faces significant obstacles.
- **Self-confidence:** Many of the best leaders are extremely self-assured. Because they are confident in themselves, followers often begin to share this self-belief.
- **Task competence:** A great leader is skilled and capable. Members of the group are able to look to the leader for an example of how things should be done.
- **Trustworthiness:** Group members need to be able to depend upon and trust the person leading them.
- **Understanding their followers and their needs:** Effective leaders pay attention to group members and genuinely care about helping them succeed. They want each person in the group to succeed and play a role in moving the entire group forward.

### 8.2.1 Great Man Theory/Trait Theory of Leadership

In the beginning, the assumption behind trait theory was that „leaders are born and not made“. This concept was popularly known as the “*Great Man Theory*” of leadership. The great man theory was originally proposed by Thomas Carlyle in 1949 and the assumption behind this theory is that „great leaders will arise, when there is great need“. The theory also assumes that a leader cannot be a normal person and they are different from the average person in terms of personality traits such as intelligence, perseverance and ambition. However, a proposition of „Great Woman“ finds no place, especially in leadership studies mainly due to the fact that gender issues were out of context, when the theory was proposed and moreover, it was only male members of the society who were into such research and such biasness was hardly realized by the people then. In the period of 1960s, various research studies were made on the traits of a leader and about 80 traits that a leader could display was identified. The trait theory assumes that leaders are born with inherited traits and good leaders have the right combination of traits. In 1974, Stogdill identified certain traits and skills that are essential for a leader, which are as follows:

Traits	Skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Adaptable to situations</li> <li>➤ Alert to social environment</li> <li>➤ Ambitious and achievement oriented</li> <li>➤ Assertive</li> <li>➤ Cooperative</li> <li>➤ Decisive</li> <li>➤ Dependable</li> <li>➤ Dominant (desire to influence others)</li> <li>➤ Energetic (high activity level)</li> <li>➤ Persistent</li> <li>➤ Self-confident</li> <li>➤ Tolerant to stress</li> <li>➤ Willing to assume responsibility</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Clever (Intelligent)</li> <li>➤ Conceptually skilled</li> <li>➤ Creative</li> <li>➤ Diplomatic and tactful</li> <li>➤ Fluent in speaking</li> <li>➤ Knowledgeable about group task</li> <li>➤ Organised (administrative ability)</li> <li>➤ Persuasive</li> <li>➤ Socially-skilled</li> </ul>

### Strengths/Advantages of Trait Theory

- It is naturally pleasing theory.
- It is valid as lot of research has validated the foundation and basis of the theory.
- It serves as a yardstick against which the leadership traits of an individual can be assessed.
- It gives a detailed knowledge and understanding of the leader element in the leadership process.

### Limitations of The Trait Theory

- There is bound to be some subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a 'good' or 'successful' leader
- The list of possible traits tends to be very long. More than 100 different traits of successful leaders in various leadership positions have been identified. These descriptions are simply generalities.
- There is also a disagreement over which traits are the most important for an effective leader
- The model attempts to relate physical traits such as, height and weight, to effective leadership. Most of these factors relate to situational factors. For example, a minimum weight and height might be necessary to perform the tasks efficiently in a

military leadership position. In business organizations, these are not the requirements to be an effective leader.

- The theory is very complex

## **Conclusion**

The traits approach gives rise to questions: whether leaders are born or made; and whether leadership is an art or science. However, these are not mutually exclusive alternatives. Leadership may be something of an art; it still requires the application of special skills and techniques. Even if there are certain inborn qualities that make one a good leader, these natural talents need encouragement and development. A person is not born with self-confidence. Self-confidence is developed, honesty and integrity are a matter of personal choice, motivation to lead comes from within the individual, and the knowledge of business can be acquired. While cognitive ability has its origin partly in genes, it still needs to be developed. None of these ingredients are acquired overnight.

## **8.2.2 Contingency /Situational Theories of Leadership**

The three main components of the leadership process are the leader, the follower and the situation. Situational approaches to leadership examine the interplay among these variables in order to find causal relationships that will lead to predictability of behaviour. All situational approaches require the leader to behave in a flexible manner, to be able to diagnose the leadership style appropriate to the situation, and to be able to apply the appropriate style. Although there are many situational models and theories, we will focus on three that have received wide attention in leadership research: Fiedler's Contingency model, the Path-Goal theory, and the Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership model.

### **Fiedler's Contingency Model**

Widely respected as the father of the contingency theory of leadership, Fred Fiedler developed the Leadership Contingency Model. Fiedler's theory views that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style and the degree to which the situation gives control to the leader.

### **Identifying Leadership Style**

According to Fiedler, one of the key factors determining leadership success is the basic individual's basic leadership style. Fiedler created the least preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire to measure whether a person is task-oriented or relationship-oriented. The LPC questionnaire containing sets of 16 contrasting adjectives such as pleasant-unpleasant, efficient-inefficient, was used to determine the leadership styles. Fiedler stated that leaders with high LPC scores are *relationship oriented* they need to develop and maintain close interpersonal relationships. In contrast, leaders with low LPC scores are *task-oriented*, and tend to evaluate the individuals with whom they least like to work negatively.

### **The Situational Factor**

Fiedler's theory viewed leader behaviour as dependent upon the interaction of the leader's personality and the needs of the situation. The needs of the situation or how favourable the situation is toward the leader is determined by three major situational variables leader member relationships, the degree of task structure, and the leader's position power.

*Leader-member relations* are the feelings and attitudes of followers regarding acceptance, trust, and credibility of the leader. It refers to degree of the group's acceptance of the leader.

*Task structure* means the degree to which work is defined with specific procedures, explicit directions, and goals.

*Position power* is the degree of formal authority and influence associated with the position.

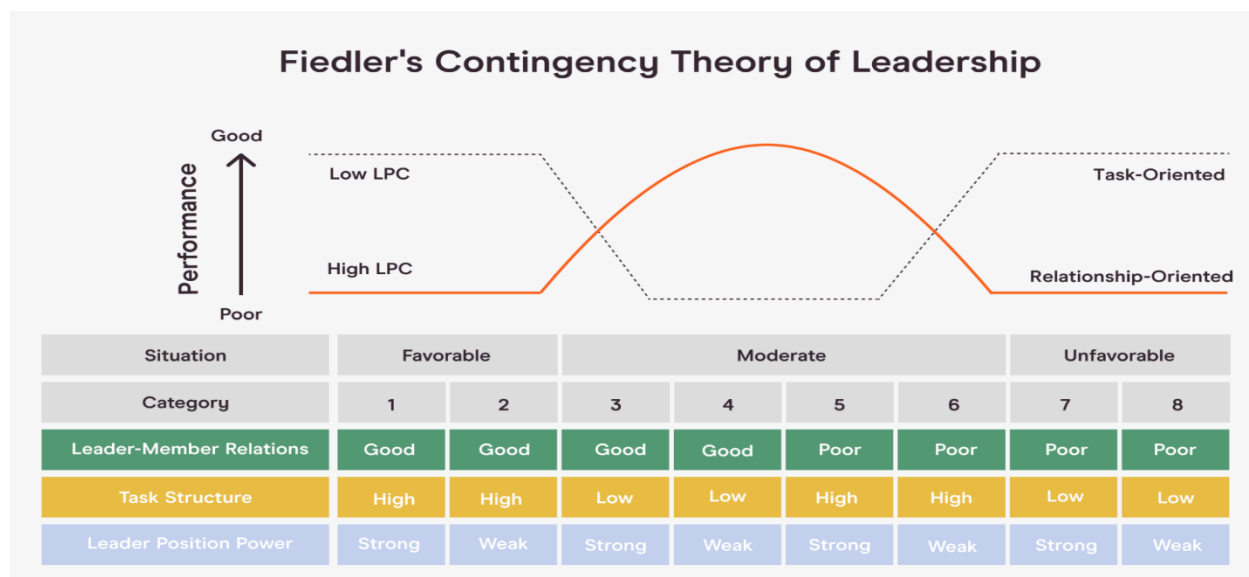
Fiedler defined the favourableness of a situation as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over the group. The situation is most favourable for a leader when the relationship between the leader and group members is good, when the task is highly structured, and when the leader's position power is strong (Cell I). The least favourable situation occurs under poor leader-member relations, an unstructured task, and weak position power (Cell VIII).

### **Leader-Situation Matches**

Some combinations of leaders and situations work well; others do not. In search of the best combinations, Fiedler examined a large number of leadership situations. He

argued that most leaders have a relatively unchangeable or dominant style, so organisations need to design job situations to fit the leader. While the model has not been fully tested, and tests have often produced mixed or contradictory findings, Fiedler's research indicates that relationship-oriented (high LPC) leaders are much more effective under conditions of intermediate favourability than under either highly favourable or highly unfavourable situations. Fiedler attributes the success of relationship oriented leaders in situations with intermediate favourability to the leader's nondirective, permissive attitude. For highly favourable and unfavourable situations, task-oriented leaders (those with a low LPC) are very effective. As tasks are accomplished, a task-oriented leader allows the group to perform its highly structures tasks without imposing more task-directed behaviour. The job gets done without the need for the leader's direction. Under unfavourable conditions, task-oriented behaviours, such as setting goals, detailing work methods, and guiding and controlling work behaviours, move the group toward task accomplishment. (Pierce, Gardner and Dunham, 2008).

### Fiedler's Contingency Model Leader-Situation Matches



### 8.2.3 Functional leadership model

Functional leadership theory (Hackman & Walton, 1986; McGrath, 1962) is particularly useful theory for addressing specific leader behaviours expected to contribute to

organizational or unit effectiveness. This theory argues that the leader's main job is to see that whatever is necessary to group needs is taken care of; thus, a leader can be said to have done their job well when they have contributed to group effectiveness and cohesion.

Functional theories of leadership are developed by studying successful leaders and identifying the actions and behaviours they show. Large studies with lots of data make it possible to correlate what leaders actually do, i.e., their actions or functions with their successful results. In the Functional Leadership model, leadership does not rest with one person but rests on a set of behaviours by the group that get things done. Any member of the group can perform these behaviours, so any member can participate in leadership. The Functional theory of leadership, places greater emphasis on how an organisation or task is being led rather than who has been formally assigned a leadership role.

One of the best known and most influential of functional theories of leadership, used in many leadership development programmes, is John Adair's "Action-Centred Leadership". John Adair developed a model of Action-Centred Leadership has connecting circles that overlap because:

- the task can only be performed by the team and not by one person.
- the team can only achieve excellent task performance if all the individuals are fully developed.
- the individuals need the task to be challenged and motivated.

Adair's model challenged trait theory by focusing on what leaders do. He showed that leadership could be taught and did not depend on the traits a person had.



## John Adair 's Action Centred Leadership Model

### The 8 Functions of Leadership

Adair noted the following 8 key functions for which team leaders are responsible. (Examples are given in brackets)

1. **Identify and evaluate the task:** using SMART goals (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-Constrained) to set a clear objective.
2. **Planning:** Identify and evaluate the requirements of the task using an open minded, positive approach. Contingencies should be planned for and plans should be tested.
3. **Communicate:** these to the group and gain their commitment for example via Team Briefings. This will create the right atmosphere, foster team-work and motivate everyone.
4. **Controlling:** Leaders need self-control, good control systems in place and effective delegation and monitoring skills in order to get maximum results from minimum resources.
5. **Evaluating:** Assess consequences, evaluate progress of the whole group, appraise and train individuals
6. **Motivate,** including feedback to the group and support, praise, encourage individuals.
7. **Organising:** able to organise themselves and their team
8. **Setting an example:** The best leaders naturally set a good example. If effort needs to be made it will slip and a bad example is noticed more than a good example

### Criticism of the Model

Some people consider Adair's Three Circles Model too simplistic and to be outdated as it was developed in the 1970s.

### Implications for the nature versus nurture debate

This question of whether leaders are born or made is part of the whole question of whether human behaviour is due to nature or nurture. It is a short leap from functional leadership theory, to the belief that if one person can do something, then others can also learn to do it. The implication that leaders are made and not necessarily born with the necessary traits for leadership, opened the possibility of leadership development.

### 8.3 Self- Check Exercise

- Define great man theory of leadership.
- What is the situational theory of leadership?

### 8.4 Summary

Leadership is an important concept for understanding group behaviour. The early researches tried to identify the traits of effective leaders. The behavioural theories identified the task-oriented and people-oriented leadership styles. A breakthrough in the understanding of leadership came with the contingency theories of leadership. The contingency theories established the fact the leadership process is a function of leaders, followers, and situations. Leadership plays a key role in showing the right direction to his/her employees in achieving the goals of an organization. The various theories of leadership viz. traits theory, behavioural and situational theories offer useful insights in understanding the different dimensions of leadership styles.

### 8.5 Glossary

- **Adaptability and flexibility:** Effective leaders do not get stuck in a rut. They are able to think outside of the box and adapt quickly to changing situations.
- **Assertiveness:** A great leader is able to be direct and assertive without coming off as overly pushy or aggressive
- **Leader-member relations:** are the feelings and attitudes of followers regarding acceptance, trust, and credibility of the leader. It refers to degree of the group's acceptance of the leader.
- **Task structure:** means the degree to which work is defined with specific procedures, explicit directions, and goals.
- **Position power:** is the degree of formal authority and influence associated with the position.

### 8.6 Answers to Self –Check Exercise

- Refer to section 8.2.1
- Refer to section 8.2.2



## **8.7 Suggested Readings**

- 9 Robbins & Judge: Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, 2007, PHI
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- 15 <https://peopledecisions.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/Adair-Action-Centered-Leadership-Summary.pdf>
- 16 <https://www.vedantu.com/commerce/contingency-approach-to-leadership>

## **8.8 Terminal Questions**

1. Critically examine the Fiedler's contingency model.
2. Write an essay on theory of leadership
3. Explain John Adair 's functional theory of leadership.

## **Chapter-9**

### **Motivation- Function and Types**

#### **STRUCTURE**

9.0 Introduction

9.1 Objectives

9.2 Motivation

9.2.1 Natures of motivation

9.2.2 Functions of motivation

9.2.3 Types of motivation

9.3 Self Check Exercise

9.4 Summary

9.5 Glossary

9.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

9.7 Suggested Readings

9.8 Terminal Questions

#### **9.0 Introduction**

We tested a theoretical-conceptual model that introduced our recently developed psychological concept, termed as psychological processes, which is defined as “a person’s continuing frame of mind to focus on disposition toward strong resolute, structured thoughts and organization, and aspiration to strive for educational success.” This proposition is innovative as it considers the notion that a person’s mindset is malleable and, importantly, subjects to social experiences derived from a situated social context. Moreover, from our definition, we contend that psychological processes, as a

distinct construct, is “latent,” or underlying, with three comparable Even the simplest human activities involve complex psychological processing.

## **9.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to know

Understand the motivation.

Analyse the function of motivation.

Know about types of motivation.

## **9.2 Motivation**

Motivation may be defined as the complex of forces inspiring a person at work to intensify his willingness to use his maximum capabilities for the achievement of certain objectives. Motivation is something that motivates a person into action and induces him to continue in the course of action enthusiastically. It determines the behaviour of a person at work.

According to Dalton E. McFarland "Motivation refers to the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, striving, or needs direct, control or explain the behaviour of human being."

The term 'motivation' is derived from the word 'motive'. Motive may be defined as needs, wants, drives or impulses within the individual. Motives are expressions of a person's needs and hence they are personal and internal. In this context, the term 'need' should not be associated with urgency or any pressing desire for something. It simply means something within an individual that prompts him to action. Motives or needs are 'whys' of behaviour. They start and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the person. Motives give direction to human behaviour because they are directed towards certain 'goals' which may be conscious or sub-conscious.

Motives or needs of a person are the starting point in the motivation process. Motives are directed towards the achievement of certain goals which in turn determine the behaviour of individuals. This behaviour ultimately leads to goal directed activities such

as preparing food and a goal activity such as eating food. In other words, unsatisfied needs result in tension within an individual and engage him in search for the way to relieve this tension. He will develop certain goals for himself and try to achieve them. If he is successful in his attempt, certain other needs will emerge which will lead to setting a new goal. But if he is unsuccessful he will engage himself in either constructive or defensive behaviour. This process keeps on working within an individual.

### 9.2.1 Natures of Motivations

Motivation helps in inspiring and encouraging the people to work willingly.

1. **Motives are the energising forces within us:** These forces are invisible and it is very difficult to measure them, because all of us are different and the motives energising us at a point differ from time to time. All that is possible is to observe and measure the behaviour we choose and from this behaviour make a kind of backward causation statement to the possible motive. Observing someone's behaviour may indicate that a certain need is present in this person, motivating him onward.
2. **One motive may result in many different behaviours:** The desire for prestige may lead a person to run for political office, give money away, get additional educational training, steal, join groups or may change his outward appearance. A person wanting acceptance will behave differently in a car pool, office secretarial pool, or swimming pool.
3. **The same behaviour may result from many different motives:** Behaviour may be caused by a number of different motives. For instance the motives underlying purchase of a car may be: to appear younger and attractive; to appear respectable; to gain acceptance from others; to maintain the acceptance already gained through a similar income level; to satisfy economic values and to reinforce company created status differentials. Thus it would be wrong for the manager of an organisation to lump all behaviour as coming from the same motive people join unions, get married, attend class, laugh at professor's jokes for many different reasons (motives). Thus a motive cannot be identified from any specific behaviour.

- 4. Behaviour can be used as an estimate of an individual's motives:** It is possible to get repeated observations of one individual's behaviour and then make an estimate of the cause of that behaviour. For example, there is truth in the statement that some people always seem to feel insecure and thus behave continuously in a manner reflecting the insecurity of feeling. There are also people who behave in a way that radiates confidence. They are confident in many different social settings so that one finds a constant and 28 repeated behaviour from which people probably estimate the motive of the person. Obviously, if a person is at a state of near starvation, most of his behaviour will be related to the need for food. Although it is dangerous to categorise people, it is also wrong to believe that individual behaviour, when looked at in a time perspective, cannot be used as an estimate for motivation.

### **9.2.2 Functions of Motivation**

The following factors contribute to the significance of the function of motivation:

1. Managers and organizational researchers cannot avoid a concern with the behaviour requirements of an organisation. Every organisation needs people (in addition to physical and financial resources) in order to function.
2. Motivation as a concept is pervasive and a highly complex activity that affects and is affected by a host of factors in the organizational milieu.
3. Organisational effectiveness becomes to some degree a question of management's ability to motivate its employees, to direct at least a reasonable effort toward the goals of the organisation.
4. As technology increases in complexity, machines tend to become necessary, but insufficient vehicles, of effective and efficient operations. In other words, it becomes necessary for an organisation to ensure that it has employees who are both capable of using and willing to use the advanced technology to achieve organizational goals.

Many organisations are now beginning to pay increasing attention to developing their employees as future resources (for talent bank) upon which they can draw as they grow and develop.

### **9.2.3 Types of Motivation**

Another place motivation plays a key role is in education. A teacher who implements motivational techniques will see an increased participation, effort, and higher grades. Part of the teacher's job is to provide an environment that is motivationally charged. This environment accounts for students who lack their own internal motivation. One of the first places people begin to set goals for themselves is in school. School is where we are most likely to learn the correlation between goals, and the definition of motivation. That relationship between these factors leads to success. Following are the types of motivation

#### **Primary or Basic Motivation**

This mainly pertains to motives involved with our need for self preservation. This includes needs such as hunger and thirst, warmth, sex, avoidance of pain and other primary motives which influence a person's behaviour at a very basic level.

#### **Secondary Motivation**

More known in psychology as "learned" motivation, this type of "drives" differs from one person to another. In many ways they involve a person's own sense of values and priorities in life.

Many of the behaviours derived from secondary motivation are conscious ones. That is, a person consciously desires a particular goal or result, and behaves in a way that brings them closer to that particular goal. What drives them to do something or to act in a particular way is the longing for something which they currently do not have or possess. This kind of motivation generally falls into two basic types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

## **Extrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic motivation refers to motivation that comes from outside an individual. The motivating factors are external, or outside, rewards such as money or grades. These rewards provide satisfaction and pleasure that the task itself may not provide.

An extrinsically motivated person will work on a task even when they have little interest in it because of the anticipated satisfaction they will get from some reward. The rewards can be something as minor as a smiley face to something major like fame or fortune. For example, an extrinsically motivated person who dislikes math may work hard on a math equation because he wants the reward for completing it. In the case of a student, the reward would be a good grade on an assignment or in the class.

Extrinsic motivation does not mean, however, that a person will not get any pleasure from working on or completing a task. It just means that the pleasure they anticipate from some external reward will continue to be a motivator even when the task to be done holds little or no interest. An extrinsically motivated student, for example, may dislike an assignment, may find it boring, or may have no interest in the subject, but the possibility of a good grade will be enough to keep the student motivated in order for him or her to put forth the effort to do well on a task.

Extrinsic motivation is likely to involve the concept of rewarded behaviour. Thus, by engaging in a particular type of activity or behaving in a particular manner, you are “rewarded” by a desired end result.

For instance, you are motivated to save money for a vacation. Hence, you resist the urge to make impulsive purchases and in general become more discriminating in how you spend your money. After a time you find that you have a steadily growing amount of savings which you set aside. When you find that you have saved enough for that trip, you utilize your savings for the intended purpose and go on vacation. The external motivation is the vacation, which is also the reward for your act of saving for it.

## **Intrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that comes from inside an individual rather than from any external or outside rewards, such as money or grades.

The motivation comes from the pleasure one gets from the task itself or from the sense of satisfaction in completing or even working on a task.

An intrinsically motivated person will work on a math equation, for example, because it is enjoyable. Or an intrinsically motivated person will work on a solution to a problem because the challenge of finding a solution provides a sense of pleasure. In neither case does the person work on the task because there is some reward involved, such as a prize, a payment, or in the case of students, a grade.

Intrinsic motivation does not mean, however, that a person will not seek rewards. It just means that such external rewards are not enough to keep a person motivated. An intrinsically motivated student, for example, may want to get a good grade on an assignment, but if the assignment does not interest that student, the possibility of a good grade is not enough to maintain that student's motivation to put any effort into the project.

Intrinsic motivation is the opposite of extrinsic motivation. That latter type of motivation comes from outside of you. But intrinsic motivation comes from within the individual.

So to understand the examples of intrinsic motivation, it helps to think of it as inspiration. But we could say that extrinsic motivation is almost equal to "instigation" instead.

You see, when you are extrinsically motivated, you are doing something that you may very well not want to do, or not be all that interested in. What you're doing is like a chore. But examples of intrinsic motivation will always be labours of love.

Perhaps you are studying something in college that you really find boring or just do not care about, but you do want to get good grades. Or, perhaps you take a job in sales because there is potential for some very high commissions, but you actually hate sales. These are instances of extrinsic motivation. Sometimes, most of us must admit, we also



do not do things that we would like to do, because doing so would mean we broke the law and we could be penalized for that. For instance, not driving our car as fast as we may like is a good example of this. This avoidance would be extrinsic motivation as well.

So, examples of intrinsic motivation would be quite different from these. Some of these are given below: i) Studying something on your own because you desire to know that subject matter. You may not be doing this for any class or for any grade.

ii) Starting your own online business because you love the particular products that are in your target market. Even though you are hoping to make money this way, you are motivated by your desire to build a business that you can be proud of and immerse yourself in.

iii) Competing “against yourself” in a sport just because you want to get better at it. You may not be doing it to win any trophies, or trying to become a professional athlete.

iv) Writing poetry to express your innermost thoughts and feelings, even though you may not be attempting to sell a book or publish for money.

v) Doing something just because you think it is the right thing to do, and not because you hope to get a reward or avoid punishment.

Now as the above examples of intrinsic motivation show, you might be doing something in the hope of winning awards, earning money, or getting a good grade in a class. However, unlike with extrinsic motivation, earning money etc is not the primary motivation.

Intrinsic motivation always involves a person to do something that the person desires to do for his own self. The person would do it even if he or she were not going to be paid, get an award, or get a grade for it.

Understanding intrinsic motivation can help the person escape a life or career of drudgery and misery, as the person seeks out ways of earning money that he or she also enjoys doing. A person may not take that sales job that he hates but for the fact that he needs money and he can earn the money by taking up that sales job.

If a person is a teacher, he or she can find ways of keeping the subject very vibrant, active and interesting for the students, thereby getting them more immersed in learning instead of just memorising things to pass a test and then forgetting them later. As is well known it has been seen that motivational speakers use plenty of inspirational quotes about life to help bring out this intrinsic motivation from within the persons to whom they are lecturing.

Intrinsic motivation is basically “what people will do without external inducement”. In simple terms, it is motivation devoid of any external or outside rewards, such as money or grades. If a person has intrinsic motivation, he would do a task simply for the pleasure or satisfaction in doing and completing that task. However, it does not mean that an individual will not seek rewards if he has intrinsic motivation. An intrinsically motivated person acknowledges the perk of rewards, but these rewards are not enough to keep that person motivated. In other words, with or without the reward, the person will continue to do the task, for as long as he has interest or believes in it.

If you can make someone align his values to yours, thus giving him an internal desire for the idea or value, you can set a very powerful motivation in the area. That is the power

of intrinsic motivation. Plus, unlike extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation lasts longer because desires take time to be extinguished.

### **The Difference between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**

Motivation provides insight into why we may behave the way we do. Motivation is an internal process that reflects the desire to achieve certain goals. As discussed earlier, motivation can be divided into two basic types: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation reflects the desire to do something because it is enjoyable. If we are intrinsically motivated, we would not be worried about external rewards such as praise or awards. If we are intrinsically motivated, the enjoyment we experience would be sufficient for us to want to perform the activity in the future.

Extrinsic motivation on the other hand reflects the desire to do something because of external rewards such as awards, money, and praise. People who are extrinsically motivated may not enjoy certain activities. They may only wish to engage in certain activities because they wish to receive some external reward.

### **Other Types of Motivation**

Motivation involves the basic psychological reasons for a person's actions and behaviour. These are the forces or factors that cause a person to act a certain way or to behave in the manner that they do. There are various types of motivations that can influence a person. These include the following:

#### **Achievement Motivation**

This is the motivation of a person to attain goals. The longing for achievement is inherent in every man, but not all persons look to achievement as their motivation. They are motivated by a goal. In order to attain that goal, they are willing to go as far as possible. The complexity of the goal is determined by a person's perception. To us, the terms "simple" and "complex" are purely relative. What one person thinks is an easy goal to accomplish may seem to be impossible to another person. However, if your motivation is achievement, you will find that your goals will grow increasingly complex as time goes by. It is the drive to pursue and attain goals. An individual with achievement motivation wishes to achieve objectives and advance up on the ladder of success. Here, accomplishment is important for its own sake and not for the rewards that accompany it.

Hunger, sex, aggression-these are motives we share with many other forms of life. There are some motives, however, that appear to be unique to our own species. Achievement motivation (often termed as need for motivation) is the desire to accomplish difficult tasks and to excel. Individuals differ greatly in the desire for achievement is obvious. For some persons, accomplishing difficult tasks and meeting high standards of excellence are extremely important; whereas for others, just getting by is quite enough. Persons high in achievement differ from persons low in this motive in other respects too. Persons high in achievement motivation tend to prefer tasks that

are moderately difficult and challenging. The reason why they tend to avoid very easy tasks is that such tasks don't pose enough challenge to the persons with high in achievement motivation. These persons prefer difficult tasks because chance of failing on extremely difficult tasks is too high, and such persons want success above everything else.

Another characteristics of persons high in achievement motivation is that they have a stronger-than-average desire for feedback on their performance. They want to know how well they are doing so they can adjust their goals to make these challenging – but not impossible. Because of this desire for feedback, persons high in achievement motivation tend to prefer jobs in which rewards are closely related to individual performance –merit based pay system.

### **Successful Motivated Behaviour**

Good and effective actions or behaviour usually involves the harmonizing of these two types of motivation. If one is driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, then inner conflict is reduced and a person is more likely to devote uninterrupted and harmonious actions towards a particular task.

The inner and external rewards too, are good reinforcing mechanisms. For many people, this is really the means towards success. By choosing goals that you desire – both in its intrinsic and extrinsic rewards - you can harmonize your own actions and devote your energies to your goals. In such instances, the chances of achievement increases greatly.

### **Self Enhancement Motivation**

If you believe the task at hand will increase your character, advent or monetary condition and these self-improvements are vastly desirable to you, you will encounter significant motivation to perform even unpleasant parts of the process necessary to reach the goal. How desirable the end improvements are to you will determine the level of motivation you will encounter.

### **Affiliation Motivation**

It is a drive to relate to people on a social basis. Persons with affiliation motivation perform work better when they are complimented for their favourable attitudes and co-operation.

### **Socialisation**

Some people consider socialisation to be their main motivation for actions. This is especially evident in the situation of peer pressure. Some people are willing to do anything to be treated as an equal within a group structure. The idea of being accepted among a group of people is their motivation for doing certain things.

### **Competence Motivation**

It is the drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high quality work. Competence motivated people seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles. They learn from their experience. **Power Motivation**

It is the drive to influence people and change situations. Power motivated people wish to create an impact on their organisation and are willing to take risks to do so.

### **Attitude Motivation**

Attitude motivation is how people think and feel. It is their self confidence, their belief in themselves, their attitude to life. It is how they feel about the future and how they react to the past.

### **Change Motivation**

Sometimes people do things just to bring about changes within their immediate environment. Change motivation is often the cause of true progress. People just become tired of how things are and thus, think of ways to improve it.

### **Incentive Motivation**

This motivation involves rewards. People who believe that they will receive rewards for doing something are motivated to do everything they can to reach a certain goal. While achievement motivation is focused on the goal itself, incentive motivation is driven by

the fact that the goal will give people benefits. Incentive motivation is used in companies through bonuses and other types of compensation for additional work.

By offering incentives, companies hope to raise productivity and motivate their employees to work harder. It is where a person or a team reaps a reward from an activity.

It is “You do this and you get that”, attitude. It is the types of awards and prizes that drive people to work a little harder.

### **Fear Motivation**

When incentives do not work, people often turn to fear and punishment as the next tools. Fear motivation involves pointing out various consequences if someone does not follow a set of prescribed behaviour. This is often seen in companies as working hand-in-hand with incentive motivation. Workers are often faced with a reward and punishment system, wherein they are given incentives if they accomplish a certain goal, but they are given punishments when they disobey certain policies.

Fear motivation coerces a person to act against will. It is instantaneous and gets the job done quickly. It is helpful in the short run.

### **Aggressive Motivation**

Aggressive motivation or the desires to inflict harm on others, play an all too common role in human behaviour. While human beings don't always express aggressive motivation overtly (often they simply fantasize about such behaviour), they often do engage in various forms of aggression against others-effort to harm them in some manner.

Most psychologists believe that aggression is elicited by a wide range of external events and stimuli. In other words, it is often “pulled” from without rather than “pushed” or driven from within by irresistible, perhaps inherited tendencies. The incidence of aggression suggest that such behaviour is strongly influenced by social and cultural factors, and that even it stems in part from innate tendencies, these are less important than social conditions and other factors. This is not to imply that biological or genetic

factors play no role in human aggression, but most experts agree that aggression is influenced more strongly by a wide range of situational factors that evoke its occurrence and shape its form and targets than by inherited tendencies or mechanisms.

### 9.3 Self Check Exercise

- Define motivation.
- What are the functions of motivation?
- What are the types of motivation?

### 9.4 Summary

Motivation may be defined as the complex of forces inspiring a person at work to intensify his willingness to use his maximum capabilities for the achievement of certain objectives. Motives or needs of a person are the starting point of the motivation process. Motives are energising, invisible forces. One motive may result in many different behaviours. Also the same behaviour may result from many different motives. Behaviour can be used as an estimate of an individual's motive. Motives can operate in harmony or in conflict. Motives change over time. Motives can also interact with the environment.

### 9.5 Glossary

- **Behaviour:** Behaviour refers to the series of activities undertaken by an individual or a group with a view to achieving stated goals.
- **Need:** it is something thought to be a necessity or essential items required for life.

### 9.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 9.2
- Refer to section 9.2.2
- Refer to Section 9.2.3

### 9.7 Suggested Readings

1. Baron, R.A. (2010). Introduction to Psychology. Wadsworth Publishing Co., NJ
2. Harold F. Oneil ad Michael Drillings (Eds).(1994). Motivation: Theory and Research.
3. Laurence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey Fowler, H (2008). Curiosity and Exploratory Behaviour. Open library, New York. Morgan, C.T. and King, R.A. (2010).(11th edition) Introduction to Psychology. McGraw Hill, New Delhi

## **9.8 Terminal Questions**

1. Define motivation. What are the natures of motivation?
2. What are the functions of motivation?
3. What are the types of motivation?



## **Chapter-10**

### **Motivation- Theories and Human Behaviour**

#### **STRUCTURE**

- 10.0 Introduction
- 10.1 Objectives
- 10.2 Theories of motivation
- 10.3 Motivation and Human Behavior
- 10.4 Self Check Exercise
- 10.5 Summary
- 10.6 Glossary
- 10.7 Answers to Self Check Exercise
- 10.8 Suggested Readings
- 10.9 Terminal Questions

#### **10.0 Introduction**

Motivation is a general term applied to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces. To say that managers motivate their subordinates is to say that they do those things which they hope will satisfy these drives and desires and induce the subordinates to act in a desired manner. Many people know motivation as the driving force behind an action. This is probably the simplest explanation about motivation. Motivation can be considered the state of having encouragement to do something.

Motivation involves the basic psychological reasons for a person's actions and behaviour. These are the forces or factors that cause a person to act in a certain way or to behave in the manner that they do.

Motivation refers to the drive and efforts to satisfy a want or goal, whereas satisfaction refers to the contentment experienced when a want is satisfied. In contrast, inspiration

is bringing about a change in the thinking pattern. On the other hand Manipulation is getting the things done from others in a predetermined manner.

To motivate others is the most important of management tasks. It comprises the abilities to communicate, to set an example, to challenge, to encourage, to obtain feedback, to involve, to delegate, to develop and train, to inform, to brief and to provide a just reward.

Many people know motivation as the driving force behind an action. This is probably the simplest explanation about motivation. Motivation can be considered the state of having encouragement to do something.

Why do people do what they do? Why do we go on everyday, living our lives and trying to find justification for our existence? Some people think that they can find purpose in the things that motivate them. Others just see the motivation and react automatically. There is no one thing that motivates people to perform certain actions. People are different, so it follows that their motivations have to be different.

A common place where we see the need to apply motivation is in the work place. In the work place, we can see motivation play a key role, for example in leadership success. A person unable to grasp motivation or apply it in the work situation, will not become a leader or stay as a leader for much time.

## **10.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the theories of motivation.
- Know about the motivation and behaviour.

## **10.2 Theories of Motivation**

Theories of motivation generally aim at analyzing the process of motivation and indicating how to motivate people. We shall discuss here three well known theories of motivation. These are Mc George participation theory; Maslow need priority theory and Herzberg's two factor theory.

## **McGregor's Participation Theory**

'Douglas McGregor's formulated two sets of assumptions about human beings based on the participation of workers. The first set of assumptions is contained in Theory X and the second set of assumptions is contained in 'Theory Y'. In the Theory X, McGregor proceeds with the assumption that the average human being has inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can. The managers, of such employees think that "most people must be coerced, contributed, directed, threatened with punishment to get them put forth adequate efforts towards the achievement of organizational objectives." Theory X presumes that people by nature:

1. Lack integrity
2. Are fundamentally lazy and desire to work as little as possible.
3. Avoid responsibility.
4. Are not interested in achievement.
5. Are incapable of directing their own behaviour.
6. Are indifferent to organizational needs.
7. Prefer to be directed by others. 8
8. Avoid making decision whenever possible. 9
9. Are not very bright.

McGregor described Theory X as the traditional theory of what workers is like and what management must do to manage them. Workers have to be persuaded and pushed into performance; Workers can be made to work only through autocratic leadership. After describing Theory X, McGregor questioned if this view of human behaviour is correct. He propounded theory Y which, he felt better represents the human behaviour. Under theory Y it is assumed that people by nature:

1. Have integrity.
2. Work hard towards objectives to which they are committed.
3. Assume responsibility within their commitments.
4. Desire to achieve.
5. Are capable of directing their own behaviour.

6. Want their organisation to succeed.
7. Are not passive and submassive.
8. Will make decisions within their commitments.

In developing theory Y, McGregor made the following assumptions:

1. Engaging in physical and mental efforts - as, natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only mean of defecting efforts towards organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives follows the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards namely satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be the direct result of efforts towards organizational objectives.'
4. The average human being learns under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition and emphasis on security are generally consequences of experience and not inherent human characteristics.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised.

The assumptions of McGregor's theory Y suggest a new approach to management. It lays greater emphasis on cooperation between management and workers. The managers following this theory aim at getting maximum output with minimum degree of control. Generally, no conflict is visible between the organizational goals and individual goals. Thus, the efforts of employees which are in their best interest are also in the interest of the organisation. Theory Y has proved to be useful in such management practices as job enrichment, decentralisation and participative management. However these techniques are applicable in organisations where self-motivated, self-controlled

mature and responsible people work. According to McGregor, researches in the behavioural sciences have shown. That the assumptions of theory Y are more valid than the practices of theory X.

Appraisal: McGregor's contribution should be analysed in the proper perspective. All that he postulated and sought to dramatise through his theory X and theory Y is to outline the extremes to draw the fencing within which the organizational or enterprise man is seen to behave. No enterprise man would belong either to theory X or theory Y. He shares the traits of both, with emphasis shifting from one set of properties to the other with changing moods and impulses (needs and motives) and with the varying environment.

The chief merit of McGregor's formulation is that it helped to crystallise and set the right perspective to the findings of Elton Mayo, which had then puzzled management and productivity experts and set in motion a wave of research into the behaviour of the enterprise man. It (along with Hawthorne Studies) can be said to have been the starting point and mainspring that evoked wide and lasting interest in the area of motivation, leadership and techniques of manipulating behaviour of the human element of the enterprise.

One might get the impression that theory X is bad and theory Y is good. This is not true because the assumptions under these theories are attitudes or predispositions of managers towards people. They are not behaviour patterns. Thus, although the 'best' assumptions for a manager to have may be theory Y, it may not be advisable to behave consistently with these assumptions about human nature, but he may find it necessary to behave in a very directive manner (as if he had theory X assumptions) with some people in the short-run to help to be mature and self-motivated as per Y.

### **Maslow's Need Priority Theory**

Maslow's theory is based on the needs of people. Maslow was of the view that the process of motivation begins with behaviour which at least in part, is directed towards the satisfaction of needs. He proposed that human needs can be arranged in a particular order from the lower to the higher.

**1 Physiological need:** The needs that are taken as the starting point of motivation theory are the physiological needs. These needs relate to the survival and maintenance of human life. These needs include such things as food, clothing, shelter, air, water and other necessities of life. These needs must be met at least partly before higher level needs emerge. They exert tremendous influence on behavior. They are the most powerful of motivating stimuli. Therefore, we must satisfy most of them for survival.

**2 Safety and security needs:** After satisfying the physiological needs, people want the assurance of maintaining a given economic level. These needs include job security, personal security, security of the income, provision for old age, insurance against risks, etc.

**3 Social needs:** Man is a social being. He is, therefore, interested in conversation, social P interaction, exchange of feelings, companionship, recognition, belongingness, etc. Socialising is one of those reasons why many individuals (especially older people) go to work, and why people generally work better in small groups where they can develop affiliations that are important to them.

**4. Esteem and status needs:** These are concerned with awareness of self importance and recognition from others. Most people feel this need to be rated higher than other needs and seek recognition and respect on that account. Satisfaction of esteem needs produces feelings of self-confidence, prestige, power, and control. The fulfilment of esteem needs leads to self confidence strength and capability of being useful in the organisation. Whereas inability to fulfil these needs results in feelings of inferiority, weakness and helplessness.

**5 Self-Actualisation needs:** The final step under the need priority model is the need for self-actualisation also called self fulfilment or the need to fulfil what one's potentialities for continued self-development and for being creative in the broadest sense of that term. After his other needs are fulfilled, a man has the desire for personal achievement. He wants to do something which is challenging and since this challenge gives him enough dash and initiative to work, it is beneficial to him in particular and to the society in general. The sense of achievement gives him satisfaction.

Maslow felt that the needs have a definite sequence of domination. The second need does not dominate until the first is reasonably satisfied, and the third need does not dominate until the first two needs have been reasonably satisfied and so on. The other side of the need hierarchy is that man is never satisfied. If one need is satisfied another need arises. According to Maslow, if one's lower order needs (physiological and security needs) are not satisfied, he can be motivated only by satisfying these needs first and not by satisfying the higher order needs. Further, once a need or a certain order of needs is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivating factor.

The physiological and security needs are finite, but the needs of higher order are sufficiently infinite and are likely, to be dominant in persons at higher levels in the organisation. Studies have also revealed that those needs which are thought to be most important like social needs, ego needs and self-realisation needs are also the best satisfiers.

Do needs follow a hierarchy

The need priority model may not apply at all times in all places. Surveys in continental European countries and Japan have shown that the model does not apply very well to their managers. The degree of satisfaction of needs does not vary according to the need priority model. For example, workers in Spain and Belgium felt that their esteem needs are better satisfied than their security and social needs. Apparently, cultural differences are an important cause of these differences. Thus, need hierarchy may not follow the sequence postulated by Maslow. Even if safety need is not satisfied, the ego or social need may emerge.

There are always some people in whom, for instance, need for self-esteem seems to be more prominent than that of love. There are also creative people in whom the drive for creativeness seems to be more important. In certain people, the level of motivation may be permanently lower, For instance, a person who has experienced chronic unemployment may continue to be satisfied for the rest of his life if only he can get enough food. Another cause of reversal of need hierarchy is that when a need has been satisfied for a long time it may be under-evaluated.

## **Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory**

A significant development in motivation theory is based on the distinction between motivational and maintenance factors in job situation. On the basis of his research findings Herzberg drew a distinction between what he called 'motivators' and 'hygiene' factors.

Some job conditions operate primarily to dissatisfy employees when the conditions are absent, but their presence does not motivate employees in a strong way. Many of these factors are traditionally perceived by management as motivators, but these are really more potent as dissatisfiers. The potent dissatisfiers are called maintenance factors in job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. They are also known as dissatisfier or 'hygienic factors' because they support employees' mental health. Another set of job condition operates primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction but their absence rarely proves Strong dissatisfier. These conditions are 'Motivational Factors'. Herzberge's maintenance and motivational factors have been shown in the table given below.

## **MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF MOTIVES**

Abraham Maslow, a humanistic psychologist, proposed that human motives are arranged in a hierarchy. At the bottom of this hierarchy are the basic physiological needs such as hunger and thirst. Only when these needs are met, the need to have a shelter and to be free from threatened danger arises (safety needs). Next is the need to seek out other people, to belong, to affiliate, to love and to be loved. If we succeed in satisfying this need, we move to feel esteemed by ourselves and by others. This need includes the need for confidence, sense of worth and competence, self esteem and respect of others. Self- actualization is the final need which includes the need to fulfill potential and have meaningful goals.

## **10.3 Motivation and Human Behavior**

The basic elements of the process of motivation are (i) behaviour (ii) motives (iii) goals.



**Behaviour:** All behaviour is a series of activities. Behaviour is generally motivated by a 'desire to achieve a goal. At any moment individuals may indulge in multifarious activities like walking, talking, eating, and so on. They switch over from one activity to another activity swiftly. In order to predict and control behaviour managers must understand the motives of people.

**Motives (Needs/drives/wants):** Motives prompt people to action. They are the primary energisers of behaviour. They are the 'ways' of behaviour and mainsprings of action. They are largely subjective and represent the mental feelings of human beings. They are cognitive 'variables'. They cause behaviour in many ways. They arise continuously and determine the general direction of an individual's behaviour. Goals: Motives are directed toward goals. Motives generally create a state of disequilibrium, physiological or psychological imbalance, within the individuals. Attaining a goal will tend to restore physiological or psychological balance. Goals are the ends which provide satisfaction of human wants. They are outside an individual; they are hoped for incentives toward which needs are directed. One person may satisfy his need for power by kicking subordinates and another by becoming the president of a company. Thus, a need can be satisfied by several alternate goals. The particular goals chosen by an individual depends on four factors; (i) the cultural norms and values that are instilled as one matures, (ii) one's inherited and biological capabilities, (iii) personal experience and learning influences and (iv) mobility in the physical and social environment.

The dilemma posed by a large number of needs can often be resolved by integrating wants where one activity may satisfy several needs. Researchers have found that many overweight people continue to eat excessively because they have fused the satisfaction of a number of wants (love, Security, Comfort) into the act of eating. Eating, in a way, releases the tension built by the numerous unsatisfied needs.

The process of motivation discussed above implies that individuals possess a host of needs, desires and expectations. All of these needs compete for their behaviour and ultimately the need with the maximum strength at a particular moment leads to activity. When a need is satisfied, it is no longer a motivator of behaviour.

## 10.4 Self Check Exercise

- Explain the theories of motivation
- Define motivation and human behavior.

## 10.5 Summary

The basic elements of the process of motivation are: (i) behaviour, (ii) motives, (iii) goals, (iv) some form of feedback or reaction. Behaviour is generally motivated by the desire to achieve a goal. Motives are directed towards goals and prompt people to action.

McGregor formulated two sets of assumptions about human beings, which formed the basis of Theory X and Theory Y of motivation. He described Theory X as the traditional theory which required workers to be persuaded and pushed into performance on the assumption that the average human being dislikes work and would, avoid it if he can. He propounded Theory Y based on the assumption that people by nature love work and can exercise self direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.

Maslow's need priority theory is based on needs of people which arise in sequence and hierarchical order from physiological needs through security needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-fulfilment needs. Herzberg's two-factor theory distinguishes between maintenance or hygienic factors and motivation factors, the former having only negative significance and the latter having positive effect on motivation. The absence of maintenance factors like wages, job security, physical conditions of work and such extrinsic elements cause dissatisfaction, but their presence does not provide motivation. On the other hand, motivational factors such as recognition, achievement, etc. are essential for motivating employees and these factors provide positive incentives.

Herzberg emphasised the importance of job enrichment as one of the motivational factors. It refers to enriching the job content or the deliberate upgrading of responsibility, scope and challenge in work. Job enrichment differs from job

enlargement which involves horizontal loading, that is, addition of more tasks of the same nature.

## 10.6 Glossary

- **Esteem and status needs:** They relate to self-confidence independence, achievement, competence, initiative, success, etc.
- **Job Enrichment:** It refers to the process whereby a job is enriched in terms of its contents, responsibility, scope, variety and challenge.
- **Social needs:** These relate to need for social incentive, relatedness, companionship, belongingness, etc.

## 10.7 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to Section 10.2
- Refer to Section 10.3

## 10.8 Suggested Readings

1. Baron, R.A. (2010). Introduction to Psychology. Wadsworth Publishing Co., NJ
2. Harold F. Oneil ad Michael Drillings (Eds).(1994). Motivation: Theory and Research.
3. Laurence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey Fowler, H (2008). Curiosity and Exploratory Behaviour. Open library, New York. Morgan, C.T. and King, R.A. (2010).(11th edition) Introduction to Psychology. McGraw Hill, New Delhi

## 10.9 Terminal Questions

1. What are the theories of motivation?
2. Explain the motivation and human behaviour.

## **Chapter-11**

### **Perception-Concept, Nature and Factors**

#### **STRUCTURE**

11.0 Introduction

11.1 Objectives

11.2 Concept of perception

11.2.1 Importance of perception

11.2.2 Limitation of perception

11.2.3 Managerial Use of Perception

11.2.4 Process of perception

11.2.5 Perception and its correlates

11.2.6 Factors influencing perception

11.3 Self Check Exercise

11.4 Summary

11.5 Glossary

11.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

11.7 Suggested Readings

11.8 Terminal Questions

#### **11.0 Introduction**

Individuals are exposed to varieties of stimuli of the environment. They process these stimuli and interpret them. The process of receiving information and making sense is known as perception. It refers to the way the world sounds, looks, feels, smells, tastes to the individual. The individual's behaviour is determined to a large extent by the way

the environment is perceived by him/her. Therefore, the conducive organisational environment must be created for favourable perception. The persons who perceived the environment in a favourable way may contribute their best to the organisation. In this unit, you will learn the concept, process, the factors and barriers to the accurate perception. You will be exposed to the theory of attribution and the managerial uses of perception. You will be further familiarized with the process of developing perceptual skills.

## 11.1 Objectives

In this chapter we will be able to

- Understand the perception.
- Know the limitation of perception.
- Discuss the factors influencing perception.

## 11.2 Concept of Perception

We have mainly five sensory organs viz. eyes, ears, nose, tongue, and skin. The basic five sense organs help us to collect information through their respective tasks. Through eyes we see, through ears we listen, through nose we can identify smell, through tongue we take taste, and through skin we touch. Through these sense organs, as an average human being, you collect several thousands of impressions everyday. However you pay selective attention to particular information collected by your sense organs. Let us have four situations.

**Situation-one:** Remember one orchestra programme you had visited recently. You were listening attentively a favourite song of yours, and each word and tune was audible to you. Suddenly you listened your name pronounced through a familiar voice coming from backside. Lo! There was your fast friend, with whom you are meeting after a gap of few years. You joined him and both of you got lost in intimate nostalgic talk. The song of the orchestra was still on, but you were not listening! What happened? You were listening selectively. In first instance you were listening the song, and in the second instance, you were listening the words of your friend.

**Situation-two:** Remember when you were in the mid of your teen age, when most of you were interested in watching clouded sky. Do you remember, you used to perceive a particular shape (like, a football player, an elephant, map of a country or a state etc.) in the cloud, but your friend had witnessed some other shape?

**Situation-three:** Remember, one crucial football/cricket match you were playing sometime back. There was a garden close to playground. Do you remember, you could realize aggressive smell of manure in the garden only when the match was over, but not during the tense moment of the match?

**Situation-four:** Remember, some years back you had developed some misunderstanding with one of your close friends. Earlier you had completely confided in him, but no more thereafter. You saw him talking with your friend. You thought he was talking ill about you to your friend. Later on you found it was not so. The situation-one depicts that we tend to listen what we choose to listen; situation-two depicts, we tend to see what we choose to see; situation-three depicts, we tend to smell what we choose to smell, and situation four depicts, we tend to infer what we are inclined to infer.

All the four examples suggest that our mental focus captures only a portion of sensory stimuli present in the environment. This capturing depends on our preferences. Thus perception is more than the sum of all the sensory input supplied by our sense organs. Process of perception helps us to select, organise, and interpret sensory input to achieve a meaningful grasp of our surroundings. Perception yield final products that differ from raw, unprocessed sensations in important ways.

The dictionary meaning of the word 'perceive' is- to take in mentally, to become aware through the senses. In simple language Perception may be defined as the way a person sees the universe, he feels about certain elements in a situation. Baron defines Perception as the process through which we select, organise, and interpret input from our sensory receptors. Robbins defines Perception as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. Nord defines Perception as the manner in which a person organises, interprets, and processes various stimuli that are transmitted into a psychological

experience. Each person gives meaning to stimuli, different individuals will see the same thing in different ways.

Reitz defines Perception as those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment- seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting, and smelling. The study of these perceptual processes shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variables- the objects or events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs, and the individual does the perceiving.

### **11.2.1 Importance of Perception**

As a concept, perception has important place in the subject of Organisational Behaviour (OB). OB deals with human behaviour at work place, and perception is an important determinant of behaviour. People behave on the basis of their perception of the reality, not on the basis of the reality itself. We may say, the world does not appear to us as it is, but it appears as painted by our perception of the world. This statement establishes the importance and uses of perception on the one hand, and limitations of perception on the other. We shall first examine importance and uses of perception.

Perception helps us adapt to a complex and ever-changing environment through perceptual constancies. Constancies refer to our tendency to perceive physical objects as unchanging despite shifts in the pattern of sensations these objects induce. Perceptual constancies suggest that our perception of the world doesn't change as much as variations in the sensory information registered by our receptors might lead us to expect. Three types of constancies are more common: size constancy, shape constancy, and brightness constancy. The principle of size constancy relates to the fact that the perceived size of an object remains the same when the distance is varied, even though the size of the image it casts on the retina changes greatly. The principle of shape constancy refers to the fact that the perceived shape of an object does not alter as the image it casts on the retina changes. The principle of brightness constancy refers to the fact that we perceive objects as constant in brightness and colour even when viewed under different lighting conditions. These three principles suggest that the gap

between sensations and the perceptions provided by the constancies is clearly beneficial.

### **11.2.2 Limitation of perception**

Unfortunately, perception can provide false interpretations of sensory information. Incorrect perceptions are called illusions. Illusions may take place in two ways: due to physical processes (e.g. mirages), and due to cognitive processes. For our purpose illusions through cognitive processes are more relevant. Illusions through cognitive processes fall in two categories: illusions of size, and illusions of shape or area.

### **11.2.3 Managerial Use of Perception**

Perception is an important concept for managers or for any decision maker. There are many situations in which a proper understanding of perception and its various uses help a decision maker to take quality decision. Now we shall examine some important managerial activities where concept of perception can be applied.

**Advertising:** Advertisers use the concept of perception to draw attention of the prospective customers. According to concept of perception, selective attention helps us to maximize information gain by reducing inference from irrelevant sensory sources. Therefore you find hoarding of advertisements are so designed with respect to shape, size, and brightness, that they should be able to attract attention of prospective customers.

**Maintaining Safety:** Concept of perception is used to draw proper attention towards message of warning, through proper design of content and proper display of the message. Message content should include: signal word, hazard statement, consequences, and instructions. Message characteristics should have characteristics such as: attention getting, comprehensible, concise, and durable.

### **11.2.4 Process of Perception**

The model process of perception describes four stages. The model has been shown in Figure 6.1, depicting the four stages. . The model can be understood through input-throughput-output approach.



**Stage 1:** It describes perceptual inputs. Perceptual inputs encompass all stimuli that exist in our environment including information, objects, events, people etc. The perceiver receives these inputs.

**Stage 2:** It describes perceptual mechanisms or throughputs. This is the transformation of perceptual inputs to outputs. It involves the three processes of selecting, organising, and interpreting the stimuli that are in the environment. Though all individuals go through the same three steps, while transforming the perceptual. Inputs to outputs, they differ in how do they select, organise and interpret stimuli based on their own personality predispositions and biases.

**Figure 6.1: A Model of Process of Perception**

Stage 1: Perceptual Inputs of Stimuli Information, Objects, Events, People etc.

Stage 2: Perceptual Mechanisms Selection, Organisation, Interpretation

Stage 3: Perceptual outputs Attitudes, Opinions, Feelings, Values

Stage 4: Pattern of Behaviour

**Stage 3:** Perceptual outputs are derived through the processing of perceptual throughputs. These include one's attitudes, opinions, feelings, values, and actions. Perceptual errors may adversely affect the outputs. Hence, managers should enhance their perceptual skills.

**Stage 4:** Behaviour is a resultant factor. The perceiver's behaviour, in turn, generates responses and these reactions give rise to a new set of inputs.

Out of four stages of process of perception, stage 1 and stage 4 are simpler to comprehend which describe inputs and final outcomes respectively. You need to gain more insight with respect to stage 2, and stage 3 of the process.

### 11.2.5 Perception and its Correlates

The perceiver's own mindset and tendency to use shortcuts in judging others may become the barriers to accurate perception. Barriers to accurate perception create wider gap between 'what things actually are', and 'what you think the things are'. Hence you should be vigilant about such barriers. Some of the important barriers to accurate perception are following:

**Stereotyping:** It is judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs. Though such generalisations help to simplify complex world, its overuse mostly leads to wrong conclusion.

**Halo Effect:** This perceptual bias means, drawing a general impression about an individual on the basis of single characteristics.

**Similar-to-me Effect or Projection:** It is another common type of perceptual bias, which involves the tendency for people to perceive more favourably others who are like themselves than those who are dissimilar.

**Selective Perceptions:** It explains that people selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience and attitudes.

**Distortion:** It is distorting what we see (or even totally avoid seeing what actually exists) if we encounter data, which is threatening or incongruent to our self-concept.

**Contrast Effects:** It is evaluations of a person's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered who rank higher or lower on the same characteristics.

### 11.2.6 Factors Influencing Perception

Perception is influenced by mainly three sets of factors:

- i) Factors in the perceiver (perceiver variables);
- ii) Factors in the target (subject characteristics);
- iii) Factors in the situation (situational variables).

Factors in the perceiver include following issues:

- Self-concept of the perceiver;
- Attitudes of the perceiver;
- Motives of the perceiver;
- Interests of the perceiver;
- Experience of the perceiver;
- Expectations of the perceiver.

Factors in the target include following issues:

- Physical appearance; • Verbal and Nonverbal Communication;
- Status; • Occupations; • Personal characteristics;
- Novelty of the target;
- Motion of the target;
- Sounds of the target;
- Size of the target;
- Background of the target;
- Proximity of the target.

Factors in the situation include following issues:

- Social context;
- Organisational role;
- Work setting;
- Location of event;
- Time.

Collectively, these three sets of factors determine our perceptions about others.

### 11.3 Self Check Exercise

- Define concept of perception.
- What is the nature of perception?
- Explain perception and its correlates.

### 11.4 Summary

Perception refers to the process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. It is an important determinant of human behaviour. The process of perception includes: perceptual inputs of stimuli, perceptual mechanisms, perceptual outputs and pattern of behaviour. Perception is influenced by mainly three sets of factors which are : factors in the perceiver, factors in the target and factors in the situation. As the perception facilitates the understanding of human behaviour in the organisation; the perceiver's own mindset and tendency in judging others may become the barriers to accurate perception. Some of the important barriers to accurate perception are : stereotyping, halo effect, similar to me effect or projection, selective perceptions, distortion and contrast effects. Some important managerial activities where concept of perception can be applied include : advertising, maintaining safety, managing impression, building corporate image, managing performance, evaluating performance, judging employee's loyalty, self assessment and development and building relationship.

### 11.5 Glossary

- **Attribution:** Judging the causes of others' behaviour- external and internal causes.
- **Consistency:** Tendency to respond the same way over time.
- **Constancies:** Our tendency to perceive physical objects as unchanging despite shifts in the pattern of sensations these objects induce.
- **Stereotyping:** Judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs.

## **11.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise**

- Refer to section 11.2
- Refer to section 11.2.1
- Refer to section 11.2.5

## **11.7 Suggested Readings**

1. Baron, R.A. (2010). Introduction to Psychology. Wadsworth Publishing Co., NJ
2. Harold F. O'Neil and Michael Drillings (Eds). (1994). Motivation: Theory and Research.
3. Laurence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey Fowler, H (2008). Curiosity and Exploratory Behaviour. Open library, New York. Morgan, C.T. and King, R.A. (2010). (11th edition) Introduction to Psychology. McGraw Hill, New Delhi.

## **11.8 Terminal Questions**

1. What do you mean by perception?
2. Explain the concept of perception.
3. Define the nature and process of perception.

## **Chapter-12**

### **Laws of Perception**

#### **STRUCTURE**

12.0 Introduction

12.1 Objectives

12.2 Laws of perception

12.2.1 Factors affecting perception

12.2.2 Theoretical approach to perception

12.2.3 Stages of Perception

12.3 Self Check Exercise

12.4 Summary

12.5 Glossary

12.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

12.7 Suggested Readings

12.8 Terminal Questions

#### **12.0 Introduction**

The psychological process responsible for our interpretation of the world is known as perception. Perception is a set of process, which helps us in understanding the world around us. Every second we encounter numerous stimuli. Take a look around the room in which you are sitting right now. What can you see? Walls, the colour of the 35 Perception: Meaning, Laws, Perceptual Constancies and Factors Affecting Perception walls, fan, light, the sound of the fan, books kept in the racks and many more things. Your awareness about all those stimuli is the result of a higher mental process called “perception”. Perception helps us in interpreting our world and thus helps us in making

an appropriate decision, from what dress to wear to how to cross the road. Therefore, perception is a process of selecting, organising and interpreting the sensory information based on previous experiences, other's experiences, need or expectation.

Now, close your eyes and try to visualize your kitchen. What do you remember about the kitchen of your house? Not everything. Right? Why is it so that you are not able to visualise your kitchen with 100 per cent accuracy? Since, our brain is not capable of attending every single detail of the world; it selectively attends only some stimuli. Let us take another example. How do you cross a busy road? You selectively pay attention to some stimuli (traffic signal, the speed of the vehicle or people on the road) and then cross the road. While crossing the road, you have very less awareness about the buildings or number of trees around the road. Why? Because it is not necessary for the action, you need to perform at that time, i.e., while crossing the road safely. The act of crossing a road safely can be explained using the process of perception. First, you select the stimuli (traffic signal, moving vehicles, and people) you need to pay attention to and block other stimuli (parked vehicles, trees, conversation with your fellow pedestrian etc.). In this way, your brain tries to focus on the task. Then, your brain organises the scene, and lastly, it figures out when it will be appropriate to cross the road safely. Any mistake during these steps can cause an accident. So broadly speaking, the process of perception involves three steps when it encounters stimuli viz. (i) selection, (ii) organization and, (iii) interpretation. These stages of the process of perception have been discussed in detail in the following section.

## **12.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to know

- Understand the law of perception.
- Know about the factors affecting perception.

## **12.2 Laws of Perception**

### **1. Laws of Organization: Gestalt Principles**

In the early 20th century, three German psychologists Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Köhler and Kurt Koffka proposed new principles for explaining perception called as Gestalt principle. According to these psychologists, the process of perception does not involve perceiving an array of stimuli as an object but it involves our tendency to seek a form or pattern in it. The literal meaning of the word Gestalt is form or configuration. The basic premise of Gestalt psychology is that 'whole is different from the sum of its part'. Based on this basic premise, Gestalt psychologists proposed a number of principles or laws to explain the process of perceptual organisation i.e., how we perceive smaller units of stimuli as a whole, having a particular pattern. In the following section, let us discuss some important Gestalt laws of perceptual organisation but before doing so, can you find thirteen faces in the following picture?

This principle states that we have a tendency to segregate our world in the form of figure and ground. Figure is that part of stimuli which has our focus of the visual field, whereas the ground is background. Figure has a definite shape and is better remembered whereas; background is shapeless and has no limits. Now look at the Figure 6, what do you see? Two people or two pieces of chess (two queens and one bishop)? When you focus on people, chess pieces disappear in the background and when you focus on the chess pieces, people become the background.

## **2. Law of Proximity**

In order to perceive stimuli meaningful, stimuli which are closer to each other are perceived by us belonging to one group. Due to this reason, people tend to see following circles as cluster or group rather than individual circles. Our brain tends to group large elements as one to make us interpret more easily.

## **3. Law of Similarity**

This principle states that stimuli similar to each other are grouped together. For instance, we tend to group circles based on its colours. In real life also, we use this principle extensively. For example, during a cricket match, we tend to group players based on the colour of their jersey.

## **4. Law of Continuity or Good Continuation**



It refers to our tendency to perceive figures in continuation rather than in parts. This principle is exhibited more in the perception of line.

#### **5. Law of Closure**

Following its name, this law should not be confused with the law of proximity. This law states that we have a tendency to perceive stimuli as closed shapes even with some missing parts.

#### **6. Law of Common Region/Common Fate**

This principle states that stimuli moving in similar directions are perceived as belonging to same group.

#### **7. Law of Good Form/Pragnaz**

The word Prgnaz is a German in origin, meaning “good figure”. This principle is also called as “law of good figure”. According to this principle, out of all possible ways of grouping stimuli, we tend to group stimuli in the simplest and stable shape. Thus, we can say that simpler forms are more perceived by us. For example, instead of perceiving as consisting of five circles, we tend to perceive it as a symbol of Olympics.

### **12.2.1 Factors Affecting Perception**

#### **Effect of Motivation or Need**

Motivation always plays a vital role in various psychological processes including perception. You must have observed that when you feel hungry, the smell of the food catches your attention more easily than when you are full. Many experimental studies have also reported the same effect. In a classic experiment, Stanford (1936) reported that hungry participants perceived ambiguous stimuli more as food-related stimuli than non-hungry participants. Similarly, in a recent study, Changizi and Hall (2001) demonstrated that your need for thirst could also affect perception.

#### **Effect of Expectation or Perceptual Expectancy**

Perceptual expectancy is a person’s readiness or a predisposition to perceive things in a particular way. In a classic experiment, Bruner & Minturn (1955) illustrated the role of expectation in our perception. In one condition he showed his participants.

In the second condition he showed the same context of alphabets like this. In the first condition, participants perceived the ambiguous stimulus as 13 while in the second it was perceived as B. The ambiguous stimulus in both conditions was same but interpreted differently due to participants' expectation.

In another classical study, Bugelski and Alampay (1961) used an ambiguous picture of the 'rat-man'. This picture was presented in two conditions. In one condition, participants were first exposed to animal picture and then to the ambiguous 'rat-man' picture. Whereas, in another condition participants were first exposed to neutral pictures followed by the picture of 'ratman'. Experimental condition in which participants were exposed to animal picture perceived more this ambiguous picture as a rat than in the later condition.

### **Effect of Emotions**

What do you think can emotions affect your perceptual ability? Suppose, if you are a fan of a particular IPL team and during a match, the umpire made a call against your favourite team. Then it's more likely that you will perceive that umpire as partial. Why? Because you believe that your team is perfect and it cannot make any mistake. This example shows that your emotion for your favourite team is distorting your perception of the reality. Emotions do not hamper your perception always. Many studies have demonstrated the relationship between emotion and perception. An important point which needs to be mentioned here is that emotion does not always hamper your perception. Sometimes it facilitates also. Studies have suggested that when perception task is irrelevant to emotions it hampers your performance. Whereas, when your perception task is relevant to emotions, it facilitates the performance (Dodd, Vogt, Turkileri, & Notebaert, 2016; Compton et al., 2003). However, in a recent study, it was reported that emotions not only affect one's perception but also influence the working memory (Hur, Jordan, Dolcos & Berenbaum, 2017).

### **Effect of Stimulus**

Characteristic You may have noticed that the horns used by heavy trucks usually have high frequency, high pitch and high volume. Why? Just to grab your attention. Studies

have shown that those stimuli which sound, taste, look or feel different, grabs our attention more than other stimuli and thus affect our perception. According to the evolutionary psychologist, this property has a survival purpose. It has helped humans in identifying danger.

### **Effect of Experience**

Prior experience plays an important role in the way we interpret stimuli; it shapes your perception. For example, if you mistakenly perceive a rope as a snake in the dark, then your previous experience is guiding your perceptual process. What do you see in the above picture? A Flamingo shaped pen, right? Even though this is not a typical pen, but you perceive it as a pen because of your previous exposure.

### **Effect of the Culture**

Culture provides structure, guidelines, expectations, and rules to help people understand and interpret behaviors. Ethnographic studies suggest there are cultural differences in social understanding, interpretation, and response to behavior and emotion. Cultural scripts dictate how positive and negative stimuli should be interpreted. Now look at the following hand gesture and interpret it. What does it mean? In India, the illustrated hand gesture refers to beautiful or perfect. But in Mediterranean countries, it refers to sexual insult whereas, in Japan, this gesture relates to money. This example suggests that interpretation of a stimulus changes with the change in the culture.

## **12.2.2 Theoretical Approaches to Perception**

Two separate theoretical approaches have been proposed by psychologists to explain the process of perception. One is known as “Top-down processing approach” and, other is known as “Bottom-up processing approach”

**Table 3.1: Theoretical approaches to perception**

<b>Bottom-up processing</b>	<b>Top-down processing</b>
Process of perception is direct.	Process of perception is indirect.
Perception is a data driven process i.e.,	Perception is an experience driven

stimuli carries sufficient information to be interpreted meaningfully and we don't need to rely on our experiences.	process i.e., stimuli don't have sufficient information to be interpreted meaningfully and therefore, we need to rely on our experiences.
J. J. Gibson was one of the strongest advocate of this view.	Richard Gregory was the strongest advocate of this view.

### 12.2.3 Stages of Perception

This section will explain in details the stages involved in perception as well as the factors affecting these stages.

**Stage I: Selection** The first stage of perception is “selection”. Since our brain has limited capacity, therefore, it cannot attend to all stimuli. We unconsciously or consciously select some stimuli and ignore others. The selected stimulus becomes the “attended stimulus”.

Your interpretation of these two figures depends on your organisation of the information, and organisation of the information, in turn, depends on your attention. Take for example, the second figure. Some people give more attention to the white portion and thus see two human faces, while some focus their attention on black part and perceive it as a vase. These differences in answer suggest that individual differences also occur in the process of perception.

#### **Stage II: Organization**

In this stage, stimuli are arranged mentally in a meaningful pattern. This process occurs unconsciously. Many principles have been proposed to explain the process of organisation. Gestalt principles of organisation will help you understand how humans naturally organize stimuli to make a meaningful pattern and thus interpretation.

#### **Stage III: Interpretation**

In this last stage, meaning is assigned to the organized stimuli. Interpretation of the stimuli is based on one's experiences, expectations, needs, beliefs and other factors. Thus, this stage is subjective in nature and the same stimuli can be interpreted differently by different individuals.

### **12.3 Self Check Exercise**

- Define the laws of perception.
- Explain the factors affecting perception.

### **12.4 Summary**

The various perceptual constancies (size, shape, colour, distance) followed by various factors affecting the perceptual process. A closely related term to perception is “sensation”. Sensation is the first contact we establish with our physical environment. “It focuses on describing the relationship between various forms of sensory stimulation (including electromagnetic, sound waves, pressure) and how these inputs are registered by our sense organs (the eyes, ears, nose, tongue, and skin)” (Baron, 2001, pp. 85). Therefore, the sensation can be understood as the process of gathering information about the environment using our senses and then transmitting it to the brain for further process, i.e., perception. The process of perception, which occurs unconsciously, will interpret this sensory information to make a sense of our world.

The process of sensation consists of three steps. The first step is reception – the process of receiving information in the form of light, heat or other physical energy by our sense organ using specialised sensory receptors cells. The next step is known as transduction – the process of converting received physical energy into electric impulse or energy which refers to the language which can be interpreted by our brain and nervous system. In the last step, with the help of nerve fibres these converted electric impulse travels to our nervous system for interpretation.

The dish antenna we use in our home receives all available signals from the satellite but the tuner of the television-set selects signal according to our wishes. Similarly, our

senses can register numerous stimuli at a given time but attentional processes help us in selecting relevant stimuli responsible for perception.

Perceptual constancy is a remarkable feat of our perceptual ability to perceive familiar stimuli as constant (with reference to size, shape, colour and brightness), irrespective of the change in the environment, location and characteristics of the stimuli. There are basically three types of perceptual constancies; size, shape and colour.

## 12.5 Glossary

- **Sensation** : The process of receiving information from the environment using your five senses and sending it to brain for further interpretation, is known as sensation.
- **Sustained Attention** : It is the ability to attend to a stimulus for a longer period of time without being distracted.
- **Organization**: a group of people who form a business, club, etc. together in order to achieve a particular aim.
- **Interpretation**: an explanation or understanding of something.

## 12.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 12.2
- Refer to section 12.2.1

## 12.7 Suggested Readings

1. Sanford, R. N. (1936). The effects of abstinence from food upon imaginal processes: a preliminary experiment. *The Journal of Psychology*, 2(1), 129-136.
2. Atkinson, R. L., Atkinson, R. C., Smith, E. E., Bem, D. J., & Nolen Hoeksema, S. (2009). *Hilgard's Introduction to Psychology*. Fort Worth, Texas: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
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### **12.8 Terminal Questions**

1. What are the laws of perception?
2. Explain the factors which affect the perception.
3. Describe the theoretical approach of perception.
4. What are the stages of perception?

## **Chapter-13**

### **Learning**

#### **STRUCTURE**

13.0 Introduction

13.1 Objectives

13.2 Learning

13.2.1 Definition of learning

13.2.2 Natures of learning

13.2.3 Importance of learning

13.2.4 Types of learning

13.2.5 Factors of learning

13.3 Self Check Exercise

13.4 Summary

13.5 Glossary

13.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

13.7 Suggested Readings

13.8 Terminal Questions

#### **13.0 Introduction**

Learning is the basic concern of a teacher. A question that makes every teacher think is "why the extent of learning is different for different individuals"? In this chapter , we shall attempt to understand the factors affecting learning. An understanding of the factors affecting learning, it is considered, would be unnatural in the absence of the context in which learning is or is not taking place. To avoid the artificiality in presentation, the unit is organised in the form of 'cases'. It IS likely that you might have come across similar situations as presented in the cases. You would benefit by trying to relate the given situations/cases to those you might have come across.

#### **13.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to know

- Understand the concept of learning.
- Know about the nature of learning.
- Discuss the types of learning



## 13.2 Concept of Learning

Learning is a relatively permanent change in a behavioural tendency and is the result of reinforced practice (Kimble & Garmezy, 1963). Learning is the modification of the behaviour through experience. It can also be understood as acquisition of new patterns of behaviour. It involves new ways of doing things and operates in an individual's attempt to adjust to his/her environment. Learning is not something that takes place within the boundaries of a classroom; rather it takes place anywhere, anytime and from anyone. Traditional Indian Literature has examples where people learnt from trees, mountains, rivers, insects, etc. It means learning is something which is possible anywhere.

### 13.2.1 Definitions of Learning

1. Learning is the modification of behaviour through experience and training. ----- Gates
2. Learning is a process of progressive behaviour adaptation. -----Skinner
3. Learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. -----Crow and crow
4. The term learning covers every modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements----- Murphy

### 13.2.2 Nature of Learning

Learning occupies a very important place in our life. Most of what we do or do not do is influenced by what we learn and how we learn it. Learning, therefore, provides a key to structure of our personality and behaviour. An individual starts learning immediately after his birth or in a strict sense even earlier in the womb of the mother. Experiences, direct or indirect are found to play a dominant role in moulding and shaping, the behaviour of the individual from the very beginning.

**Gardner Murphy (1968)** The term learning covers every modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements.

**Henry P. Smith (1962)** Learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or the strengthening or weakening of old behaviour as the result of experience.

**Hilgard (1958)** Learning is the process by which an activity originates is changed through reaching to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the changes in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response, tendencies, maturation, or temporary states of the organism (eg: fatigue or drugs, etc.)

**Kimble (1961)** Learning is a relatively permanent change in bahavioural potentially that occurs as a result of reinforced practice. The above definition reveals the following facts:

1. Learning is a process and not a product.

2. It involves all those experiences and training of an individual (right from birth) which help him to produce changes in his behaviour.
3. Learning leads to changes in behaviour but this does not necessarily mean that these changes always bring about improvement or positive development. One has an equal chance to drift to the negative side of human personality.
4. Instead of change in existing behaviour or acquisition of new behaviour, learning may also result in discontinuance or abandonment of existing behaviour.
5. Learning prepares an individual for any adjustment and adaptation that may be necessary.
6. Learning is purposeful and goal-oriented. In case there is no purpose, there would definitely be hardly any learning.
7. It is very comprehensive process which covers nearly all fields – conative, cognitive and affective – human behaviour.
8. Learning is universal and continuous
9. Learning as a process is of different types and involves different methods.
10. Learning does not include changes in behaviour on account of maturation, fatigue, illness or drugs etc.

### **13.2.3 Importance of Learning**

1. Bringing desirable changes in behaviour: Learning is the process of bringing changes in behaviour i.e. in all three domains like cognitive, conative and affective.
2. Attaining of proper growth and development: Learning helps in reaching one's maximum in terms of growth and development.
3. Attaining balanced development of personality: Learning results to bringing all- round development in personality.
4. Attaining proper adjustment: Learning helps individuals to get adjusted themselves to the environment.
5. Realizing of the goals of life: Learning process helps an individual to realise his goals.

### **13.2.4 Types of Learning**

Right from birth itself we learn many skills, like reaching for and grasping toys, standing up and stepping forward unfaltering and unaided, speaking, etc. Later, we learn more complex skills and acquire the ability of solving various types of problems. Thus, there is a gradual change from the simpler form of learning to the complex ones, like problem solving. There is no single way of acquiring all types of learning. However, here we shall discuss three important modes of learning. Following are the types of learning

**Motor learning:**

Most of our activities in our day-to-days life refer to motor activities. The individual has to learn them in order to maintain his regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc. All these activities involve the muscular coordination.

**Verbal learning:**

This type of learning involves the language we speak, the communication devices we use. Signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds, etc, are the tools used in such activities. We use words for communication.

**Concept learning:**

It is the form of learning which requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. we learn different concepts from childhood. For example, when we see a dog and attach the term 'dog', we learn that the word dog refers to a particular animal. Concept learning involves two processes, viz. abstraction and generalisation. This learning is very useful in recognising, identifying things.

**Discrimination learning:**

Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing an appropriate response to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. Example, sound horns of different vehicles like bus, car, ambulance, etc.

**Learning of principles**

Individuals learn certain principles related to science, mathematics, grammar, etc. in order to manage their work effectively. These principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formulae, laws, associations, correlations, etc.

**Problem solving:**

This is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities-such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. This is very useful to overcome difficult problems encountered by the people.

**Attitude learning:**

Attitude is a predisposition which determines and directs our behaviour. We develop different attitudes from our childhood about the people, objects and everything we know.

Our behaviour may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes. Example: attitudes of nurse towards her profession, patients, etc.

### **13.2.5 Factors of Learning**

Learning is influenced by several factors. The influence on learning could be favourable or unfavourable depending on the factors. Thus, good teaching or continuous studying without any time being spent on other activities may not ensure learning. There seems to be a general tendency to presume that scoring well in an examination is the only indicator of learning. Learning itself could be of different kinds. You would study about the nature, types and theories of learning in the next unit. You might have noticed several factors influencing learning in the three cases described in this unit. Some of the factors are easily identifiable as influencing learning while others may best be guessed to have an influence. Also, it is likely that some factors are not easily discernible. If we consider the problems of learning, it is rare that only a single factor is operative. Often, a learning problem is the result of a combined influence of several variables. Thereby, the remediation of the problem requires the strategy to be comprehensive in coverage of factors.

Any one of several internal, external or unknown factors can influence learning. In this section, a classification of the factors influencing learning has been made under the broad headings physiological, psychological, socio-emotional and educational factors.

#### **Physiological Factors**

Among the organic factors considered to cause learning problems are genetics, brain injury, biochemical imbalances, intake of toxic substances like lead, oxygen deprivation, infectious diseases, drug intoxication, malnutrition and congenital defects. While considering these as factors influencing learning, it may be mentioned that attempts to correlate specific physiological factors with learning problems are not successful.

Ability to see printed words is obviously a prerequisite to reading, especially when the children are taught by 'look-and-say' method. Auditory defects influence learning more seriously when the phonetic method is used. Even a small degree of farsightedness or aniseikonia (a difference in size or shape between the images formed by the two eyes) may cause discomfort and increased difficulty in reading. Such a child, if not attended to, may withdraw from the learning situation.

Another important factor that affects learning is maturation. Unless the body is physiologically mature and ready, academic learning cannot take place. To quote a simple example, a newborn can't be expected to take in the details of an object for his vision is unfocussed. Further, physiological maturation is one of the major factors affecting memory span of a human being. The ability to remember things of course a prerequisite to any learning.

#### **Psychological Factors**

Several psychological factors such as intelligence, personality, attitude, interest, and aptitude have considerable influence on the learning of a child. Apart from these, motivation, self-concept, readiness is a necessity, often learns to read with little instruction. Whereas, seriously retarded readers tend to be aggressive or to withdraw, to feel insecure and apprehensive. A child's learning is influenced by his/her concept of himself/ herself. If he/she puts no value on himself/ herself or thinks of himself/ herself as a failure, he/she is generally not interested in learning. Ability to pay attention is also basic to learning. Children learn the habit of sustained attention by persisting at things that interest them. A child's attention cannot be demanded. It is said to be a by-product of interest and maturity.

### **Socio-emotional Factors**

The family the child belongs to has a considerable influence on the learning. Family factors such as child-rearing practices, reward and punishment, scope for freedom and independence in activities, play and study facilities, ambitiousness of the parents, disorganization and discord among members, degree of maturity expected of the boy or the girl child, birth position such as eldest, youngest or single child have their definite influence on learning.

Regardless of basic motivation, the anxiety aroused by disturbed family background shows itself in thinking difficulties, viz, day dreaming, inattentiveness and difficulty in concentration.

Working mothers who also experience marital discord are not only physically absent from their children, they are also emotionally absent. Learner from such a home is usually found self absorbed and inattentive.

Parental ambition, especially that of the mother, of acquiring status and upward mobility brings with it a resistance on the part of the child to learn. Children in such families if unable to cope with the pressure for excellence, may show a passive resistance and may be excessively slow about things at home.

A subtle but powerful influence on the growing child arises from his/her position among the children in the family. The parents of the first-born expect the child to act like miniature adults and hence the first-born are found to encounter a variety of expectation and stress. Whereas, parents tend to be more relaxed in their "dos" and "don'ts" with the last-born. Factors like traumatic events at home, separation or death can also precipitate learning problems in an otherwise normal child.

A child who comes from a very poor family and never has any intellectual stimulation at home remains dull and unresponsive in the class. In some cultures, there is a strong sex role bias. Girls are directly or indirectly told that education is not meant for them. In a similar way, some caste groups in our country have hidden messages like 'education is not meant for us' or 'our children cannot study'. This apathy to education may pose problems for the child in learning. The middle class depends for its survival on jobs, they

value education highly, and frequently give their children a valued concept of education. The motivation to study is more for the child.

### **Educational Factor's**

Learning problems may occur because of inadequate or inappropriate teaching. The child may have difficulty in learning because the teacher does not provide adequate -or appropriate instruction. Aspects such as repetition and their frequency, continuity and rest in learning, complexity and meaningfulness of the material being learnt also influence learning. If the teacher is a poor communicator or uses monotonous and uninteresting methods, the children are put at a disadvantage.

Overcrowding classrooms is another contributing factor. In some big cities, houses are converted into English medium schools. In small rooms, sixty to seventy children are made to sit and are unable to benefit from a highly verbal instruction. In rural areas, the problem is one of the adequate facilities such as classrooms, blackboards, and sometimes even teachers. Bilingualism and multi-lingualism is also a factor influencing learning.

### **Environmental Factors Affecting Learning**

The condition of the setting where the learning process takes place, can also enhance or interfere in intake of information. If the rooms are not well ventilated, the lighting poor, the space cramped, the environment excessively noisy or surroundings polluted (e.g., due to smoke from a nearby factory), then there will be interference in the child's learning, for the body will be more concerned with protecting itself than procuring more knowledge.

### **13.3 Self Check Exercise**

- Define learning.
- What is the importance of learning?
- Explain the types of learning.

### **13.4 Summary**

Children learn best when they are mature enough and ready to learn; when they have no physiological or physical impairments; when they feel confident that they can learn; when what they are learning is meaningful to them and has a practical significance to them. Also essential to learning are a conducive home climate and parental care, suitable equipment, material and companions, freedom to select and use them, an appropriate and skillful guidance in learning.

Learning is defined as a process which brings change in the behavior of individual-both overt and covert. Change in behavior occurs through experience, practice or training. Learning is a comprehensive process which is universal and purposeful. Importantly, change in behavior can be positive or negative. An individual learns throughout life i.e. from womb to tomb. Learning also gets transferred from one's own previous experience

to current one or from one situation to another. The process of learning gets initiated once an individual is motivated. The motivation may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Once an individual is motivated, he acts towards his goal. While making several actions/responses, he is confronted with barriers. Learner makes efforts to remove barriers and while doing so he selects correct action which reinforces him to continue in the same direction ultimately leading to change in behavior/achievement of goal.

The subsequent Units of this course would provide you with an understanding and insight into the factors such as learning impairment and disability, motivation and interest, attention and how to enhance learning skills.

### 13.5 Glossary

- **Motivation:** is the word derived from the word 'motive' which means needs, desires, wants or derives within the individuals.
- **Environment:** the natural world, for example the land, air and water in which people, animals and plant live.
- **Process:** a series of action that you do for a particular purpose.

### 13.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 13.2
- Refer to section 13.2.3
- Refer to section 13.2.4

### 13.7 Suggested Readings

1. Bhatia, K.K..(2003). Bases of Educational Psychology, New Delhi: Kalyani Publishers.
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4. Galavotti, I. (2018). Experience and Learning in Corporate Acquisitions: Theoretical Approaches. Retrieved from <https://books.google.co.in>books>.
5. Gandhi, D.B. (2010). Educational Psychology: Thorndike's Laws of learning and it's Educational Implications. Retrieved from dgwaymade.blogspot.com.
6. Mangal, S.K. (2005). Advanced Educational Psychology. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

### 13.8 Terminal Questions

1. What do you mean by learning?
2. What are the types of learning?
3. Describe importance of learning

## **Chapter-14**

### **Learning- Laws and Theories**

#### **STRUCTURE**

14.0 Introduction

14.1 Objectives

14.2 Characteristics of learning

    14.2.1 Laws of learning

    14.2.2 Theories of learning

14.3 Self Check Exercise

14.4 Summary

14.5 Glossary

14.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

14.7 Suggested Readings

14.8 Terminal Questions

#### **14.0 Introduction**

Learning is a comprehensive term which is said to be equivalent to modification & improvement thus leading to adjustment. It tends to leave permanent effects on the individual. In other words, learning is a change in behavior, influenced by previous behavior. Therefore, knowledge, habits, attitudes, interests and other personality characteristics are all the result of learning. An individual starts learning right in the womb of the mother and lasts till the individual survives. Experience, direct or indirect plays a major role in moulding the behavior of the individual. For instance, while playing the child gets in contact with the edge of a pin, he immediately withdraws from it. This experience of his will make him more cautious while dealing with sharp edge objects.



Likewise, experiences to great extent lead to modification of individual's behavior. These changes in behavior are commonly known as learning.

## 14.1 Objectives

In this chapter we will be able to know

- Understand the laws of learning.
- Know about the theory of learning.

## 14.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING

Following are the characteristic features of learning:

**Leads to change in behavior:** Learning leads to relatively permanent change in behavior. When an individual learns, both his nervous system and behaviour undergo changes. However, it is on the basis of observed changes we assume that learning has taken place and not on the basis of the changes that occur at the synaptic level that we make the decision of whether learning has taken place or not. If an individual is seen performing a particular skill (like cycling, driving a car or any other) which he was not able to do earlier, is said to have learned to have learnt to perform that particular skill. It is significant that the changes are publicly observable and can be observed directly or recorded.

**Learning is measurable among individuals:** The term ' Learning' refers to changes which occur with respect to the actions, attitudes ,understandings or anything else of individual learners. While tracking the progress of a particular class, test is administered to individual students and the result of each child is cumulated. It implies that any procedure which is used to study learning must be capable of tracking changes (over time) in the competencies of individual learners.

**Learning is purposeful in formal classroom settings!** Learning is goal- oriented. In case of absence of purpose, there would be hardly any learning. Most individuals have definite ideas about what they want to do. The goals may be short term or long term. Individual needs and attitudes determine to what extent the child learns as much as

what the instructor wants them to learn. That is, student's goals are of paramount significance in the process of learning.

**Learning is a result of experience:** Since learning takes place individually, one's experience has significant role to play in it. While observing a particular event two people react differently and learn different things from it based on their previous experiences. May it be mental or motor activity, learning is influenced by actual experience.

**Learning can be transferred:** “Learning is acquiring knowledge and skills and having them readily available from memory so you can make sense of future problems and opportunities.”

Transfer of learning refers to learning in one context and applying it to another i.e. the capacity to apply the acquired knowledge and skills to new situations. This transfer can occur in several ways like occurring from prior knowledge to current, from one discipline to another and from one situation to another.

**Learning is a process:** Learning is a process which leads to product. The process gets initiated once the individual learner sets the goal and is motivated to achieve the goal. Learner acts and tries to remove/minimize the barriers leading to selection of most appropriate response. As result he receives reinforcement which paves the way towards achievement of goal .This ultimately brings the desired changes in the behavior of individual.

**Learning may be positive or negative:** As learning leads to change in behavior, that change may not be always desirable leading to improvement. There are equal chances of getting drifted towards the negative side of human personality. That is why it becomes the responsibility of elders-may it be at home or school to provide conducive environment in order to minimize the negative side.

### **14.2.1 Law of learning**

Educational psychologists have identified several principles of learning, also referred to as, laws of learning. These laws provide insight into what makes learner learn most effectively. Initially, E.L.Thorndike propounded 3 laws of learning.

Further, in 1970's Donald Norman summarized his thoughts on learning in three laws, all of which emphasize the causal relationship between actions and outcomes.

These Laws can be explained as under:-

#### **The Law of Readiness:**

" You can lead a horse to the water but you cannot make it drink" It was the first law given by E.L. Thorndike. By readiness he meant that when a learner is ready to respond or act, making the learner give the response is satisfying but preventing him from giving response leads to annoyance. If the child is ready to learn, he learns more effectively than if he is not ready to learn. In other words, law of readiness implies following 3 situations:

For a conduction unit ready to conduct, to conduct is satisfying.

For a conduction unit ready to conduct, not to conduct is annoying.

For a conduction unit not ready to conduct, to conduct is annoying.

The law of exercise: "Practice makes a man perfect" It is also known as "law of frequency". "This law can be divided into two sub-parts: Law of use advocates that the connection between stimulus and response gets strengthened by its continuous use, exercise or recurrence. Law of disuse, on the other hand, advocates that the bond between stimulus and response gets weakened if its use is discontinued.

#### **The Law of Effect**

"Nothing succeeds like success"

This law states that the strength gets increased when the connection is accompanied by pleasant or satisfying state of affairs. In the parallel sense, if the child meets unpleasantness or failure or dissatisfaction, the progress gets blocked.

### **Thorndike's Revised Laws of Learning (after 1930)**

There was no change in law of readiness.

Law of exercise was criticised by Thompson which was further accepted by Thorndike. He accepted that mere mechanical use or disuse does not necessarily lead to effective learning or forgetting.

Later on, Thorndike realised that where rewards do strengthen the bond between stimulus and response, punishment does not necessarily decrease the strength of this bond.

### **SECONDARY LAWS**

#### **Law of Multiple Response/ Varied Reactions**

According to it, when an individual confronts with a new situation, he responds in a variety of ways till the appropriate behaviour is hit upon. For example, if an individual wants to solve a puzzle, he will try in various ways rather than mechanically proceeding in one similar way.

#### **Law of Attitude**

Learning is influenced by the attitude of the learner. It determines not only what the person will do but what will satisfy or annoy him. For instance, if the student sets the attitude to stand first in examination he would spend more quality time in studying, thus enhancing his learning.

#### **Law of Pre-potency of elements**

This law says that the learner selects the essential or important element and neglects the other which may be irrelevant or unimportant.

## **Law of Analogy**

According to this law, the individual responds to a new situation by making use of his earlier experiences. For example, learning to drive a motor cycle is facilitated by his earlier experience of riding a bicycle.

## **Law of Associative Shifting**

According to this law, "Any response may be elicited from the learner, of which he is capable, in association with any situation to which he is sensitive." Thorndike illustrated this by the act of teaching a cat to stand up at a command. Initially he used a piece of fish and oral command of 'stand up' to make cat stand up. After a number of trials, it was found that oral command alone evoked the response of standing up.

With the passage of time, various psychologists gave their views regarding the theories of learning. Norman disagreed with those theories which view learning as an automatic process as in Thorndike's 'Law of Effect'. Rather, he emphasized the information from experience. He closely followed Jean Piaget by assuming that when something is remembered or learned it is added to what has already been learned. Norman (1976) summarized his thoughts on learning in three laws, which emphasize the causal relationship between actions and outcomes.

## **The Law of Causal Relationship**

According to this law, an apparent causal relationship between a specific action and its outcome is required to learn their relationship.

## **The Law of Causal Learning:**

It states " For desirable outcomes the learner attempts to repeat those particular actions that have an apparent causal relation to desired outcomes. For undesirable outcomes, the learner attempts to avoid those particular actions that have an apparent relation to the undesirable outcomes".

That is, this law can be studied under two parts for desirable outcome or for undesirable outcomes. Further, the term " apparent" in this causal law implies that learners can only

infer logical relationships between actions and outcomes. These may not reflect the physical situations that exist in the real world.

### **The Law of Information Feedback**

According to this law, the outcome of an event serves as information about that event.

## **14.2.2 Theories of Learning**

Connectionist or behaviorists theories belong to the school of behaviourism. They interpret learning in terms of connection or association between stimulus and response. Cognitive theories, belong to the school of Gestalt psychology and cognitive psychology. In place of a purely mechanical or instrumental approach these theories emphasize the role of purpose, insight, understanding, reasoning, memory and other cognitive factors in the process of learning.

### **Trial and Error Theory of Learning**

The famous psychologists Edward L. Thorndike (1874-1945) propounded the theory of trial and error learning based on the findings of his experiments on chickens, rats and cats. In one of his experiments, he put a hungry cat in a puzzle box. There was only one door which could be opened by correctly manipulating a latch. A fish was placed outside the box. The situation is described by Thorndike himself as.

"It tries to squeeze through every opening; it claws and bites at the bars or wires.

If thrusts, its paws through any opening and claws at everything it reaches" In this way, it made a number of random movements and in one of the random movements, the latch was manipulated accidentally. The cat came out and got its reward.

In another trial the process was repeated. The cat was kept hungry and placed in the same puzzle box. The fish and its smell again worked as a motive for it to get out of the box: it again made random movements and frantic efforts. But this time, it took less time to come out. In subsequent trials such incorrect responses, biting, clawing and dashing were gradually reduced and the cat took less time on each succeeding trial. In due

course, it was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon it was put in the box. In this way, gradually, the cat learned the art of opening.

1. **Drive:** In the present experiment it was hunger and was intensified by the sight of the food.

2. **Goal:** To get at the food by getting out of the box.

3. **Block:** The cat was confined in the box with a closed with a closed door.

4. **Random movements:** The cat persistently tried to come out of the box without knowing how.

5. **Chance success:** As a result of this striving and random movements the cat, by chance, succeeded in opening the door.

6. **Selection (of proper movement).** Gradually, the cat recognised the correct way to manipulate the latch. It selected proper way of manipulating the latch out of its random movements.

7. **Fixation:** At last, the cat learned the proper way to open the door by eliminating all the incorrect responses and fixing only the right response. Now it was able to open the door without any error or in other words, learned the correct way of opening the door.

The major theoretical principles which form the basis of Thorndike's theory of learning are summarized as follows.

**Learning involves trial and error or selection connection.** Thorndike named the learning of his experimental cats as "trial and error learning". Through his experiments, he found out that learning is the stamping in of the correct responses and stamping out of the incorrect responses through a process of trial and error. In trying to find the correct solution, the cat made many false attempts. In the subsequent trials, it tried to avoid the wrong moves and to repeat the correct way of manipulating the latch. Thorndike termed this as learning by selecting and connecting as it provides an opportunity for the selection of the proper responses and to connect or associate them with adequate stimuli.

**Learning is the result of the formation of connection.** According to Thorndike, learning is the result of the formation of a connection in the nervous system between the stimuli and the responses. Thorndike (1931) writes that learning is connecting. The mind is man's connection system. According to him there is a definite association between senses, impression, impulse and action. This association is named a bond or connection. Since it is the strengthening or weakening of these bonds or connections, which result in the making or breaking of habits. Thorndike's system is sometimes called "Bond psychology" or just "connectionism".

**Learning is incremental and not insightful.** Continuing to increasing the number of trials or practice will gradually improve our performance. Thorndike termed such improvement in performance as incremental and so concluded that learning is always terminated. Learning, according to Thorndike, needs several attempts and trials and then occurs in small systematic steps rather than in huge jumps.

**Learning is direct, not mediated by ideas.** Thorndike found that learning is a simple, semi-mechanical process of establishing a simple connection between sensory stimuli and the appropriate responses and does not involve mediation by any ideas, reasoning or thinking.

### **Thorndike's Laws of Learning**

#### **1. The law of readiness**

When any conduction unit is ready to conduct, for it to do so is satisfying. When any conduction unit is not in readiness to conduct, for it to conduct is annoying. When any according to Thorndike, is preparation for action. It is essential for learning. If the child is ready to learn, he learns more quickly, effectively and with greater satisfaction than if he is not ready to learn.

#### **2. The law of effect**

When a modifiable connection between stimulus and response is made and is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that connection's strength increased. When made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased. In other words, learning can be said to



have taken place properly when it results in satisfaction and the learner derives pleasure from it. Therefore, the satisfaction and dissatisfaction, pleasure or displeasure resulting from a learning experience decides the degree of its effectiveness.

This law emphasizes the role of rewards and punishment in the process of learning. Getting a reward as a result of some learning motivates and encourages the child to proceed with increased intensity and enthusiasm while punishment of any kind discourages him and creates distaste for the learning.

### 3. **Revised law of effect**

Later researches of Thorndike made him realise that his law of effect was not really correct (1930). He found that while a pleasant or satisfying situation resulted in the strengthening of the connection between stimulus and responses, an unpleasant or annoying situation did not necessarily decrease the strength of the connection. From this he concluded that while reinforcements in the form of reward or incentives increase the strength of the connection, unpleasant experiences in the form of pain or punishment do not necessarily weaken it. Thorndike's views regarding the effectiveness of negative measure like punishment in the breaking of undesirable habits and behaviour modification revolutionized the task of rearing and education of children.

#### **The law of use**

When a modifiable connection is made between a situation and response that connection's strength is, other things being equal, increased.

#### **The law of disuse**

When modifiable connection is not made between a situation and response, during a length of time, that connection's strength is decreased.

The law of use refers to the strengthening of a connection with practice and the law of disuse to the weakening of connection or forgetting when the practice is discontinued. It can be said in short, that the law of exercise as a whole emphasizes the need for repetition.

#### **Revised law of exercise**

After 1930 Thorndike also revised the law of exercise. Further work and experiments on the law of exercise demonstrated that both the laws of use and disuse do not work as effectively as propounded by him earlier. He later held that use in the shape of mere repetition does not result in effective strengthening of the connection, not the disuse or lack of practice result in the total weakening of the connection. Mechanical use or disuse, therefore, does not necessarily lead to effective learning or total forgetting.

Thorndike may thus be said to have discarded the law of use and disuse after 1930. Thorndike's idea of connectionism led to the enunciation of the following important laws.

#### **Law of multiple response or varied reactions**

This law implies that when an individual is confronted with new situation he responds in a variety of ways trying first one response and then another before arriving at the correct one. **Law of multiple responses or varied reactions**

This law implies that when an individual is confronted with a new situation he responds in a variety of ways trying first one response and then another before arriving at the correct one. **Law of attitude**

Learning is guided by a total attitude or 'set' of the organism. The learner performs the task properly if he has developed a healthy attitude towards the task.

#### **Law of analogy**

An individual responds to a new situation on the basis of the responses made by him in similar situation in the past. i.e., he makes responses by comparison or analogy.

The law of analogy propounded by Thorndike led to his famous "identical elements theory" of the transfer of learning or training which states that transfer from one situation or learning to another depends upon the extent and number of elements or components which are common to both situation.

#### 4. **Law of association shifting**

This law states that "Any response may be elicited from the learner of which he is capable, in association with any situation to which he is sensitive. In other words, any response which is possible can be linked with any stimulus.

##### **Theory of Classical Conditioning**

A Russian psychologist named Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) encountered an unforeseen problem the dogs in his experiment salivated not only upon actually eating but also when they saw the food, noticed the man who usually brought it, or even heard his footsteps. Pavlov began to study this phenomenon which he called 'conditioning'. Since the type of conditioning emphasized was a classical one – quite different from the conditioning emphasized by other psychologists at the later state-it has been renamed classical conditioning.

In one of his experiments, Pavlov kept a dog hungry for a few days and then tied him to the experimental table which was fitted with certain mechanically controlled devices. Arrangement was made to give food to the dog through an automatic mechanism. He also arranged for a bell to ring every time food was presented to the dog.

When the food was put before the dog and the bell was rung, there was automatic secretion of saliva from the mouth of the dog. The activity of presenting the food accompanied with the ringing of the bell was repeated several times and the amount of saliva secreted was measured. After several trials the dog was given no food but the bell was rung. In this case also, the amount of saliva secreted was recorded and measured. It was found that even the absence of food (the natural stimulus), the ringing of the bell an artificial stimulus) caused the dog to secrete the saliva (natural response).

The above experiment thus brings to light four essential elements of the conditioning process. The first element is a natural stimulus, technically known as unconditioned stimulus (US) i.e, food. It results in a natural response called the unconditioned response (UR). This response constitutes the second element.

The third element is the artificial stimulus, i.e. the ringing of the bell which is technically known as a conditioned stimulus (CS). It is substituted for the natural

stimulus (food). To begin with, the conditioned stimulus does not evoke the desired response. i.e., the conditioned response (CR). The fourth element is the chain of the conditioning process. However, as a result of conditioning, one learns to produce behaviour in the form of a conditioned response to conditioned stimuli.

The theory of conditioning as advocated by Pavlov, thus considers learning as habit formation and is based on the principle of association and substitution. It is simply a S-R type of learning where in place of a natural stimulus like food, water, sexual contact etc., an artificial stimulus like the sound of the bell, sight of light of a definite colour etc., can evoke a natural response. When both artificial or natural stimulus (ringing of the bell) and the natural stimulus (food) are brought together several times, the dog becomes schooled or conditioned to respond to this situation. A perfect association occurs between the types of stimuli presented together. As a result, after some time, the natural stimulus can be substituted or replaced by an artificial stimulus and this artificial stimulus is able to evoke the natural response.

### **Principles of Classical Conditioning**

The theory of classical conditioning emphasized by Pavlov and Watson gave birth to a number of important concepts and principles in the field of learning such as:

- 1. Extinction:** It was noted by Pavlov that if the conditioned stimulus (ringing of the bell) is presented alone a number of times without the food, the magnitude of the conditioned responses of salivation begins to decrease and so does the probability of it appearing at all. This process of gradual disappearance of the conditioned response or disconnection of the S.R. Association called extinction.
- 2. Spontaneous recovery:** It was also discovered by Pavlov that after extinction. When conditioned responses are no longer evident, the behaviour often reappears spontaneously but at a reduced intensity. This phenomenon the reappearance of an apparently extinguished conditioned response (CR) after an interval in which the pairing of conditioned stimulus (CS) and

unconditioned stimulus (US) has not been repeated is called spontaneous recovery.

3. **Stimulus generalization:** Pavlov's dog provided conditioned response (Salivation) not at the sight of the food but to every stimulus like ringing of the bell, appearance of light, sound of the footsteps of the feeder etc., associated with its being fed. Responding to the stimuli in such generalized way was termed as stimulus generalization with reference to a particular stage of learning behaviour in which an individual once conditioned to respond to specific stimulus is made to respond in the same way in response to other stimuli of similar nature.
4. **Stimulus discrimination:** Stimulus discrimination is the opposite of stimulus generalization. Here, in sharp contrast to responding in a usual fashion, the subject learns to react differently in different situations. Conditioning through the mechanism of stimulus discrimination one learns to react only to a single specific stimulus discrimination one learns to react only to a single specific stimulus out of the multiplicity of stimuli and to distinguish and discriminate one from the others among a variety of stimuli present in our movement.

### **Cognitive Learning Theories**

According to cognitive theories, learning is a process of developing understanding or insight in the learner. The important cognitive theories are discussed below:

**1. Insight learning Theory :** Insight is the sudden grasping of solution for a problematic situation, a flash of understanding which comes to tell us all of a sudden. It is the sudden awareness of relationships in a total situation. The theory of learning by insight is the contribution of Gestalt psychologists. They consider learning as the development of insight which is concerned with perception. Basic concepts of insight learning

1. Learning is purposive, exploratory and creative in which total situation is considered.

2. Learning situation is a problem situation and the learner can find solution as a whole. 3. Learner perceives the situation as a whole and takes proper decision in an intelligent way.

4. The learner responds to the proper relationship rather than specific stimuli.

5. Learning occurs spontaneously and suddenly by the development of insight.

**Steps in Insight Learning:** 1) Identifying the problem (2) Understanding the problem (3) Incubation of Ideas (4) Trial of mode of response (5) Sustained attention, (6) Insight development (7) Steady repetition adaptive behaviour (8) Comprehension of ability.

### **Gestalt Laws of Learning**

1. Law of similarity: In this the elements of a stimulus configuration will be group together perceptually if they are similar to each other. Stimuli of similar shape, size or colour tend to be grouped together.

2. Law of proximity: In this elements nearer to each other are perceived as part of the same configuration. It refers to tendency to perceive stimuli nearer to one other as belonging together.

3. Law of closure: In this we tend to close the open edges of a figure to make the stimulus configuration complete. Groupings are usually made in terms of enclosed or completed figures rather than open ones.

4. Law of Continuity: In this we link individual elements of a configuration so that they found continuous pattern that make sense to us.

### **2. Kurt Lewin's Field Theory**

According to the theory proposed by Kurt Lewin, learning is a process of perceptual organisation or reorganisation of one's life space involving insight and emphasizes on behaviour and motivation in learning.

Field or life-space is a psychological representation of an individual's environment. It consists of everything that affects the behaviour of the individual

at a particular time. It includes drives, motives, beliefs, objects and events. Life-space is surrounded by a non- psychological boundary called the foreign hull.

The person is represented as moving in his life-space. Psychologically a person is composed of two components - motor perceptual stratum and inner personal stratum. The life space also contains goals, the barriers that restrict person's movement towards the goal, and the path he must follow to reach the goal. A person in life-space is always under the influence of psychological factors called vectors. It controls the movement of a person towards a goal. According to Lewin, learning is a change in cognitive structure (change in the structure of life-space of the individual). The movement of the person is decided by the valence (attracting or repelling force) of the goal. When the person is attracted it is positive valence and when the person is repelled it is negative valence.

The valences create conflicts. There are three types of conflicts.

1. Approach-Approach conflict: It arises when person is caught in between two goals both having positive valences.
2. Approach-Avoidance conflict: It arises when the person is caught in between a positive and a negative goal.
3. Avoidance-Avoidance conflict: It arises when the person is caught in between two goals both having negative valences.

### **3. Bruner's theory of Learning by Discovery**

According to Bruner, learning is an active social process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based on their current knowledge. The learner selects the information, forms hypotheses and then integrates this new material in to their own existing knowledge and cognitive structure. The cognitive structure provides meaning and organisation to experiences and allows the individual to go beyond the information given. This process continues.

According to Bruner learning takes place in three stages namely, enactive, iconic and symbolic.

**Enactive:** in the enactive stage, children need to have concrete experiences like manipulating objects by themselves in order to develop a better understanding.

**Iconic:** in this stage learners are able to identify materials represented in the form of pictures and icons (graphic representation).

**Symbolic:** in this stage learners are able to use their logic and higher thinking skills and symbolic systems like formulas and equations.

**Discovery Learning:** in the discovery learning propounded by Bruner, learners are inquirers of knowledge in which they have to acquire it in which it is generated. Under this method, the learner is presented with a problematic situation to which the learners seek alternative methods to solving the problem under consideration. This follows three steps like activation, maintenance and direction. Activation implies initiation of actions, maintenance implies sustaining the action initiated and direction implies movements or action directed towards the achievement of goals.

### **Piaget's Learning Theory**

Piaget's approach to learning is the readiness approach, which in developmental psychology emphasises that every individual's learning capacity progresses with maturation. The individual's ability to learn is related to the stage of intellectual development attained. According to Piaget, there are four stages of development, and the thinking or cognition of an individual varies from stage to stage. Hence the capacity to learn also varies from stage to stage. The four stages of development identified by Jean Piaget are given below.

- 1. Sensori- motor stage: (birth-2years).** During this stage the child is able to differentiate from objects and recognises self as agent of action; hence begins to act intentionally. The child also achieves object permanence by which the child realises that things continue to exist even when they are no longer visible to the senses.
- 2. Pre-operational stage: (2-7years).** During this stage the child learns to use language and begins to represent objects by images and words. The child still



follows egocentric thinking and finds it difficult to identify with the view points of others. The child develops the capacity to classify objects according to one single characteristic.

3. **Concrete Operational stage: (7-11 years).** The child develops the capacity to think logically about the events and objects that appear around them. Another distinct feature is that the child develops the quality of conservation of numbers, weights, etc, and learns to classify objects according to several characteristics. The child also develops the capacity to arrange things in order according to a single dimension (example, height of objects).
4. **Formal operational stage: (12-15 years).** At this stage the child develops the capacity of logical and abstract thinking. The individual is able to test hypotheses and deal with problems that are not present in the environment (ideological problems). This stage reflects the advanced stage in the functioning of the cognitive system. The individual solves problems through mental manipulations of symbols by adopting a logical and systematic way.

According to Piaget, cognitive development takes place in three processes. They are assimilation, accommodation and equilibration. Assimilation is the process whereby the learner incorporates new information in such a way that it fits in to the existing cognitive structure. It is through assimilation the newly learned information are incorporated in to the existing cognitive structure. In accommodation, the individual modifies the existing cognitive structure so as to accommodate the newly learned information in to it. Equilibration involves the individual's maintaining a balance between himself and the environment. That is, while encountering a new situation, the individual experiences a disequilibrium, which is overcome or equilibrated by proper assimilation of the new information and accommodation of the same to the existing cognitive structure.

## **Social Learning Theories**

### **Social Constructivism Theory of Lev Vygotsky**

Social learning theory was proposed by a Russian psychologist Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky's (1896-1934). Vygotsky's theories greatly influenced modern constructivist thinking. He contended that humans, unlike animals who react only to the environment, have the capacity to alter the environment for their own purposes. According to this theory learning is a social process that takes place in a social settings in which the learner learns by interaction or communication through which knowledge is constructed. The social learning theory gives emphasis to the social and cultural context. Vygotsky's "sociocultural theory" suggests that social interaction leads to continuous changes in children's thought and behaviour.

Vygotsky also differentiated between a person's higher and lower mental functions. Lower or elementary functions are genetically inherited; they are our natural mental abilities. In contrast, our higher mental functions develop through social interaction, being socially or culturally mediated. Higher mental functions allow us to move from impulsive behaviour to instrumental action. Mediation occurs through the use of tools or signs of a culture. Language and symbolism are used initially to mediate contact with the social environment, then within ourselves. This cognitive development is a process in which language is a crucial tool for determining how a child will learn how to think because advanced modes of thought are transmitted to the child by means of words.

There are several core principles of development at the heart of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. They are as follows:

(a) Children construct their knowledge, (b) Development cannot be separated from its social context, (c) Learning can lead development, and (d) Language plays a central role in mental development.

In addition, the sociocultural theory contains another widely recognized element called the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Vygotsky believed that any pedagogy creates learning processes that lead to development and thus this sequence results in "zones of proximal development." It's the

concept that a child will accomplish a task that he or she cannot do alone, with help from a more skilled person.

Vygotsky also described the ZPD as the difference between the actual development level as determined by individual problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or collaboration with more knowledgeable peers.

In order for the ZPD to be such a success, it must contain two features. The first is called subjectivity. This term describes the process in which two individuals begin a task with different understanding but then eventually arrive at a shared understanding despite original differences in thought or thought process. The second feature is scaffolding, which refers to a change in the social support over the course of a teaching session. If scaffolding is successful, a child's mastery or level of performance can change, which means that it can increase a child's performance on a particular task.

### **Social Learning Theory of Albert Bandura**

Social learning theory or social cognition theory was proposed by a Canadian psychologist called Albert Bandura. The theory explains the influences of social modeling, human cognition, and motivation on behaviour. The development of the theory was influenced by his early psychological research studies and by his early life experiences. In his theory, Bandura presents humans as adaptable and agentic (i.e., capable of effecting desired change) individuals who use direct and indirect learning sources to guide their present and future actions.

In social cognition theory, Bandura presents human behaviour as being largely a product of direct and indirect learning. Direct learning (also referred to as trial and error learning) is reinforced through the learner's receipt of rewards or punishments. Indirect learning (also called vicarious learning and observational learning) occurs when the learner alters his or her behaviour without receiving rewards or punishment. For Bandura, observational learning had important advantages over trial and error learning. Whereas trial and error learning is risky and time-consuming, observational learning saves the

learner both time and risk by allowing him or her to learn from the successes and mistakes of others.

Central to Bandura's theory of social cognition is the term triadic reciprocal causation, which describes the simultaneous influences of thoughts, feelings, and the environment on human behaviour. According to Bandura, human behaviour result from interactions between individual biological factors (e.g., cognitive capabilities), psychological factors (e.g., emotional states) and the environment. These factors influence and are, in turn, influenced by one another; the interactions among these biological, psychological, and environmental factors produce variations in human behaviour. The results of reciprocal causation are that humans are at the same time producers of and products of their environment.

According to Bandura, human beings have a great capacity for symbolism (retain socially modelled information in the form of mental images or verbal descriptions that serve as symbols for future behaviour). Through social modeling, individuals can extend their learning by using symbols from the original modelled behaviour to guide future rules for action.

The modeling process includes four steps like (1) attention (2) retention (3) reproduction and (4) reinforcement.

**1. Attention:** the learner pays attention to the distinct features of the modeled behaviour. The matters being attended by the observer is influenced by the characteristics of modeled behaviour and the learner's characteristics.

**2. Retention:** the behaviour observed by the learner is stored in the memory in the form of mental images or verbal descriptions.

**3. Reproduction:** this step involves the conversion of symbolic representations in to actions or behaviour by the learner. Here, while reproducing actions, the learner organises own behaviour according to the modeled behaviour i.e., the learner imitates the modeled behaviour.

**4. Reinforcement:** positive reinforcement encourages imitation of modeled behaviour and negative reinforcement discourages the imitation there by discontinuation of modeled behaviour.

### 14.3 Self Check Exercise

- What are the characteristics of learning?
- Define the theory of learning.

### 14.4 Summary

Learning is influenced by several factors which can be studied under three major categories as-a) Related to learner b) Related to learning process and c) Related to learning resources and environment. Several psychologists have worked upon the principles which underlie the effective learning called as 'laws of learning'. In this regard, initial experiments were conducted by Thorndike who gave three basic laws viz a viz- Law of Readiness, Law of Exercise and Law of Effect. These were further revised (after 1930) as a result of criticism. Thorndike also gave some secondary laws namely law of multiple response, law of Attitude, Law of Pre-potency elements, law of Analogy and law of Associated shifting. Donald Norman, to some extent disagrees with Thorndike and emphasizes upon information from experience. He has summarized his thoughts on learning in three laws (1976) as-law of causal relationship, law of causal learning and law of information feedback.

### 14.5 Glossary

- **Communication:** the act of sharing or exchanging information, ideas or feelings.
- **Culture:** the customs, ideas, beliefs etc. of a particular society, country, etc.
- **Development:** the process of becoming bigger, stronger, better etc.

### 14.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 14.2
- Refer to section 14.2.2

### 14.7 Suggested Readings

1. Nanda,S.K.,Nanda,V. (2007). Modern Approach to Educational Psychology , Jalandhar :Modern Publishers.
2. Oberoi, S.C. (2007). Educational Technology. New Delhi: Arya Book Depot. Singh, 3. Agyajit.(2018). Growth and Development of the Learner, Patiala.Twenty First Century Publications.
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### **14.8 Terminal Questions**

1. What are the laws of learning?
2. Define the theory of learning

## **Chapter-15**

### **Group Dynamics**

#### **STRUCTURE**

15.0 Introduction

15.1 Objectives

15.2 Group Dynamic: Definition

15.2.1 Concept of Group dynamic

15.2.2 Nature of group

15.2.3 Types of group

15.2.4 Formation of group

15.2.5 Group development

15.3 Self Check Exercise

15.4 Summary

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15.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

15.7 Suggested Readings

15.8 Terminal Questions

#### **15.0 Introduction**

Group dynamics is the scientific approach to the understanding of the dynamics of group. It implies an interactive psychological relationship in which members of a group develop a common perception based on feelings and emotions. Group dynamics refer to the changes that take place within the group. It also refers to forces operating within the groups. Group dynamics is related to the field theory of Lewin which assumes man's behaviour to be a function of the field existing at the time of the occurrence of behaviour. We can further say that it is the study of group processes, their objective analysis and measurement and the effect of group membership on individual members.

Our behaviour is not static. It means that the change of behaviour is through interaction in the group. According to Segal, group dynamics is a process by which one considers other individuals and a problem in a group at the same time. It not only tends to increase

understanding of the problem, but also creates a solution which the individual practices in bringing about emotional balance. We can also say that group dynamics is influenced by sympathy, suggestion and imitation. Sympathy enables the members of a group to perceive the psychological state of the other members. Suggestion plays a big role in influencing group behaviour. The suggestions put forward by leader of a group are implemented by the members of the group.

## **15.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to know

- Understand the meaning of group dynamics.
- Know about the nature of group dynamic.
- Understand the development of group.

## **15.2 Group Dynamic: Definition**

A group includes only persons who share some norms and values about something. We can say that group contains people with interrelated social roles. An aggregate of people may form themselves into a group as a result of interaction. Thus, we can say that groups are the products of interaction. Group interaction is a two way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the other and also in varying degrees that modify the behaviour of the participants. The behaviour and personality characteristics of individual members of a group affect the behaviour of others and make a significant impact over the functioning of a group as a whole.

In this context we can consider two types of groups, viz., formal and informal groups. Formal groups are formed on the basis of specific norms, values etc. School is an example of formal group. On the other hand, play group, peer group and social clubs are examples of informal groups. In informal groups, rules are usually flexible. An individual may belong to many groups. The behaviour of an individual is different from the group behaviour. In the group a person has to act according to the norms of the group and generally, a few individuals may guide the behaviour of the group.

In this context, we can say that group interaction is a two-way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the behaviour of the participants. We can further say that the behaviour and personality characteristics of individual members of a group affect the behaviour of others and ultimately it makes a significant impact over the functioning of a



group as a whole. As for example, we can say that the school is a social institution set up by the society to serve its ends. School is primarily a social institution. Group activities should be encouraged to provide opportunities to the students to participate in the affairs of the group.

One of the important functions of the school is social interaction. Not only are the teachers and pupils continually interacting in the class-room system, but the pupils are also interacting among themselves through special pre determined code or signs or looks, and there are many common stereotypes and values that they share with each other. Like any other social system, the class-room group shows a variety of interactions continuously. Formal structure is not only factor in group functioning. Within this formal structure, there is informal relationship. Communication within the group may flow more through informal channels than through formal ones. The informal sub-groups are typically more homogenous than the classroom group. Not only this, peer group pressures exert a powerful impact in many cases.

### **15.2.1 Concept of Group Dynamic**

The social psychologists seek to explain group behaviour on the basis of social interaction and cultural transmission through social interaction. The interactive psychological relationship is termed as “group dynamics”. The important two variables we can say in this context are “group cohesiveness” and “group locomotion”. Cohesiveness plays a vital role in determining the influence of the group on the members. On the other hand, locomotion indicates the movement towards the desired goal. Personality of the individual and character of the social situation both takes an important role for group dynamics. All the psychological effects take place within the individual members who compose the group. According to Cartwright and Zander (1968), the basic assumptions are:

- i) the groups are inevitable (even the hermits / Sanyasis and the Hippies),
- ii) that groups mobilise powerful forces that produce effects of utmost importance to individuals,
- iii) that groups can produce constructive as well as destructive consequences and
- iv) that it is the correct understanding of group dynamics based on empirical studies that helps in enhancing the constructive aspects of group life and group achievements.

It can also be said that group cohesiveness indicates the degree to which the members stick together so that there is unity in the group. Actually the basis of attraction to the group may lie in the interaction itself because of the mutual satisfaction of needs. The group may be teen-age group or a political group or Group Dynamics a religious group. Three important things one can consider for group cohesiveness, i.e., task direction, personal attraction and group prestige. The strength of the cohesiveness may vary on the basis of the situation. Thus, when we study the group as a whole we are aware of studying changes which occur in the behaviour of the individuals and how these changes are transmitted to all the individuals to the total field, so that the behaviour of the group is altered. On the other hand, when the group itself shows a readiness to change by active participation then actual social change becomes possible. The change will occur when the group actually takes the decision to change. Thus the concept of group dynamics is helpful in understanding social changes which involve not only the introduction of an innovation, but also in overcoming of resistance.

Group dynamics is also influenced by sympathy, suggestion and imitation. Sympathy enables the members of a group to perceive the psychological state of the other members. Actually the members begin to feel as others feel. On the other hand, suggestion plays a big role in influencing the group behaviour. The suggestions put forward by the leader of the group are readily accepted. The behaviour of the leader of the group is initiated by the members of the group. Besides this, some specific group techniques which could be utilised for improvement of the group process, viz., buzz sessions, role playing, brain storming and recreational experiences.

In buzz sessions, in which five or six members participate and is organised for purposes of stimulating discussion. In role playing, problems are handling in such a manner so that it comes for the benefit of the group. Brain storming in which group is organised for stimulating discussion. Recreational experiences where opportunities are provided to the group members to participate in group discussion.

### 15.2.2 Nature of Groups

Suppose you belong to a group where you may observe some special features which you can accept or not. It may be good or bad, healthy or unhealthy favourable or unfavourable, but there are certain significant features say the characteristics of the group.

- i) A sense of we-feeling: There is a feeling of belongingness among the members of the group. The members of the group help each other in performing their duties. They work collectively against the harmful powers. They treat people who do not belong to the group as outsiders. They always try to make the group self-sufficient.
- ii) Common interest: Each and every member of the group has a common interest. There is similarity among the members in regard to their interest which promotes unity. The group includes those persons who are related to each other in such a way that they should be treated as one.
- iii) A feeling of unity: Unity is essential for every group. Each and every member of the group treats each other as their own and there develops a sense of camaraderie amongst the members of group.
- iv) Related to each other: It is true that members of the group are inter-related. There is a reciprocal communication among the group members. Social relations are the fundamentals of group life.
- v) Affected by group characteristics: Every group has some social characteristics which separate it from similar and dissimilar groups. These characteristics affect the members of the group. The nature may be different for different persons, but still all the members are affected by the group.
- vi) Common values: There are certain values which are common among members and are traditionally respected and communicated to the succeeding generation. They are manifested in the mutual behaviours of the members. Members of the social group are bound together in terms of theses common values.
- vii) Control of group: In each group there are some customs, norms and procedures which are acceptable to everyone. In fact, without some norms, the existence of group life is

impossible. It may be stated that the reasons behind the similarity of behaviours in a group life is that the actions of the members are controlled by the group.

- viii) **Obligation:** In a group situation, all members have complementary obligations to each other. Also the relationships between the members of a group get strengthened through their mutual obligation and common social values.
- ix) **Expectations:** Not only mutual obligation, the members of the group also expects love, compassion, empathy, co-operation etc., from all other members of the group. If mutual expectation is fulfilled, the group members are maintained intact. A group can maintain its existence only if the constituent members fulfill their responsibility by satisfying the desires among themselves.

Groups are the units of social organisation. Therefore, the integration and disintegration of social organisation are dependent upon the integration or disintegration of the groups. In group, social relationship is a very important factor. The first and foremost social relationship indicates the relationship among the family members. Thus, it can further be said that family is an important social group. You are one of the members in your family. You interact with other family members and there is a reciprocal relationship between you and others. Certainly you have 'we feeling' where you belong. Among the family members there are relationships such as husband-wife, father-son, and brother-sister etc. and they all work together for the interests of the family in a mood of mutual co-operation. Each and every member of the family treats the other members as his own and in spite of differences of opinion they have some common ideals and values. It is mainly due to common interest of the members that the group works as a well-knit unit.

As for example we can say that "school is a social group". The significant characteristics of the school as a group are:

- 1 All children have a common goal.
- 2. The students and the teacher are motivated for the achievement of a common goal.
- 3. School has an organised structure. | School offers excellent opportunities for group to realize its needs.

### 15.2.3 Types of Group

We can classify groups in different ways. First, it can be divided into two main parts considering the degree of intimacy as the basis of classification.

I **Primary group:** There is an intimate face-to-face relationship among the members and the members are having 'we feeling' to the maximum. Family, play groups and village community come under this category.

2. **Secondary group:** Here the relationships are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Clubs, trade unions etc. are under this category.

3. **In-group/ we group:** Here we identify ourselves with that group which has a common object and common interest. They have a sense of 'we' feeling. The members of the in groups treat others as outsiders. These groups can be formed on the basis of relationship, same country, similar political interests and economic interests etc.

4. **Out-group:** It is the group in which the members are considered as outsiders by us. Groups other than the in-group are generally called out-groups.

On the basis of norms and rules, groups can be categorised into the following types:

1. **Formal group:** It is generally formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. The group of students in a classroom comes under the category of formal group. So, school is one of the formal group settings. I Informal group: The nature of the group is not formed at all. The rules are usually flexible. Play groups, peer group and social clubs etc. are examples of informal groups. Besides the above two, group can also classified into various categories as given below:
2. **Organised groups:** The groups which are formed for specific purpose and are carefully planned is called organised groups. The family, the school etc. are also called organised groups.
3. **Spontaneous groups:** The groups are formed without any careful planning. Audience may be considered as spontaneous group after listening to the speech by a renowned speaker.

4. **Command groups:** Command groups are specified by the organisational chart. It consists of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to the supervisor.
  5. **Task groups:** A group of people work together to achieve a common task. In many situations there is a specified time period. This can be referred to as task forces.
  6. **Functional groups:** Functional group is generally created by the organisation to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional group generally exists after achievement of current goals and objects.
  7. **Interest groups:** It usually continues over time and may last longer than general informal groups. It is seen that the interest of the member may not be part of the same organisational department but they are bound by some common interest.
  8. **Friendship groups:** It may be of different types. These groups are formed by the members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values and other common bonds.
  9. **Reference groups:** This is the group where the people evaluate themselves. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behaviour.
  10. **Temporary Group:** Studies indicate that temporary groups come together for a certain purpose and disburse after the task is over. These groups have their own unique sequencing of actions. The salient features are:
    - i) Their first meeting sets the group's direction.
    - ii) The first phase of group activity is one of inertia.
    - iii) A transition takes place at the end of this first phase, which occurs exactly when the group has used up half its allotted time.
- IV. A transition initiates major changes.
- v) A second phase of inertia follows the transition.
- vi) The group's last meeting is characterised by markedly accelerated activity.

There are other types of groups, a few of which are listed below:

**Clique:** An informal, tight-knit group, usually in a High School/College setting, that shares common interests. There is an established yet shifty power structure in most Cliques. The effects of Cliques are varied.

**Club:** A club is a group, which usually requires one to apply to become a member. Such clubs may be dedicated to particular activities, such as sports clubs.

**Community:** A community is a group of people with a commonality or sometimes a complex net of overlapping commonalities, often, but not always, in proximity with one another with some degree of continuity over time. They often have some organisation and leaders.

**Franchise:** This is an organisation which runs several instances of a business in many locations.

**Gang:** A gang is usually an urban group that gathers in a particular area. It is a group of people that often hang around each other. They can be like some clubs, but much less formal.

**Group:** A group is a basic term for a number of people that associate themselves with each other. This is a basic term which has many uses.

**Mob:** A mob is usually a group of people that has taken the law into their own hands. Mobs are usually a group which gathers temporarily for a particular reason.

**Posse:** A posse was initially an American term for a group of citizens that had banded together to enforce the law. However, it can also refer to a street group.

**Squad:** This is usually a small group, of around 3-8 people, that would work as a team to accomplish a certain goal.

**Team:** This is similar to a squad, though a team may contain many more members. A team works in a similar way as a squad.

### **15.2.4 Formation of Group**

Group formation is concerned with the following:

- i) The manner in which the groups form
- ii) The structures and processes of the group
- iii) The functions of the group in different situations.

### 15.2.5 Group Development

As groups develop over time, group dynamic processes evolve. In this context, we can mention a well-known model by Tuckman (1963), which is known as stage model (as mentioned in unit 1). The stages are:

- i) forming,
- ii) storming,
- iii) norming and
- iv) performing.

**Forming:** At this first stage of development, members are preoccupied with familiarizing themselves with the task and to other members of the group. This is sometimes referred to as the dependent stage, as members tend to depend on outside expertise for guidance, job definition, and task analysis.

**Storming:** At this stage, the group encounters conflict as members confront and criticize each other and the approach the group is taking to their task. Issues that arise include identification of roles and responsibilities, operational rules and procedures, and the individual need for recognition of his or her skills and abilities. This stage is also referred to as the counter dependent stage where members tend to “flex their muscles” in search of identity. In some cases, the group may have problems getting through this stage. This may occur if the group encounters difficulty clarifying their task, agreeing on their mission or mandate, or deciding how they will proceed. Lack of skills, ability or aptitude can also contribute to their inability to get beyond this stage.

**Norming:** At this point, members start to resolve the issues that are creating the conflict and begin to develop their social agreements. The members begin to recognize their interdependence, develop cohesion, and agree on the group norms that will help them function effectively in the future.

**Performing:** When the group has sorted out its social structure and understands its goals and individual roles, it will move toward accomplishing its task. Mutual assistance and creativity become prominent themes at this stage. The group, sensing its growth and maturity, becomes independent, relying on its own resources.



**Adjourning:** During this phase, the group will resort to some form of closure that includes rites and rituals suitable to the event. These may include socials and parties, or ceremonies that exhibit emotional support or celebration of their success.

There is also the widely used model by Garland, Jones and Kolody (1976) Here the five significant stages are:

- i) **Pre-affiliation:** Should be affected to the group.
- ii) **Power and control:** Should be able to have some influences over the other members.
- iii) **Intimacy:** There must be certain closeness and intimacy. iv) **Differentiation:** The group members should be able to differentiate their personal goals from group goals
- iv) **Separation:** This refers to each influence having a separate identity despite being part of the group.

Beginning stages of group development are characterised by the formation of group dynamics. Members interact tentatively, establishing norms, roles and status hierarchies and ultimately a group culture slowly emerges through interaction. At first, interaction is tentative and cautious and there exists little conflict. After that members become more comfortable resistance can develop. After that members want to become a part of the group but at the same time group members maintain their own identity and independence. Many factors affect group development. Structural characteristics have an important impact on group development.

### 15.3 Self Check Exercise

- What is the nature of group?
- Explain the types of group
- Explain group development.

### 15.4 Summary

Like individuals, groups are also entities that pose characteristics and properties which can be observed, measured, classified and predicted. There are certain conditions which predetermine certain kinds of behaviour on the part of members of the group and the group as a whole. The term “group processes” is sometimes applied to the formulations

or explanations of such tendencies. “Group dynamics” is a term introduced by Kurt Lewin. Both “group processes” and “group dynamics” carry the implication that groups are to be considered as entities characterised by change and on-going activity. Groups may be formed in different ways. Once Group Dynamics groups have been formed, they tend to take on certain characteristics. They are likely to develop a structure, whereby members have positions that stand in relationship to one another. Reciprocal role patterns, positions, expectations and certain predetermined attitudes and percepts constitute the structure that gives groups a degree of stability and predictability. The willingness of people to join, remain with, or leave a group may be explained in terms of the rewards they receive and the costs that they incur.

Existence of any group depends on the participation and satisfaction of the individuals comprising the group. Social approval as far as the individual is concerned is expressed in terms of his being accepted by other members. As far as the group is concerned, it is expressed in terms of the individual's conformity to its norms. The group's willingness to accept is thus exchanged for the member's willingness to conform. It is fundamental to group life. This type of exchange is so fundamental in group life that it is difficult to imagine ourselves particularly in any other way. There is an intimate relationship between group acceptance and individual conformity. Group may be formed voluntarily and spontaneously because of a felt need to socialise or to accomplish some practical aim or they may be converted by external authority. The attractiveness of group that develops for its members is termed as its cohesiveness. Compatibility generally facilitates cohesiveness but cohesiveness and compatibility are not necessarily conducive to group effectiveness in some kinds of tasks. Generally, group cohesiveness depends on the extent to which members recognise and adhere to its norms. Small, intimate, face-to-face groups are the ones that demand and receive the highest degree of personal involvement. Group may be inclusive or exclusive depending on their functions and goals. In traditional societies exclusiveness is more likely to be based on social status than in more equalitarian societies. Our behaviour is not static. Interaction is an important part in this regard.

Group dynamics is essential for effective practice with any type of task or treatment group. Group dynamics mainly depends on:

- i) communication process and interaction patterns;
- ii) interpersonal attraction and cohesion;
- iii) social integration and influence;
- iv) power control and
- v) culture.

Although an understanding of group dynamics is essential for effective practice with individuals and communities, it is our belief that focused attention to the dynamic processes that occur in groups is what distinguishes group work from other forms of social work practice. We can say that culture, ethnicity and race affect the dynamic processes that develop and evolve in groups.

## 15.5 Glossary

- **Culture:** The pattern of all arrangements, material or behavioural, which have been adopted by a society.
- **Group :** A collection of individuals who are in interdependent relationship with one another sharing common norms of behaviour and attitude.
- **Belief :** Acceptance of a statement about an object, event, person or group.
- **Society :** The most complex type of human group composed of many subgroups.

## 15.6 Answers to Self Check Exercise

- Refer to section 15.2.2
- Refer to section 15.2.3
- Refer to section 15.2.5

## 15.7 Suggesting Readings

1. Baron, R.A. and Byrne, D.(2000). Social Psychology, 8th Edition, Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.

2. Kuppuswamy, B.(1980), An Introduction to Social Psychology, 2nd Revised edition, (reprinted,2004), Asia Publishing House, Mumbai.

3. Myers, G. David (2008), Social Psychology, 9th edition, The McGraw Hill Companies, Inc.

### **15.8 Terminal Questions**

1. Define group dynamics.
2. What are the types of group dynamics?
3. Explain the formation and development of group dynamics.

## **Chapter-16**

### **Inter and Intera Group**

#### **STRUCTURE**

16.0 Introduction

16.1 Objective

16.2 Inter Group and Intera Group Relation

16.2.1 Competition and Conflict between the Groups

16.3 Collective Behaviour

16.3.1 Elementary Forms of Collective Behaviour

16.4 Milling

16.5 Rumour

16.6 Public

16.6.1 Nature of Public

16.7 Audience

16.7.1 Types of Audience

16.7.2 Definition of Audience

16.8 Crowd

16.8.1 Characteristics of Crowd

16.8.2 Types of Crowd

16.9 Mob

16.10 Self- Check Exercise

16.11 Answers to Self Check Exercise

16.12 Summary

16.13 Glossary

16.14 Answers to Self Check Exercise

16.15 Suggested Readings

16.16 Terminal Questions

#### **16.0 Introduction**

Try to imagine a world without groups. It is almost impossible. Nearly everything we do and experience involves groups: we work in groups, play in groups and are brought up in groups. Without groups there world effectively be no agriculture, no economy, no

culture, no religion, no pyramids, no cities, no computers also so forth and of course no group membership based prejudice, discrimination, disadvantages and genocides. Groups are neither good nor bad: they just are and they pervade almost all aspects of human experience. Humans are not merely social animals: we are group animals.

## **16.1 Objectives**

In this chapter we will be able to know

- Understand the intra and inter group relation.
- Know about conflicts between groups.
- Analyse the collective behaviour.

## **16.1 Intergroup and Intra- group relations**

The interaction between people in small, face-to-face interactive task-oriented groups and the study of intergroup relations examines how people and groups perceive and interact with or in the context of other groups. Intra group relation- the way in which who belongs to social groups or categories perceive, think about, feel about and act towards and interact with people in other groups. An alternative view on intergroup relations is that the tenor of intergroup perceptions and behaviour cannot be deduced from personality and individual differences but reflects the nature of relationship that groups believe they have with one another. Intergroup relations will be competitive and hostile, if two groups share a common super ordinate goal that they can achieve only through cooperation, intergroup relation will be harmonious. Intergroup relations refer to interactions between individuals in different social group, and to interactions taking place between the groups themselves collectively. It has long been a subject research in social psychology, Political psychology and organizational behaviour. In 1966, Muzafer sheriff proposed a now- widely recognized definition of intergroup relations: whenever individuals belonging to one group interact, collectively or individually with another group and its members in terms of their group identification, we have an instance of intergroup behaviour. So we can say that intergroup relations refer to way in which people in group perceive, think about, feel about and act towards people on other groups. The combined force of individual can lead to improved performance of a task. Intergroup relations (relationship between different groups of people) range along a spectrum between tolerance and intolerance. The most tolerant form of intergroup

relations is pluralism, in which no distinction is made between minority and majority groups, but instead there's equal standing. At the other end of the continuum are amalgamation, expulsion and even genocide- stark examples of intolerant intergroup relations.

#### Intera Group

The meaning of Interagroup is being or occurring within a single group.

### **16.2.1 Competition and Conflict between the Groups**

Conflict is a process in which either an individual or a group perceives that others (individual or group) have opposing interests, and both try to contradict each other. There is this intense feeling of 'we' and 'other' (also referred to as 'they'). There is also a belief by both parties that the other will protect only its own interests; their (the other side's) interests will, therefore, not be protected. There is not only opposition of each other, but they also try to exert power on each other. Groups have been found to be more aggressive than individuals. This often leads to escalation of conflict. All conflicts are costly as there is a human price for them. In wars, there are both victories and defeats, but the human cost of war is far beyond all this. Various types of conflict are commonly seen in society, which turns out to be costly for both sides as well as for society.

Mentioned below are some of the major reasons for group conflicts.

- One major reason is lack of communication and faulty communication by both parties. This kind of communication leads to suspicion, i.e. there is a lack of trust. Hence, conflict results.
- Another reason for intergroup conflict is relative deprivation. It arises when members of a group compare themselves with members of another group, and perceive that they do not have what they desire to have, which the other group has. In other words, they feel that they are not doing well in comparison to other groups. This may lead to feelings of deprivation and discontentment, which may trigger off conflict.
- Another cause of conflict is one party's belief that it is better than the other, and what it is saying should be done. When this does not happen, both parties start accusing each

other. One may often witness a tendency to magnify even smaller differences; thereby conflict gets escalated because every member wants to respect the norms of her/his group.

- A feeling that the other group does not respect the norms of my group, and actually violates those norms because of a malevolent intent.
- Desire for retaliation for some harm done in the past could be another reason for conflict.
- Biased perceptions are at the root of most conflicts. As already mentioned earlier, feelings of 'they' and 'we' lead to biased perceptions.
- Research has shown that when acting in groups, people are more competitive as well as more aggressive than when they are on their own. Groups compete over scarce resources, both material resources, e.g. territory, and money as well as social resources, e.g. respect and esteem.
- Perceived inequity is another reason for conflict. Equity refers to distribution of rewards in proportion to an individual's contributions, if:

But, if you contribute more and get less, you are likely to feel irritated and exploited. Conflicts between groups give impetus to a series of social and cognitive processes. These processes harden the stand of each side leading to in group polarisation. This may result in coalition formation of likeminded parties, thereby increasing the apprehensions of both parties resulting in misperceptions, and biased interpretations and attributions. The result is increased conflict. Present-day society is fraught with various intergroup conflicts. These are related to caste, class, religion, region, language, just to name a few of them. Gardner Murphy wrote a book entitled 'In the Minds of Men'. Most conflicts begin in the minds of men and then go to the field. Explanations of such conflicts can be at the structural, group, and individual levels. Structural conditions include high rates of poverty, economic and social stratification, inequality, limited political and social opportunity, etc. Research on group level factors has shown that social identity, realistic conflict between groups over resources, and unequal power relations between groups lead to escalation of conflict. At the individual level, beliefs,



biased attitudes, and personality characteristics are important determinants. It has been found that at the individual level, there is a progression along a continuum of violence. Very small acts that initially may have no significance, like calling the other group a name, may lead to psychological changes that make further destructive actions possible.

Deutsch identified the following consequences of intergroup conflict.

Communication between the groups becomes poor. The groups do not trust each other, thereby leading to a breakdown in communication and this generates suspicion for each other.

- Groups start magnifying their differences and start perceiving their behaviour as fair and the other's behaviour as unfair.
- Each side tries to increase its own power and legitimacy. As a consequence, the conflict gets escalated shifting from few specific issues to much larger issues.
- Once conflict starts, several other factors lead to escalation of conflict. Hardening of in group opinion, explicit threats directed at the out group, each group retaliating more and more, and other parties also choosing to take sides lead to escalation of conflict.

According to social identity theory, intergroup conflict starts with a process of comparison between individuals in one group (the in group) to those of another group (the out group). This comparison process is not unbiased and objective. Instead, it is a mechanism for enhancing one's self-esteem. In the process of such comparisons, an individual tends to:

- favor the in group over the out group
- exaggerate and over generalize the differences between the in group and the out group (to enhance group distinctiveness)
- minimize the perception of differences between in group members
- remember more detailed and positive information about the in group, and
- more negative information about the out group

Even without any intergroup interaction (as in the minimal group paradigm), individuals begin to show favoritism towards their own group, and negative reactions towards the out group. This conflict can result in prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination. Intergroup conflict can be highly competitive, especially for social groups with a long history of conflict. In contrast, intergroup competition can sometimes be relatively harmless, particularly in situations where there is little history of conflict (for example, between students of different universities) leading to relatively harmless generalizations and mild competitive behaviors. Intergroup conflict is commonly recognized amidst racial, ethnic, religious, and political groups.

The formation of intergroup conflict was investigated in a popular series of studies by Muzafer Sherif and colleagues in 1961, called the Robbers Cave Experiment. The Robbers Cave Experiment was later used to support realistic conflict theory. Other prominent theories relating to intergroup conflict include social dominance theory, and social & self-categorization theory.

Outlined below are several strategies developed for reducing the tension, bias, prejudice, and conflict between social groups. These include the contact hypothesis, the jigsaw classroom, and several categorization-based strategies.

### **16.3 Collective Behaviour**

The U.S. sociologist Robert E. Park, who coined the term collective behaviour, defined it as “the behaviour of individuals under the influence of an impulse that is common and collective, an impulse, in other words, that is the result of social interaction.” He emphasized that participants in crowds, fads, or other forms of collective behaviour share an attitude or behave alike, not because of an established rule or the force of authority, and not because as individuals they have the same attitudes, but because of a distinctive group process.

The absence of formal rules by which to distinguish between members and outsiders, to identify leaders, to establish the aims of the collectivity, to set acceptable limits of behaviour for members, and to specify how collective decisions are to be made accounts for the volatility of collective behaviour. The leader of a mob can become the

object of the mob's hatred in a matter of minutes; a fashion leader can suddenly become passé.

Although agreeing that collective behaviour does not generally adhere to everyday rules, some investigators emphasize the emergence of rules and patterns within the collectivity that are related to the surrounding [social structure](#). The U.S. psychologist Ralph H. Turner and the U.S. sociologist Lewis M. Killian define collective behaviour on the basis of “the spontaneous development of [norms](#) and organization which contradict or reinterpret the norms and organization of society.” Somewhat similar is the U.S. sociologist [Neil J. Smelser's](#) definition: “mobilization on the basis of a [belief](#) which redefines social action.” The distinctive belief—which is a generalized [conception](#) of events and of the members' relationships to them—supplies the basis for the development of a distinctive and stable organization within the collectivity. But Smelser's definition points attention, in a way that other definitions do not, toward the unique manner in which members perceive reality; without such a view a group of people would not be engaged in collective behaviour.

The U.S. sociologist Herbert Blumer determined a desire for [social change](#) in collective behaviour, as expressed in his definition: “a collective enterprise to establish a new order of life.” This definition, however, excludes many of the temporary escapes from conventional life through revelry and orgies, punitive actions such as lynchings, and panics, which are not oriented to any kind of reconstruction of social life or society. Most students of collective behaviour, however, would not restrict the field so severely.

### **16.3.1 Elementary forms of Collective Behaviour**

Regardless of where or how collective behaviour develops, it requires some kind of preparation. In organized groups there are [rituals](#), such as personal introductions, the toastmaster's [humour](#), and group singing, to [facilitate](#) the transition from individual action to group interaction. People may act together efficiently if they have been prepared for a pattern of behaviour such as a fire drill, but the result is organized rather than collective behaviour. Lacking organization, people must first become sensitized to and begin to communicate with one another. These processes of sensitization and [communication](#) have been called elementary collective behaviour. Three important elementary forms are milling, rumour, and social unrest.

## 16.4 Milling

Prior to most instances of collective behaviour there is a period during which people move about in a somewhat agitated but aimless way. Early students of crowd behaviour, struck by the resemblance to the milling of cattle before a stampede, gave this form of human activity its name. Its [characteristic](#) physical restlessness can be seen in an audience waiting for a late-starting program to begin or among citizens who have just received word of an assassination attempt. In the former case people scuffle their feet, leave their seats and walk about, and sometimes join spontaneously in rhythmic behaviour, such as foot stamping. In the latter case people discontinue routine activities and talk with neighbours, friends, and strangers. In most situations milling also means looking for clues to others' feelings, such as sweating, nervousness, and changes in tone of voice.

Human milling has at least four important effects. First, it sensitizes people to one another. In this sense milling focuses people's attention on the collectivity and on a subject or problem. Second, milling tends to produce a common [mood](#) among the interacting individuals. Where some might react with sorrow, others with anger, and still others with [partisan](#) delight or indifference, milling helps to diffuse a single mood within a group. Third, milling develops a common image or interpretation of the situation. The milling throng decides whether the Western tourist taking pictures of a marketplace in the native quarter of an Asian city is harmless or an affront to native dignity; whether the police in an American city are simply arresting a drunken driver or harassing an oppressed minority. Finally, milling sets in motion the process of redefining the rules that govern behaviour. The milling of an audience is usually the signal that customary rules of courtesy toward performers and speakers are no longer applicable and that different forms of behaviour may be expected.

## 16.5 Rumour

Rumour abounds under certain circumstances. The U.S. psychologists [Gordon W. Allport](#) and Leo Postman offered the generalization that rumour intensity is high when both the interest in an event and its [ambiguity](#) are great. The U.S. sociologist Tamotsu Shibutani agreed, contending that rumour abounds when the [demand for news](#) is greater than is the supply provided through institutional channels.

At least two conditions must be added to interest and ambiguity as prerequisites for rumour. First, rumour abounds when a group of people share the need to act but are reluctant to do so until the situation can be better defined. Second, rumour abounds only when the situation requires that in some essential respect the members of the group act in concert rather than individually.

There are three major kinds of situations in which these four conditions are commonly met and rumour is [rampant](#). First, in a social order in which information is, or is believed to be, [strictly controlled by authorities](#), rumour is intense. When control over news is a continuing (rather than temporary) condition, rumour becomes regularized as an essential aspect of daily life. The so-called grapevines created by these conditions are regularly utilized by totalitarian regimes, military organizations, and subordinated ethnic groups, races, and social classes.

Second, rumour spreads when events [threaten](#) the understandings upon which normal life is based. A major disaster or scandal presents such a challenge. Any change in the regular [accommodations](#) between potentially conflicting or competing groups in society similarly calls into question routine patterns of conduct. The suggestion that management may enforce factory rules more strictly, for example, or the suggestion that a college faculty may stiffen or relax degree requirements, immediately provokes a siege of rumour.

Third, rumour springs up when a strong, shared incentive to act is blocked in some way, even by merely the lack of an occasion for [action](#). During states of boredom, rumour capitalizes on minor events, magnifying them into occasions for exciting collective action.

## **16.6 Public**

The public does not exhibit emotional intensity and impulsiveness. In the public there is an absence of excitement and tension. Public is a scattered group of people. Public is a critical group. In the public, discussion is essential which is generally free and unimpassioned. The members of a public have common interests. In the public the contact is through communication by means of press, TV, radio, etc. Public is not necessarily a face-to- group. In the public, there is contagion without contact. A public is a much bigger group than a crowd and is a rational group. The public deliberates in

regard to issue on the basis of facts and evidence and arrives at a consensus through the clash and modification of opinion.

### **16.6.1 Nature of Public**

A dispersed group.

- A deliberate group.
- Definite issue.
- Lack of organization.
- Disagreement.
- Self awareness.

Other points on nature of public:

- 1) A public has core members and fringe members.
- 2) The composition of members changes.
- 3) Individual can be members of many public at same time.
- 4) Social changes is decided upon within democracy

### **16.7 Audience**

An audience is a group of people who participate in a show or encounter a work of art, literature (in which they are called the 'reader'), theatre, music or academics in any medium. Audience members participate in different ways in different kinds of art; some events invite overt audience participation and others allowing only modest clapping and criticism and reception.

Media audiences are studied by academics in media audience studies. Audience theory offers scholarly insight into audience in general. These insights shape our knowledge of just how audience affect and are by different form of art.

#### **16.7.1 Types of Audience**

1. **Particular (real) audience:** In rhetoric, particular audiences depends on circumstance and situation and are characterized by the individuals that make up the audience. Particular audiences are subject to persuasion and engage with the ideas of speaker. Ranging in size and composition, particular audiences can come together to form a "composite" audience of multiple particular groups.
2. **Immediate audience:** An immediate audience is a type of particular audience that is composed of individuals who are face- to- face subjects with a speaker

and a speaker's rhetorical text or speech. This type of audience directly listens to, engages with and consumes the rhetorical text in an unmediated fashion. In measuring immediate audience reception and feedback, one can depend on personal interviews, applause and verbal comments made during and after a rhetorical speech.

3. **Mediated audience:** In contrast to immediate audiences, mediated audiences are composed of individuals who consume rhetorical texts in a manner that is different from the time or place in which the speaker presents a text. Audiences who consume texts or speeches through television, radio and internet are considered mediated audiences because those mediums separate the rhetor and the audience. Understanding the size and composition of mediated audiences can be difficult because mediums such as television, radio and internet can displace the audience from the time and circumstance of a rhetorical text or speech.
4. **Theoretical (imagined) audiences:** These are audiences that are imagined for the purpose of helping the speaker compose or a critic to understand, a rhetorical text or speech.

### 16.7.2 Definition of Audience

The public is an aggregation of persons, moving in a common universe of discourse, confronted by an issue or a value, divided in an opinion regarding ways to meet the issue or to appraise the value and engaging in discussion. -Mazumdar.

A public is a scattered group of people who share an interest in a particular topic. - Horton and Hunt.

Public is a substantial number of people with a shared interest in some issues on which there are differing opinions- Ian Robbertson

Nature of Public

A dispersed group.

- A deliberate group.
- Definite issue.
- Lack of organization.

- Disagreement.
- Self awareness.

Other points on nature of public:

- 1) A public has core members and fringe members.
- 2) The composition of members changes.
- 3) Individual can be members of many public at same time.
- 4) Social changes is decided upon within democracy

## **16.8 Crowd**

A crowd is a large and definable group of people, while “the crowd” is referred to as the so- called lower orders of people in general (the mob). A crowd may be definable through a common purpose or set of emotions, such as at a political rally, at a sports event, or during looting or simply be made up of many people going about their business in a busy area (eg shopping). Everybody in the context of general public or the common people is normally referred to as the masses. Crowd is defined as a large number of persons gathered together. It is a group of people united by a common characteristic, as age, interest, or vocation.

### **16.8.1 Characteristics of a crowd**

- A human being acts in a very different manner when in a crowd as compared to when the individual is alone in isolation. The conscious individuality vanishes in the unconscious personality of the crowd.
- Material contact is not absolutely necessary.
- Passions and sentiments, provoked by certain events, are often sufficient to create it.
- The collective mind, momentarily formed, represents a very special kind of aggregate.
- Its chief peculiarity is that it is entirely dominated by unconscious elements.
- It is subject to a peculiar collective logic.
- Possesses infinite credulity and exaggerated sensibility.
- There is a certain degree of shortsightedness amongst the members of the crowd.
- There is also some degree of incapacity to respond to the influences of reason. • Affirmation, contagion, repetition, and prestige constitute almost the only means of persuading the members in a crowd.
- Reality and experience have no effect upon them.



- The crowd will admit anything.
- Nothing is impossible in the eyes of the crowd.
- The sensibility of crowds, their sentiments, good or bad, are always exaggerated. These characteristics show that a person in the crowd descends to a very low degree in the scale of civilisation.
- In the intellectual domain a crowd is always inferior to the isolated unit.
- A crowd will commit a crime as readily as an act of abnegation.
- Personal characteristics vanish in the crowd. For example in a crowd, a miser becomes generous, the skeptic a believer, the honest man a criminal, the coward a hero.

One of the most notable consequences of the influence of a crowd is the unification of their sentiments and wills. This psychological unity confers a remarkable force upon crowds.

- In a crowd, gestures and actions are extremely contagious. Acclamations of hatred, fury, or love are immediately approved and repeated.
- They are propagated by contagion, but a point of departure is necessary before this contagion can take effect.
- Without a leader the crowd is an amorphous entity incapable of action.

## 16.8.2 Types of Crowd

### 1. Active crowds

The active crowd identifies an object or group of objects outside itself and proceeds to act directly upon it or them. It will brook no delay or interference, no discussion of the desirability of acting, and no dissent from its course of action. Because of the high pitch of crowd interaction, subtle and indirect courses of action cannot win crowd support, though members are highly suggestible to all proposals and examples for action in keeping with the mood and the object. The stage of transformation from shared mood to shared action constitutes the beginning of the true crowd or mob.

The crucial feature of this stage is overcoming the barriers to such behaviour as the destruction of property or violence toward persons—actions against which most people have strongly ingrained inhibitions. At least four aspects of the way crowd members feel

about the situation make this possible. First, there is a sense of an exceptional situation in which a special [moral code](#) applies. The crowd merely carries further the justification for a special code of [ethics](#) incorporated in the slogan “You have to fight fire with fire!” Second, there is a sense of power in the crowd, with its apparent determination and uniform will, that overcomes the individual’s doubts concerning his own ability to carry out a momentous task successfully. Third, there is a sense of [impunity](#), of safety from personal injury and punishment so long as the individual is on the side of the crowd. And finally, there is a sense of inevitability—that the crowd aim will be accomplished regardless of the doubts and opposition of individuals.

Once the crowd breaks through the barrier of conventional restraints there is typically a “Roman holiday” period during which all restraint appears to be dropped. To the outsider, people seem to have gone mad. Rage is entirely uninhibited. But at the same time an atmosphere of intense enjoyment and release is evident. There is laughing and cheering as the violence and destruction become part of a [tremendous](#) carnival.

Under cover of the Roman holiday, people pursue many different interests. Looting for personal gain is infrequent in the early stages of rioting. The leading agents in bringing the mob into being are too preoccupied with their indignation for this. But once the general attack is under way, looting for gain, [vandalism](#) for fun, and attacks on specific objects to pay off old grudges become prevalent. In Russian and Polish pogroms of the 19th and early 20th centuries, peasants came with their carts to loot Jewish property after they heard that the pogrom was under way. Lynchings in the southern United States in the early part of the 20th century were frequently followed by general [forays](#) on Black neighbourhoods.

The active crowd normally ends with a tapering-off period, which is sometimes preceded by a stage of siege. In riots of limited scale in which no massive police or military forces are used, the peak day is followed by a few more days of successively smaller numbers of widely scattered encounters. Often the last incidents are in areas not previously hit by rioting. There seems to be some internal mechanism limiting the duration of crowd behaviour, though whether it is fatigue, [catharsis](#), or reassertion of

ingrained standards of behaviour is uncertain. In serious riots, however, the police and other armed forces are brought into action long before the riot declines on its own. When [police power](#) is applied with only enough force to ensure a standoff between rioters and authorities, there is a period—usually ranging from one to three or four days—of siege. The mood of buoyancy gives way to a mood of dogged persistence. Rioters are more cautious and deliberate in what they do. The desire to have the riot over grows among the participants and in the community, but there is reluctance to give up the fight until [concessions](#) have been won.

A crowd develops only when a necessary sequence of events occurs and when conditions [conducive](#) to crowd development are present. There are at least six such conditions of importance. The first is a deep frustration that is shared by an important segment of the population and that has been festering for a considerable period of time. The frustration is especially [poignant](#) when widening intergroup contacts make the frustrated segment more vitally aware of its disadvantages, when its members have been encouraged by education or a public policy statement to aspire to relatively unattainable objectives, and when a period of steadily improving conditions is suddenly interrupted. Second is the presence of deep intergroup cleavages in society. A crowd must have not only a grievance but also an oppressor whom it can blame for its condition. Third is some contradiction in the value system of society, so that there is support both for the social arrangements that the group finds frustrating and for its demands for change. Fourth is a failure of [communication](#), so that [grievances](#) can no longer be presented to the appropriate authorities with confidence that they will be given some consideration. Fifth is some failure in the system of control. Mobs often catch [police](#) unprepared. In many instances the police, by virtue of their class or ethnic identity, are in sympathy with mobs and unwilling to enforce order. Sixth are experiences leading people to hope that conditions will be improved as a result of violent or disruptive action. Many riots have the support of a well-developed [ideology](#), or they follow occasions when demonstrations and other less extreme tactics have won gains. Among the reasons that mob actions do not soon recur in a given location are

that the forces of order are usually strengthened, the hope of great gain is dampened, and channels of communication are often improved after a mob action.

## **2. Expressive crowds**

Not all crowds act. In some crowds the participants are largely preoccupied with themselves or with one another, and with participation in a common experience. Beginning as early as the 7th century in Europe, and continuing throughout the Middle Ages, there were reported [epidemics](#) in which groups of people were caught up in a frenzy of [dancing](#) that continued until they dropped. Later a collective frenzy of dancing, singing, and shouting became a regular feature of frontier [revivals](#) in 19th-century America. Crowds that exceeded conventional limits of revelry have been common in many historical eras. In San Francisco in 1945, license for public violation of sexual mores characterized the day of celebration at the end of the war with Japan.

Expressive crowds may be [secular](#) or religious. What distinguishes them is that the production of a shared subjective experience is the crowd's measure of its accomplishment, rather than any action upon objects outside the crowd. One interpretation is that the same determinants of social unrest and frustration may give rise to both the expressive crowd and the active crowd, but the expressive crowd fails to identify an object toward which to act; hence members must release accumulated tension through motions and gestures expressing [emotion](#). According to this view an expressive crowd can fairly quickly metamorphose into an active crowd if an object becomes apparent to them. Another interpretation sees the expressive crowd as equally equipped with an object, but with an object that must be acted upon symbolically rather than directly. Thus, one crowd engages in a wild dance to exorcise evil spirits, whereas another seeks to destroy buildings associated with the "establishment" that it blames for many ills.

The expressive crowd may serve best those types of frustrations requiring revitalization of the individual and group rather than direct modification of external circumstances. Expressive crowds may be especially frequent in periods of frustration and boredom over the predictability and routinization of life, from lack of a sense of meaning and

importance in the daily round of life, and from a sense of interpersonal isolation in [spite](#) of the physical closeness of others.

## **16.9 Mob**

The term “mob mentality” is used to refer to unique behavioural characteristics which emerge when people are in large groups. It is also referred to as herd behaviour and crowd hysteria. The term ‘mob’ refers to a disorganized, aggressive or panicked group of people who are rather irrational and illogical in their thinking. It appears as if they have lost the capacity to think rationally. Social psychologists who study group behaviour tend to study the mob mentality as the subject is quite fascinating. The data obtained is an analysis of situations which range from evacuations gone awry to the moment when demonstrations turn violent.

Social psychologists and animal psychologists do study behaviours related to a group or herd as the term refers to. Psychologists have been studying and observing amongst animals the behaviour of flocks, herds, gaggles, pods, kindles, and other assortments of animals for thousands of years. However only in the early part of the 20th century, the observers started applying scientific approach and theories to such behaviours of animals and also humans.

Mob mentality refers to the behaviour of a group of people which has got out of control. We have been hearing about Kumbh Mela where year after year large numbers of people get trampled and this kind of behaviour of humans is referred to as mob mentality. The rational human being suddenly turns very selfish and becomes only concerned with self and thus unmindful of what is happening to others, he tries to escape the situation by causing considerable harm and damage to other humans. Such instances are typical examples of the desperate actions of people who involve themselves during a period of intense arousal. Such persons may mob trucks with relief supplies, trample each other at some ‘mela’ or theater, or riot in the streets in response to resource scarcity or a perceived scarcity.

However, “mob mentality” is about more than just crowds which have gotten out of control. The field of psychology is very interested in the ways in which human behaviour changes in response to new social situations. People behave very differently in small groups of individuals than they do in big crowds, and their behaviour in crowds is affected by a wide variety of factors.

The study of group behaviour can analyse situations to see where, when, and why they went wrong. Stock market crashes, for example, can be precipitated by mob mentality, as people start to panic in response to fluctuating markets.

The study of crowds has also been used to study grim topics like the rise of anti sikh riots that erupted when Prime Minister Indira Gandhi was assassinated. Similarly immediately following partition in India, the riots between Muslims and Hindus which broke out when India was partitioned. Psychologists hope that by studying mob mentality and crowd behaviour, they can prevent such events from recurring in education, occupation and intelligence. The members of the mob are attending to and reacting to some common object in a common way. Sometimes heightened emotionality is a characteristic feature of mob behaviour. The significant features are anger, fear, joy etc. Sometimes they become unreasonable, intolerant and fickle-minded. Most common characteristic of the mob behaviour is the diminished sense of responsibility. They are generally irresponsible in their behaviours. For instance, an aggressive mob may do some unfortunate things such as breaking or damaging public property and damaging buses, trains and burning things which they will not do at an individual level. Being part of the mob they indulge in all those activities and happenings. Not only this, they get a sense of autonomy which is a typical characteristic feature of the mob. Suggestion, imitation and sympathy are the three mechanisms of interaction which we can observe in the mob behaviour. It can further be said that mob behaviour is due to the operation of a number of factors, some of which depend upon the predisposition of the individuals and characteristics of the situation in which the collectivity finds itself. Mob behaviour is conditioned by so many factors including past as well as present factors, social as well as individual factors.

## 16.10 Self Check Exercise

- Define inter group and Intra group relation.
- What do you mean by collective behaviour?
- Define public.

## 16.11 Summary

Generally, in a crowd, individuals excite the thoughts and actions of their fellow beings and are influenced by them. It can also be said that self confidence of individuals increases manifold because they have a sense of mass strength. One essential characteristic of a crowd is the gathering of sufficient persons at one place. It is the psychological characteristics of crowd that distinguishes and differentiates its behaviour from that of an individual in isolation. It is due to them that emotion, rather than thought, circulate rapidly through a crowd. In a crowd due to increased suggestibility, the experience of mass strength etc., people do not retain their sense of responsibility and behave differently which is quite different from their personality and usual behaviour. People lose their capacity for reflection, their emotions grow excited and powerful, and they tend to do or say what they are told by another, without thinking about it. According to Freud and other psychoanalysts, the conduct of the crowd is governed by the unconscious impulses of persons. Due to absence of inhibitions the repressed tendencies are excited and persons behave like insane beings. The emotions and the ideas of the crowd change rapidly. Every thought and excitement moves through the crowd like a contagious disease. Fear, anger, sorrow, delight etc., circulate very rapidly in a crowd because of the increased suggestibility of its members. A crowd loses its capacity to differentiate between moral and immoral or good or bad. It can be said from the psychological analysis of the behaviour of crowd that man's behaviour in a crowd is driven or governed by instincts, sentiments and emotions. The person's suggestibility, sentimentality and emotionality are heightened and intensified and his unconscious impulses are given free reign. A crowd is excessively emotional, impulsive, fickle, inconsistent and extreme in its actions, extremely suggestible, careless in deliberation, hasty in judgment, suffers from a lack of self consciousness, is devoid of

self respect and a sense of responsibility. In this context it can be said that collective behaviour is that type of social behaviour which is unpredictable, which is not regulated by any set of rules or procedures and is guided by unreasoning beliefs, hopes, fears and hatreds. It can further be said that collective hysteria is a phenomena in which a group of people simultaneously exhibit similar hysterical symptoms. It is a mass delusion, in which a group of people become governed by irrational beliefs or moral panic.

### 16.12 Glossary

- **Attitude:** An enduring system of evaluations or feeling in favour of or against a person or group.
- **Group:** A collection of individuals who are in interdependent relationship with one another sharing common norms of behaviour and attitude, i.e., two or more people interact and influence one another.
- **Communication:** The exchange of meaning and mutual influence.

### 16.13 Suggested Readings

1. Baron, R.A. and Byrne, D.(2000). Social Psychology, 8th Edition, Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
2. Kuppaswamy, B.(1980), An Introduction to Social Psychology, 2nd Revised edition, (reprinted,2004), Asia Publishing House, Mumbai.
3. Myers, G. David (2008), Social Psychology, 9th edition, The McGraw Hill Companies, Inc.

### 16.14 Terminal Questions

1. What do you mean by collective behaviour?
2. Explain the mob.
3. What do you mean by crowd?



## **ASSIGNMENTS**

**Course code: SOC-E-403**

**Course Name- Social Psychology**

**Note: Attempt any four questions**

**Maximum Marks: 20**

1. Explain the nature and scope of social psychology.
2. Define leadership. What are the characteristics and function of leadership?
3. What do you mean by motivation? Explain the types of motivation.
4. Define learning concept. What are the types of learning>
5. Explain the nature and types of social group.

